

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1841.

ART. I.—THE COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF FRANCE.

I.

THE BOURBONS BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

COULD the marshals who paid, a few months ago, the last tribute to the Emperor Napoleon, have reviewed the revolutions in which they stood by his side ; or, going further, have called up before them the memory of the convulsions in the midst of which their childhood had passed, they would have brought together the materials for a drama more bold than the most imaginative poet could have conceived, and yet as strictly shackled by the laws of unity as could have been required by the most rigid censor. The course of an ordinary lifetime was sufficient to cover the humiliation and overthrow of the most absolute dynasty in Europe ; the subsequent construction of a democracy, the most licentious ; the establishment of an empire the most splendid ; and finally, after every note had been struck to which the finger of the speculatist could reach, the erection of a monarchy whose chief characteristic is its freedom from the points that more prominently distinguished its predecessors. The Bourbons were dethroned because they paid no attention to the demands of the lower classes ; and after them arose a system which was ineffectual, because it paid attention to nothing else. The empire was built on the experience of the structures whose place it was to supply ; and while, on the one hand, by means of its splendid victories and munificent improvements, it conciliated the affections of the third estate, it preserved to its founder the supreme authority, untrammelled by the restraints which a representative government would throw over him. The administration of Louis Philippe, like a shuttlecock, which can only be kept above-ground by being kept in motion, has passed from policy to policy with a swiftness so great, that it is difficult to discover in it the existence of those great characteristics which marked the establishments which it follows. There has been a steady progress, we acknowledge, since the revolution of 1830, to an increased liberalization of the state. Its finances have been placed in an

order which gradually approaches, in its symmetry, to the model which is afforded by those of Great Britain. While the political constitution of the realm has varied from shape to shape, its commercial energies have expanded to an extent which will oppose a barrier to the encroachments of prerogative, which it will require a second revolution to overthrow. The smallest manufactory at Lyons is a republic in itself; and by its looms, or at its engine, stand men who have learnt in the best school which the philosopher can devise, the value and the extent of their rights. The peasant, who lifted his arm against the crying oppression and the gross licentiousness of Louis XV., has been followed by the well-fed and enterprising manufacturer, who still retains, in the increased advantages which he possesses for self-defence, the spirit which would enable him to make use of them. We traced, in a preceding number, the course by which a private bank, started by a Scotch adventurer in Paris, arose to a pitch of credit and of strength so great, that it involved in its existence the temporary prosperity and the immediate resources of the state. We might rehearse at present, as a fit introduction to a consideration of the commercial history of the French nation, the bold assumptions by which it drew within its vaults the entire circulation of the kingdom, till after having fairly taken on board the floating wealth which was thus brought together, it foundered in the first storm, and cast its treasures in wreck on the shore, to be snatched up by the officers of the customs as the prizes of the king's prerogative. The history of the Mississippi Scheme is the best illustration which can be brought forward, of the profligacy of the times that produced it. We proceed, in carrying out the plan which we suggested in the summary which we have already given of its operations, to consider the condition of the actual resources of the realm, in the period that intervened between the bankruptcy under Louis XV., and the revolution under his successor.

"I may be blamed for having neglected the agricultural resources of the realm," said Calonne, when delivering his last account; "but if I have done so, it has been because my whole administration has been devoted to the fostering of its manufactures." The principle of Louis XIV., that the producing and the working classes must ever remain hostile, had led the court, in choosing which of the antagonist interests it should prefer, to bestow its patronage on that which possessed the most available means at hand. The silk and porcelain manufactories were growing up with a rapidity that had startled the old economists from theories which they had drawn from the sluggish movements of the landed capitalists. The shackles which a little while after were laid on trade, were not then in existence; and the operations of the French merchants were extending over the continent under the privilege with which they were endowed, of pursuing their schemes without the interference of the king or his council. While the native productions of the realm were rapidly vanishing, its manufactures, whether they were framed from the resources which were supplied at home, or from the raw material from other countries, increased till they obtained throughout Europe a market which opened to them a source of boundless wealth. Had the commerce of France been left to itself by the civil administration, and had it been properly backed by her producing interests, it would have preserved, in all probability, to the present moment, the supremacy, both in east and west, to which it had at first attained.

When the feudal tenures were abolished in Great Britain, they opened to the tenant himself the prospects of self-advancement, which the freehold possession of his land afforded to him. He was master of the soil, unclogged by those unwise restrictions, which could rob him of the feeling of independence, and place him in the position of a slave, rather than of a citizen. The sharpest incentive to labor, is the certainty of reaping its fruits. The laboring man will never sow that the wild-fowl may gather; and when he finds that the taxes which gild the royal nest, eat away three-fourths of what he produces, he throws aside his spade, and falls back on pauperism, as the most likely means of support. When the military services which were due from the tenant to the lord paramount, were commuted into a pecuniary tax, it affected those only who ceased, under its provisions, to bear arms; while the nobles and gentlemen who followed the court, were discharged from the payment of money, on the ground that they continued to perform the military services for which it was intended to be a compensation. But when, after a while, both peer and peasant became liable to be called upon to serve in the armies of the king, nothing could be more unjust than a distinction which was based upon a principle which no longer existed. The nobleman was discharged from tax-paying, because he was liable to be drawn into military service; the people themselves, though they had consented to a tax on condition they should be relieved from bearing arms, were forced, before a great while, to perform the duty, from the obligations of which they had been by contract discharged. The consequence was, that the whole burden of the realm fell on the minor proprietors of the soil, who were forced to pay, not only for their own oppression, but for the extravagance of the overseers who imposed it. The burden it would be difficult to estimate by the ordinary rules of political economy. The lands alone were taxed at one tenth of their value; while every article which they produced, after having been subject to the exactions which the remains of the feudal system placed in the hands of the lord paramount, was brought under the ordeal of a heavy excise. There was no distinction made between what was necessary for every-day use, and for exportation or luxury. Salt was in great demand by the lower classes, as the only relish which they could obtain to flavor their rough food; and therefore, salt became the subject of a heavy impost. If it was discovered that the revenue of the approaching season would be insufficient to meet the expenditures, the court, by an edict of a character so despotic that it is difficult to imagine authority absolute enough to support it, would lower the value of the coin before the tax was collected; and then, when their treasury was rich with the unusual prize, raise it again to its former standard. That vast achievement of fraud and violence, which in a former number we described, and which involved the smaller proprietors of the kingdom in a bankruptcy which pushed them to utter ruin, is the most striking illustration which we can bring forward, of the recklessness of the financial policy of France before the administration of Necker.

It may not be out of place at present, to explain briefly the character of the French tenures, as they existed at the accession of Louis XVI. Who is there, who looks at the masses who sprang up when the first trumpet was sounded, without wondering from what quarter they had come, or under what auspices they had been diverted so totally from that natural love of the soil on which they had grown, and the cottages in

which they had dwelt, which in other countries bears so powerful an influence? The French revolutionist was without a home, and we may say, without a country. He was deprived of a freehold interest in the soil, and was deprived, therefore, of a corporate interest in its welfare. That men will be found, under the most favorable circumstances, who will refuse to earn a livelihood by their own industry, or retain that which was transmitted to them by others, there is no doubt; but in France, at the period that preceded the revolution, two thirds of the population were outcasts. They were bankrupt and homeless; and we think that it may be said to have been the leading cause of the convulsion which succeeded, that they who produced it had no means of subsistence, except in the confusion it should afford. With a gigantic effort of despair, they tore up the forest that shaded them, to seek amid its roots the food which should supply their hunger. They were in a condition which has been called intermediate between slavery and freedom; but if they were subject to the responsibilities of the latter state, they were equally bound by the restraints of the former. The *Metayers*, or, as they were named in Latin, the *Coloni Partiarii*, formed the greater part of the out-door laborers under the old economy; and though their immunities were greater than those of the old English *villains*, we cannot but believe that in many instances, the superior privileges with which they were intrusted became additional links in their shackles. The great proprietor, though without an absolute ownership of the land, was able, through the possession of the capital with which its stock was to be bought, and its implements to be provided, to reduce its cultivators into vassalage. As the farmer was unable to pay immediately the sum thus borrowed, he bound his land as security through a perpetual rent, by which he stipulated to pay half its produce to the proprietor. "It could never," says Adam Smith, "be the interest of the *metayers* to lay out, in the further improvement of the land, any part of the little stock which they might save from their own share of the produce, because the lord, who laid out nothing, was to get one half of whatever it produced." The subtraction of a tithe from the annual produce of land, has a sensible effect in diminishing the tenant's expenditure for its improvement; and when one half of its value is taken from his hands, he must possess still less disposition to throw the scanty fund that will remain after his immediate expenses are paid, into so barren an investment. It was very natural, therefore, that in a country where five parts out of six of the cultivators held their land by so oppressive a tenure, the landlords found that the land grew yearly more barren, their rents more irregular, and their estates less productive. It may palliate the bitterness of the first insurrectionists, we may be permitted to add, to reflect that they were slaves in every thing but in the exemption from self-support which slavery affords; and that they pressed, like the wolf, to the road-side, from the frozen hills in which they could no longer be nourished, to prolong their existence by a recourse to those primary laws which a state of desperation recalls.

We pass over, as foreign to the subject at present before us, the consideration of French taxation, as finally developed in the reign of Louis XV. We might argue, with Necker, that as the productiveness of the land must vary with the extent of the burdens with which it is laden, and as its political welfare, as well as its commercial existence, must depend upon its productiveness, the extent in which its taxes are imposed must affect, in the

highest degree, its mercantile interests. But when the revenue itself is made a tool in the hands of a favored class, for the conferring of bounties on manufactures in which they are interested; or when, in order to raise it, discriminating duties or imposts are laid which overturn the natural laws of trade; it becomes justly the object of deep observation, both by the merchant and the political economist. No scheme more plausible could have been presented to Louis XIV., when his funds were exhausted by his splendid career of empty triumphs, than that which was brought before him by Colbert, for the raising of a fresh revenue, at the same time that home manufactures were encouraged. A sudden stimulus was given to the looms of Lyons and of Nantes; and, in a little while, the French capitalist flattered himself that while his wealth was increased by orders from every port in Europe, there was not an article imported within the shores of France which he found it necessary to purchase. By the tariff of 1667, duties were imposed that threw the whole patronage of the nation in the hands of its manufacturers. But the system was hardly in operation, before the natural balance of trade was destroyed; and the English and Dutch, finding that their commodities were no longer of value in the French market, thought themselves called upon to make French commodities of no value in their own. The Dutch laid an entire embargo on the wines, brandies, and manufactures that came from France. William III., who was doubly incensed with the French for harboring his father-in-law, and for taxing his exports, retaliated with a severity which has been the source of continued bickering between the countries, and more than once the cause of war. A *discriminating* duty of £8 a tun was imposed. in 1693, on French wine, which, in 1697, was raised to £33 a tun. The consequences have been, though we may be anticipating future topics in adverting to them, that the seaports of France, which, in some cases, are nearer the shores of England than those of Ireland herself, and which, in all cases, are commercially more connected with Liverpool, or with Bristol, than they are with Paris, have been thrown, through the "ingenuity" of the restrictive laws of both countries, at such a distance, that the familiar productions which they bear, are more inaccessible than if they were raised in the sands of Africa, or the wilds of the Pacific islands.

It was not without reason that Calonne, when he surveyed the great kingdom which was intrusted to his charge, saw in it the future manufactory from which Europe should be clothed, if not the granary from which it was to be fed. Spread, as they are, under a bright sky and a temperate climate, those broad and fertile plains which have been made the camps of revolutionary armies, or the base on which Napoleon erected those stupendous calculations that overthrew the feeble and threadbare policy on which the old economy was built, might have become, under other circumstances, the scene of triumphs more substantial by far than those which his arms have won. We shall review, when in a succeeding paper we speak of the present condition of the commerce of France, the resources which she now possesses, and the extent to which they are cultivated. We transcribe, at present, a table of her imports and exports before the revolution, which is collected from Necker's work on the administration of the finances, and which may be relied on, as giving the most accurate account of the commercial relations of the kingdom at that important period.

Articles of Export in 1787.

Wines,	24,276,000 livres,
Brandy,	14,455,000
Vinegar,	130,000
Made wines and liqueurs,	244,000
Fruits,	1,518,500
Almonds,	850,000
Olive oil,	1,732,000
Corn and grain of all kinds,	9,700,000
Beans, peas, lentils, &c.	949,200
Honey,	644,000
Oxen, sheep, and hogs,	5,074,000
Mules, asses, and horses,	1,400,000
Salt,	2,322,000

It must be remembered, that owing to the severe restrictions under which French manufactures were placed in foreign countries, a large amount of goods passed through the hands of smugglers, without being subject to a registry in the customhouse. It will be seen by a reference to the following statement, that such must have been the case very strongly in relation to those carried into Great Britain. The proportion in which the various countries with which the trade was carried on, participated in it in the year 1787, is thus exhibited :

	Exports.	Imports.
Spain and her colonies,	Ls.44,431,000	Ls.33,343,000
Portugal and her colonies,	\$3,995,000	10,468,000
Italy, Savoy, Switzerland, and Geneva,	78,343,000	82,022,000
England, Scotland, Ireland, and colonies,	37,962,000	63,054,000
Holland and colonies,	46,022,000	\$33,142,000
Germany, Austrian Flanders, Prussia, and Poland,	95,614,000	63,974,000
Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and Hanse towns,	79,851,000	31,648,000
Turkey, and the Barbary powers,	25,609,000	37,725,000
United States of America,	12,607,000	24,539,000*

We can gather, therefore, so far at least as Spain, the Italian states, and Germany are concerned, the actual amount of the foreign trade of France, in the first moment of the revolution. M. Arnould, in a work which is largely quoted by a writer whom we have before us, has analyzed with great sagacity the data which were so copiously afforded by Necker in his various reports, and has produced a view of the commercial condition of the nation at the time, which is worthy of attentive consideration. The exportations in 1787, to all parts of the world, he calculated, amounted to 542,604,000 livres; the importations to 611,003,000 livres: the

* The foregoing statement of the exports and imports of France in the year 1787, is taken from Peuchet's great work on French statistics, as abridged by Mr. Taylor—pp. 127, 8, 9. It may be also found, though in an expanded form, both in M. Necker's history of the finances of France, and in his *Compte rendu au Roi*. We have given it as it is, without alteration of nomenclature, because the value which it then conveyed, can be better expressed by a reference to the denominations current at the time, than by a reduction to our own standard.

balance against France being, in consequence, 68,399,000 livres. The amount thus due, and which must have been paid from the bullion of the realm, or its current coin, was much smaller than it had been at previous periods, and, in fact, had been gradually diminished through the increased excellence of the silk manufactures. So great an inequality in trade, combined with the terrible oppression which was produced by the unequal tenures, and the enormous taxes of the kingdom, can go some way to explain the extent of the sufferings of the people who experienced them.

The colonial grandeur of France exists now only in history. Those magnificent conquests, which her merchants and her privateers had achieved on their own resources, were snatched one by one from her when her government assumed them for a heritage. A notice of the resources of the nation before the revolution, would not be complete without a sketch of the colonies that constituted the most lucrative and the most promising among them. A century ago, two thirds of North America was in the hands of the French government. At the south, Louisiana was the base on which were erected those stupendous schemes, which would have covered the continent had they been carried out; while, at the opposite quarter of the horizon, was stretched a country, which had been conquered and peopled exclusively by French colonists and French traders. In Canada and Louisiana were the abutments on which the new system was to rest; and in the vast country that intervened, there were thousands of artificers employed on the structure that was to unite them. Already a series of forts hung around the thread which the Mississippi and its great tributary traced out, shining to the French adventurer, as he travelled over those boundless prairies which bordered on them, as beacons by which his path was to be guided. Xerxes stretched an iron chain across the Hellespont: it was reserved for the genius of Colbert and Henry to extend over the unpeopled wastes of North America, another of far more imposing dimensions. To obtain the exclusive control of the Newfoundland fishery, the northwestern fur trade, and the Mexican gold mines,—to lay the foundation, at the same time, for an empire that should spread over the new world,—was the cardinal measure which dictated the colonial policy of the French government, from the accession of Mazarine to the death of Henry. The fisheries at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, were used as an illustration of the rich prey that was thus to be secured. “We are planting,” might have reasoned Mazarine, “at the foot of the Mississippi, and by the course of the St. Lawrence, the stakes on which hangs the net which shall soon sweep over America. Already, along the shores of those great rivers, may be seen the buoys that mark the swoop which it has taken. The bravest soldiers,—the most hardy pioneers,—stand along its line, to watch it, and to keep fast its moorings. The day is coming, when the king of France, with one hand on its southern base, the other at its northern limit, shall draw it over the face of the continent, till the English colonies are swept away in its meshes.” In the most inaccessible posts of the western territories, there were stationed garrisons who, by their discipline, intimidated the fiercest of the tribes around them, or bought over, through the baubles that formed the medium of exchange, such as could not be intimidated. In those remote countries which are spread between the Mississippi and the Pacific,—in points the most distant from habitation—where the broken skeleton of a buffalo alone, or the blazed patch on which an Indian camp has stood, betray the presence of

mankind,—the hunter sees traces of lofty mounds and wide fortifications, which he can only account for, by dating them back to an era when another race possessed the land. The French colonial establishment, like a precocious child which exhausts its strength in the erection of gigantic playthings, made the valley of the Mississippi the theatre on which its waywardness should be displayed; and drew together from distant quarries, through roads which it required a regiment by itself to construct, those vast blocks which now form its only monument.

The student looks in vain to discover those great cities, which were blazoned out in the old French charts, as the Babylons of the new world, Louisburg, the cathedral city of the church of Rome, the destined capital of the French dominions in America, is reduced to a scanty collection of fishermen's huts; and that spacious harbor, in which rival fleets floated at anchor, and which was the scene of the first great sea-fight between France and England, is disturbed only by fishing-boats from Newfoundland, or whalers from the New England states. Could a poet be found, who could visit the graveyard of nations, and, like Gray, draw out the elegy of those who were interred therein, he would find that, besides the giants of the old world, who arose to their full strength, who passed through the vicissitudes of spring, and fall, and winter, and who sank at last as much from the decrepitude of old age, as the violence of enemies,—there were others who decayed before their manhood was arrived, through the exhaustion of premature exertions, or the sterility of their transplanted soil. Like a plant which is carried to a foreign climate, and there raised under the protection of hot-house growth to an unnatural luxuriance, the French colonies in North America spread their tendrils widely over the soil, and threw forth, in the full excitement of their strength, their roots, till they were checked by the impassable barriers of nature. They had reached the utmost limits of expansion when the war broke out; and suddenly, the nurse who had watched over them withdrew her care, and they were left to battle single-handed against the violence of their enemies. Their scanty resources were soon exhausted, and before long, the whole vitality of the system deserted its extremities, and hedged itself once more within the base from which it sprang.

We have no data by which to estimate the value of the American colonies. Like all others, they sucked from the parent state in their infancy, much more than they returned. That miserable policy that induces the home administration to make use of its colonies as prison-houses for its culprits, went a great way, under Louis XV., to break down the admirable system that had been set up by his predecessor. The usual epidemic, also, that infects settlements in a country where gold has been discovered, prevented the adventurers from employing themselves in any thing else but mining. Could a gold diviner have arisen, who—like the dying father who led his children to a thorough tillage of his garden by a general allusion to treasures hidden in it—could have induced the colonists to make use of their lust for gold for the improvement of the prairies that belonged to them, he might have prevented the decay that followed. The material distinction between the settlements in America and India was, that while in America the native tribes could never be made use of for field or house labor, in India they were speedily converted into the slaves of the newcomers, and were employed at large, in mining, in agriculture, and in bodily service. We have sketched in a former paper the history of the

splendid schemes which were laid down by Dupleix, on the Asiatic peninsula; and the triumphs even still more splendid, by which they were dissipated by Clive, till at last the throne of the British empire was seated on the spot where the cradle of the French had stood. Had Dupleix been possessed of that constitutional bravery which would have enabled him to press, like Clive, single-handed against the masses against him—to battle with a broken regiment against the countless armies of the native chiefs—he might have rode safely over both the stormy waves of his Indian campaigns, and the hidden rocks upon which the treachery of the home administration led him. But it was his misfortune, that while his breast was filled with ambition which could never rest till its course was fulfilled, and with ability enough to conceive plans which could meet his most daring expectations, he was deficient in the personal intrepidity which could make him the fit instrument to effect them. He required a banditti chief, who might fill the inferior machinery of his office, and bully the Indian princes into their accustomed allegiance, or drive Clive, at the point of the bayonet, behind his trenches. Dupleix returned home in 1754, to meet the ignorant reproaches of a ministry who visited upon his head the repulses which their own imbecility had courted. Louis XV. found at the close of his reign, that of those great colonial possessions which his predecessor bequeathed to him, there remained but a few distant islands, whom it would require the undivided attention of his navy to keep in remembrance of their fealty.

There are no official statements by which we can compute the value of the colonial trade, at the time when its extent was greatest. The French East India Company collected year after year an immense income, which gave the fortunes of princes to the merchants whom it comprised. In 1788, when by far the greater part of the trade had been cut off by war, and the weak concessions of the crown, the importations of cotton goods from Coromandel, in which alone, of all their former possessions, the French retained a footing, amounted to six millions of francs. According to the treatise of M. Page, there were employed in the trade with the American colonies in 1788, 677 vessels, measuring 190,753 tons, carrying out in produce or manufactures to the amount of 76,786,000 francs; and 105 vessels, measuring 35,227 tons, carrying negroes to the amount of 30,087, sold for 43,835,000 francs. The total amount of the returns direct to France was 218,511,000 francs, in colonial commodities. But we must remember that at the time the computation was made, those great provinces on the continent of America which were then ripening into value, had been torn from the French domains. The islands of St. Domingo, Martinico, Guadaloupe, Tobago, and Guiana, were the last possessions which remained to Louis XV. in a hemisphere of which at least one half, according to the computation we are now enabled to make, was passed to him by his ancestor. We have here the secret of the great decrease of the revenues and commerce of France, at the time when Necker was called to office. St. Domingo itself, the most powerful of the colonies that remained, was taking measures for revolt. The few islands that remained, were too small to be the seat of an extended trade, and too unwholesome to be the asylum of any but state criminals. Those vast cargoes of manufactured goods, which were at one time annually shipped to meet the wants of the colonists, had been superseded by the cheaper supplies which, as independent states, they could obtain from other countries, or which, as the subjects of

Great Britain, they were forced to take from her looms. It was not so much for the want of sugar, of coffee, of tobacco, that arose from the loss of her colonial possessions, that France suffered; as in the sudden and extended check that was given to her trade and her manufactures.*

It was not to be expected that a dynasty which had found far ampler means insufficient to feed its ambition and extravagance, should have been satisfied with an income which was little more than one half of that to which it had been accustomed. We shall consider, in the first place, the administration of the finances under Louis XIV. and his successor, so far as it is concerned with the subject which we have generally placed before us; and secondly, the character of the expenditures in which the crown was involved, and which became, from their great disproportion to the means of defraying them, the cause both of those daring usurpations which were levelled by Louis XV. against the parliament and the provincial authorities, and of those broad concessions which, under the milder reign of his successor, served only to give a vantage ground to the revolutionary spirit afloat. "I am accountable to God alone," said the king of France before she was revolutionized, as he marched with whip and spur into the parliament, when it had refused to register his edicts. It was on the theory of the completeness of the royal authority, that he maintained his entire independence over the laws of the realm, and his entire command over its finances. The collection of the revenue before the revolution, was in part vested in the hands of officers appointed directly by the crown, in part farmed out to those who could promise to perform its requisitions with the greatest advantage to the state. The taxes on consumption, including, according to the *Conversations-Lexicon*, the monopoly on salt and tobacco, the internal customs, the excise of the city of Paris, and the tax on liquors in the country, were farmed out in all cases. It is stated by the anonymous author of the *Life of Louis XV.*, that at least thirty per cent of the original value of the taxes as received, was lost before they reached the royal treasury; and so great became the avarice and the success of the farmers general, that they collected among themselves an income more than equal to the whole of the civil list of the crown. Necker concedes, in his official statement, that the average loss incurred in the collection of the revenue which was in the hands of the farmers general exceeded $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, while $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent would cover the costs which were suffered by that which was levied under officers of the crown. It had been customary in ruder periods for the king, when he wished to raise a particular sum, to pledge to those who lent it to him certain specified sources of revenue,

* The amount of the produce of the French settlement of Saint Domingo alone, in 1780, is estimated in the following table. It should be remembered that under the colonial system its ports were entirely under the command of the French government, and that they swallowed up the whole profits of its trade. The loss that accrued by the revolt of that great country from the crown, was, commercially speaking, the most serious of those which it had met with in its foreign possessions.

Sugar, refined and raw,	163,405,500	pounds weight	.	.	.	76,800,583	frances.
Coffee,	68,151,000	do do	.	.	.	38,712,480	do
Cotton,	6,289,000	do do	.	.	.	12,578,000	do
Indigo,	930,000	do do	.	.	.	8,081,700	do
Cocoa,	150,000	do do	.	.	.	111,000	do
Syrup,	34,453,000	do do	.	.	.	2,067,000	do
Turtle shell,	5,500	do do	.	.	.	66,000	do
Hides,	13,000	do do	.	.	.	285,000	do
Dye and other woods,	1,800,000	do do	.	.	.	225,000	do

out of which they were to satisfy the interest of the debt, until its principal was discharged. The creditor was able to make what he could out of the pledge, as he often was obliged to depend upon it as the sole source of his repayment; and the consequence was, that taxes which were then made over, were pressed to their utmost, in order to guaranty their holder from the contingency of a loss. Madame du Barri was rewarded for her complaisance by the mortgage of some of the most lucrative offices of the crown, and it may be imagined that they were not suffered to run to seed in the hands of the subalterns of her palace. There were 25,000 persons, according to Necker, who were engaged in farming the revenue, and sucking from it as much as possibly could be taken, without destroying its stream altogether.

It was from the dishonesty of the collectors, therefore, as well as from the extravagance of the crown, that the impositions became so enormous. There is no doubt, also, that from the inequality of the tenures, taxes which might otherwise have been easily encountered, became absolutely insupportable. The nobles being discharged from the principal impositions, and nobility being easily purchased by those who were rich enough to pay for it, the burden fell in a great measure upon those who were the most unable to bear it. Two thirds of the lands in the kingdom were exonerated through the rank of their owners, leaving only one third in the possession of the small proprietors, or of such capitalists as were not ranked among the privileged classes. The total amount of the land taxes was 210,000,000 livres, of which the third estate, though they owned only one third of the land, were made liable for at least three fourths. They were subjected exclusively, also, to the *corvees*, or the obligations to construct and repair those magnificent roads which traversed the whole of France, and to which they were dragged, whenever the schemes of the government required it, to work like galley slaves, without their consent and without remuneration. They were not only made the source from which the army was to be enlisted, but the objects upon which it was to be quartered, since by law their houses were to be opened and their barns emptied for the military who should be in want of shelter or food.

It is in the *gabelle*, or salt tax, however, that we can find the most fit illustration of the oppression of the old economy. Of the eighty millions of francs that were received by the agents of the farmers general, twenty millions at least were expended in the support of the collectors themselves, of the spies whom they employed to detect, and of the military to punish smuggling. The original value of a hundred weight of salt was $1\frac{1}{2}$ livre, and for such it could have been generally sold throughout the kingdom. By the imposition of the salt tax, its market price was raised to 62 livres. By smuggling a pocket full of salt, therefore, from Brittany to Maine or Anjou, a sum equal to a day's wages could be procured, and smuggling became so profitable, that on an average, five hundred offenders against the revenue laws were sent annually to the galleys. There was not an article of food or of clothing, however common or however necessary, that did not fall under the supervision of the government: after having been loaded with taxes till it approached in value to the highest luxuries, it was cast out again to the people who required it. "If it is asked," said Madame de Staël, "why the lower classes became so cruel during the revolution, no other cause need be assigned than that poverty and misery had produced a moral corruption."

It was through the scandalous licentiousness of the court that the wounds which its extravagance created, were inflamed till they became insufferable. The French people showed, by the patient fortitude with which they bore burdens still greater under the republic or the empire, that the efforts which they could make for their national liberties, or the sacrifices which they could offer to the ambition of an emperor, could be met without exhaustion, when the patient would have winced and rebelled against far slighter inflictions under the dynasty of the Bourbons. They were willing to be spurred on to the fields of Austria, or the wastes of Central Russia, to throw down their life in fulfilling the terrible course that had been marked out by their chief; but their nature revolted against the monotonous servitude in which they were placed under the old regime. Like show-horses in the ancient amphitheatres, they were driven round and round the narrow ring by which the sphere of their existence was described, while on their backs were perched the puppets and creatures of the court, who showed forth for the amusement of royalty the most grotesque and the most wearisome antics. We have heard of violent corrosive acids being cast into fish-ponds, in order to display to the amusement of the experimenters the contortions of the creatures on whom they were to operate. With a cruelty still more barbarous, since its victims were of a higher grade, the later ministers of Louis XV. exhibited, for the gratification of their lord, spectacles which assumed for their theatre the kingdom itself, and which, from the number and the earnestness of their performers, were necessarily unrivalled. We are told that on the recovery of the Dauphin from a dangerous illness, which had bid fair to cut off the succession to the crown, Madame Pompadour signalized her gratitude by a display which swallowed up the whole of the revenue which had, during the past year, been levied through the enormous tax on salt to which we have alluded. In the grounds of the castle of Belle-vue, which was the scene of her courtly errors, an artificial lake was constructed, which was surrounded by a basin of rocks which had been carried from distant mountains, at an expense which was only made supportable by the fact that the neighboring peasants were obliged to assist without pay in their transportation. A *dolphin*—which, as its name in French is the same with that of the *Dauphin* himself, was meant to represent him allegorically, though we cannot but think that a more worthy emblem could have been found for the prince royal—was planted in the midst of the water, on a pedestal which lifted it entirely out of its element. While in that position, a number of monsters, all of them built on the most mythological models, and all of them moved by the court pages, advanced to attack it; and as they were illuminated by lamps inside of their frames, and as those who were in them spouted fire-works from their mouths, they presented a spectacle which was as ludicrous to those in a distance, as it was perilous to those engaged. But Apollo, who was sitting on a cloud at some distance, became alarmed at the danger of his royal favorite, and descended in a chariot, with such a full supply of firebrands and thunderbolts, that he consumed in a little while, not only the monsters themselves, but all that was inside of them. We do not wish to speak lightly of a catastrophe so serious, but as from the courtly description which is given of the festival by the author by whom it is recorded, it is difficult to discover to what extent the prodigality of human life was carried, we are willing to suppose, that in accordance with the penal laws by which such exhibitions are governed, none but con-

demned criminals were exposed to the wrath of Apollo's darts. It is said that the Dauphin was by no means gratified by the compliment, and refused to participate in the celebration by which it was concluded.

We might cite, would it not be inconsistent with our design, the historian of Louis XV. still further, as a witness not only of the immorality of the court, but of the reckless profuseness of its expenditures.* We have no intention of enumerating the series of unsuccessful wars, of costly embassies, of wild extravagancies, through which the reigns of the last of the Bourbons are stamped as the most oppressive, as well as the most profligate, in history. That great heritage which was transmitted by Henry IV. had been mutilated and exhausted by his successors. For a short period, under the consummate genius of Richelieu, and the supple completeness by which his leading maxims were adopted by Mazarine, the ancient policy of the monarchy was revived; but the career of Louis XIV. was checked when his ministers were taken from him, and he fell to the earth with a blow from whose force he never recovered. He succeeded, by an immense expenditure of blood and treasure, in securing for his grandson the disputed Spanish succession, but he found that the young king lost his French allegiance when he mounted the Spanish throne, and that before a great while he was himself engaged in hostilities with the power which he had helped to create. Louis XIV. left a debt of four thousand five hundred millions livres to be liquidated by his successor, and as

* In proportion as the distress of the people increased, the king's extravagance expanded. The pressure on the lower classes acted as a forcing pump on the spirits of the court, and raised them to a height that was positively indecent. No less than thirty thousand horses were employed in the equipage that was to meet the young dauphiness. A multitude of upholsterers were sent express from town to town, to ornament the villages through which the princess should pass, and to wring from the neighboring peasantry the little means which they possessed, for the decoration of triumphal arches, and the arrangement of extended illuminations. The oil which had been laid up for the approaching season was burnt up in one night's display; and when natural flowers could not be found to decorate the garlands for the approaching cavalcade, the kitchen gardens of the poor were rooted up to make good the deficiency. The flower-pot in the fire-works in Paris, which formed but a small part of the display with which the dauphiness was greeted, cost four thousand louis; and "we know," says the court memoir writer, "that a flower-pot goes off in a moment."

"France is in her honey-moon," said the strangers, as the provisions which had been laid up for the support of a year to come, were stewed down, and concentrated into costly jellies, to amuse their palate. The hive had been stormed, and its contents rifed, while its inhabitants were driven out by fire and smoke, to seek in the frozen fields fresh food for the winter. Behind that splendid vision that was looked upon by Burke at Versailles, sixteen years before the consummation of the revolution, there lurked distress that its gay mask could scarcely cover. At the moment that the dauphiness was at Versailles, in the centre of those magnificent spectacles that signalized her marriage, there was a riot at Besancon and at Tours, which was followed by the proclamation of martial law. In the counties of la Marche and the Limousin, four thousand of the citizens perished through starvation. There was a pamphlet published at the time, which may be likened in its popularity to Dean Swift's "proposals for eating Irish children in case of famine." It was entitled, "A singular idea of a good citizen, concerning the public festivals which are intended to be exhibited at Paris, and at court, upon occasion of the Dauphin's nuptials." After enumerating the costs of the entertainments, spectacles, fire-works, illuminations, and balls, whose cost would exceed twenty millions of francs, he proposed that they should be passed over for the time, and that the same amount should be deducted from the land tax. Had the plan been adopted, the wedding might have been less splendid, but that fearful tragedy that followed it would have been spared.

his successor was an infant of seven years old, it was placed under the nursing protection of a regency, who, if by the most iniquitous scheme of finance on record they managed to shift a good part of it on the shoulders of the people themselves, augmented in a ten-fold degree the actual poverty of the kingdom. The prudent and peaceful administration of Cardinal Fleury succeeded in replenishing for a time the royal coffers; but the improved condition in which he left the treasury, was only the signal for a fresh war, and for fresh expenditures. In the war of the Polish election, by which the king endeavored to replace his father-in-law on the throne from which he had once been driven, in the war against Austria in 1740, and in the war in favor of Austria in 1756, the ancient policy of the throne was overturned, and a system established, which, while it degraded the character, sucked out the resources of the state.

We do not wonder that Necker found himself unable to compute the channels through which the revenue, under Louis XV., was expended. Making allowance for the great appropriations which were necessary to support the wars in which France was engaged, and for the habitual expenses, also, of a court that set no bounds to its pleasures, there were sums amounting in whole to one fourth of the actual revenue of the kingdom, for which no outlet could be found. We might go further than the limit which was raised by the habitual prudence of the financier, and find in the extraordinary waste of the collected revenue of the state, the most striking illustration of the evils of the system that produced it. It is in France, before the revolution, that we can discover most perfectly the working of an absolute government; and if we wish to inquire in what way, under such an economy, the interests of trade would prosper, we will find ourselves enabled, by the history of that great country, to unravel the problem before us. We have no wish to underrate the character of the Bourbon dynasty. To promote the grandeur of their house was their cardinal object; and as France was their heritage, its prosperity was in a great measure bound up with their own. In Louis XIV. may be seen in full development the features that distinguished his family, from the last crusade of his sainted predecessor, to the period when the revolution broke off the chain of descent. He breathed from his childhood the atmosphere of etiquette, and, pervaded by the sentiments of all around him, it became his highest ambition to be the master of ceremonies in that great drawing-room in which the sovereigns of Europe were collected. To become the oracle through which the conventionalities of courts should be decided, was the point to which his exertions were directed, when he stepped into unshackled possession of his crown. But it would be doing injustice to Louis XIV. to stop here. It had been his good fortune to be placed under a minister from whom he could gather a code of policy which was exquisitely adapted to the purpose of lifting France, through the intricacy of diplomatic arrangements, to the chief place among the European nations. The young prince found himself, when he arrived at his majority, in a throne that gave him not only absolute control over the largest country in Europe, but a general supervision over the destinies of the continent itself. He became fully sensible of the loftiness of the part he was to play. Through the ambitious policy of the queen mother his education had been very much neglected; and unacquainted, therefore, with the essential character of the duties he was to perform, unversed in the past history of his kingdom, he supposed that the maintenance of the ancient grandeur

of the state could be achieved by the preservation of the outward dignity of his rank. Had his retinue been enfeebled by the desertion of his retainers, or his income diminished by their carelessness, he would have felt his claim to supremacy weakened; and his pride, therefore, was enlisted in maintaining to their full extent the prerogatives of his station. Like a nobleman who feels desirous, when he rides to some great state celebration, that his pannels should be unspotted by reproach and his attendants robust and well accoutred, the young king left no exertion untried, to raise his equipage to a pitch that should be suitable to his position. His attention was turned, therefore, to the stables and granaries of his kingdom, from whence his wants were to be satisfied. The luxuries of his table could only be supplied from the natural productions of the realm, or through the commercial enterprise of its merchants; and he felt that his princely hospitality must close, if the artisans and the mariners of the land should cease to work. It would have been a difficult matter for a man of ordinary apprehension to have remained blind to the conviction that his personal grandeur must depend upon the commercial resources of his kingdom; and Louis XIV. acquiesced with entire sincerity, before he had well emerged from his minority, in the plans which his ministers had laid down for the protection of the industry of the state.

The interests of trade, however, never thrive so well as when they are let alone; and however successful the severe restrictions which were thrown upon French commerce may have been in raising, for a time, the value of domestic manufactures, it was soon found that the foreign demand for wines and silks fell off in proportion as the importation of foreign productions was discouraged. No government can, by legislation, direct the merchant where he can sell dearly and buy cheaply, as well as his own immediate experience of the shifting wants of the market; and Louis XIV., by meddling in the delicate machinery of the commerce of his realm, disarranged it through the means he used to put it into order. We have heard of a noble philosopher who imported, at a vast expense, a company of beavers, whom he established on a stream of his estate, that he might not only discover the remote laws by which their labors were conducted, but that he might assist them, if necessary, by the deductions of human science. If an arch had been raised upon principles not quite philosophical, he would order it to be torn down, and another, on the exact model of the catenary curve, erected in its place. The immediate consequence was, that the untaught artificers, after struggling for a little while against the innovations of their protector, deserted in despair their dykes, and gave up all attempts to live in the manner for which nature had not adapted them. The experience which was reaped by the speculatist we have cited, might have been useful to the king of France, had he applied it to the system of parental control which he was erecting over the commercial interests of his subjects. The natural course of trade was checked and destroyed by the false tunnels and aqueducts through which he led it. Those vast and natural channels through which the stream had run, and which it had carved out for itself in its first necessity, were blockaded; and the country was hedged in by customhouses, and swarmed by excisemen, till the old circulation was entirely destroyed. If there was a manufactory for woollen goods established in Lyons, which found that the stuff it produced was underbid a hundred per cent by British commodities, a representation of the fact would be sent to the king in Paris, who lost no

opportunity of raising a profitable revenue by acquiescing in the demands of the Lyons manufacturer. We shall reserve for a future period the general consideration of the paralyzing influence which the system thus established bore upon the future prosperity of the state: it may be sufficient to remark at present, that through the severe restrictions which were laid on foreign importations, the consuming classes, in the first place, were obliged to pay in an increased degree for whatever was gained by the manufacturers through the increased value of their goods in the market; the protected interests themselves, in the second place, were subject to violent and ruinous fluctuations, as it became the policy of the government to lighten or increase the taxes on the goods which they supplanted; the course of commerce, in the third place, through the non-importation of foreign goods, was checked so far, that the demand for domestic productions, with which those goods would have been exchanged, was stopped; while, fourthly, the countries whose staples were thus excluded from the French market, sought to retaliate by excluding the staples of France from their own. The positions which we have taken may be illustrated by a brief sketch of the protective measures which were adopted under the ministry of Colbert, and of the measures with which they were met. By the tariff of 1667, a series of duties was laid upon English and Dutch manufactures, so heavy as to put a stop to all importation of them that was not effected by smuggling. The Dutch determined to be in no way behindhand; and as they were only indebted to France for luxuries, while France had obtained from them some of the most useful articles of consumption, they succeeded, by entirely prohibiting the introduction of wine, brandy, and silk, in wreaking a severe revenge. A war of eight years length was the consequence; at the end of which, as the French manufacturers had become generally bankrupt, the laws in their favor were mitigated by the treaty of Nimeguen, to an extent sufficient to induce the Dutch to take off part of their duties on wines and brandies. Holland possessed at the time one half the carrying-trade of the world; her demands for herself and her colonies were immense; she had been the best customer of France before the tariff of 1667; and yet, by a single proclamation, issued for the avowed purpose of encouraging the manufactures of Lyons and Bordeaux, an entire embargo was laid between the two countries, which was only moderated after a destructive war had broken the resources of both. But it was not the war alone that destroyed the manufactures of the French nation. Those great staples, which their vineyards and their looms produced, had been much more than sufficient for their own consumption; and by exchanging what was of no use to them for the productions of other countries for which they had need, they enriched themselves without expense and without exhaustion. The day's labor of a peasant in the south of France, or of the manufacturer in her centre, was enough to clothe him in the cheap goods of England and Holland for the approaching season. What the French paid for English manufactures was, in fact, to them of no value; they could drink but a certain quantity of wine during the year, or wear but a certain quantity of silk, and what remained would have been trodden down as chaff, had it not found a market in the neighboring countries. But Colbert argued that whatever went into the hands of the English or Dutch, went out of the pockets of the French themselves; and, in order to prevent a rapid impoverishment of the nation, he laid such heavy duties upon whatever the

English or Dutch could produce, as effectually prevented their being sold at all. His restrictive policy, while it augmented, for a time, the revenues of the crown, and gave a temporary flush to manufactures, became, in the long-run, most ruinous to the interests of both. We pass over the damage which was suffered by commerce itself. That, of course, was destroyed, except so far as occasionally a smuggler renewed it; because the spirit of commerce is reciprocity, and when that comes to an end, the system itself must fall. But in what way, we ask, were the manufactures of France affected by the heavy protections that were laid over them? The very means by which they were protected diminished the power of the consumers to buy them; and in the same degree that the favored articles rose in price, in that degree they decreased in consumption. At the era of the revolution, those great establishments to which a sudden and unnatural excitement had been given by the forcing measures of Louis XIV., were deserted by their workmen; while the art which placed their looms in motion, had been forgotten by the artificers who moved them. Like flowers that have been produced by the artificial warmth of the hot-bed to an unnatural luxuriance, they were unable to sustain the stimulating soil in which they were placed, and shrank back, after a little while, into entire inefficiency.

We propose, at future periods, to carry out the scheme we have entered upon, by giving a rapid view of the commercial condition of France under the administration of Necker; under the revolutionary and constitutional establishments; under the empire; and, finally, under the monarchy since the restoration. We are sensible that the plan is one of great difficulty; but we hope that the difficulty itself arises from the importance of the subject. The fate of nations, according to mythology, was hung on a golden thread; it might be said, that on the mercantile resources of a country—on its means for carrying on war and enjoying peace—depends its ultimate prosperity. Such, certainly, has been the case with the empire whose history we have taken up for consideration. Like a man whose mind has outrun his physical strength, it found itself incapable, during its ancient economy, of supporting, by its ordinary revenues, those immense campaigns in which it was engaged. By ruinous stimulants, that, while they increased the immediate effect of the blow, exhausted the vigor that produced it; by convulsive struggles, that knit up the frame for a sudden effort, and left it prostrated by the shock; the rulers of France succeeded in bringing her up to the most gigantic labors, which, could they have been properly followed up, would have secured to her the supremacy of Europe. Instead of that gradual motion in which nations alone can move with safety,—which, like that of the wheel and axle, compensates for its slowness by its ultimate effect,—they forced her into violent and sudden exertions, which lost all their virtue, based as they were on the contrary principles of mechanics, as soon as the blow to which they had been concentrated was struck. But there is a point at which the most pungent stimulants will cease to excite, when the functions will refuse to perform their office, and the system will revolt against further impositions; it was to such a condition that France was reduced at the accession of Louis XVI. Perhaps the trifling reforms that were attempted at the commencement of his reign, may have given the nation more strength to throw off the load upon them. We confess, that after a due consideration of the state of the lowest classes in our own country, and of what they appear to have been

in the ancient world, we can discover none more wretched than the peasants under the old dynasty of France. They were slaves, without that exoneration from self-support which slavery gives; and they were freemen, without any of the privileges of freedom but that of gathering, through the severest labor, the most scanty materials for subsistence. It was through a revolution alone that the unequal tenures that kept the people from an absolute ownership of the soil—the oppressive taxes, that threw upon them the entire support of the state—and the extravagant government, that doubled their burdens while it took from them the means of bearing them,—it was only through a revolution, in fact, that the evils of the old economy—fastened as it had been on the social existence of the kingdom, and woven in its civil constitution—could be thoroughly eradicated. If we inquire why it was that the revolution, instead of being accomplished peacefully and wisely, was hurried forward with the velocity and madness of a whirlwind,—licking from the earth the imperfect traces of prosperity it found there,—mingling in its eddies the rafters of the peasant's hut with the architraves of the noble's palace;—we may answer, in paraphrase of the words of Madame de Staël which we have already quoted, that the spirit that rode on its wings had been for ages condensed into a limit so close, that when its bonds were loosened, it rushed forth with the elastic vigor which its sudden release had given it.

ART. II.—AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

It is the design of the present article to trace a brief sketch of the progress, and to exhibit the present condition of the manufactures of the United States. The subject has grown to such magnitude as a national interest, so far as the amount of pecuniary value which is invested in its enterprises is concerned, and it is so important as connected with the large number of its active agents, and, moreover, as it will shortly come up before the national legislature as a broad question of national policy, the facts connected with its advance and present actual position should, we think, be widely diffused and strongly fixed in the public mind. Its operations, and in consequence its influence, extend throughout the greater portion of the country. The sound of manufacturing labor, with its ten thousand arms, and in innumerable forms, is echoing in the crowded marts and upon the hill-sides of most of our older states; and it is an important question to those before whom the policy which shall govern it will be presented for final judgment, what have been the causes which have marked its progress, and what is its present state?

In the first place, we shall consider the condition of American manufactures while our country continued colonies of the British crown. It can hardly be supposed that the feeble settlements which were scattered at wide intervals over the greater portion of the Atlantic states, could have devoted much of their time to manufacturing industry. Employed, mainly, in laying the foundations of a new social system in dense forests, which, excepting at a few points where clearings had been made, were slumbering in their primeval solitude and grandeur, it is evident that with-

out the resources of wealth their time must have been, in great measure, filled up in procuring the means of subsistence from the soil, and in protecting themselves against the attacks of many of the Indian tribes, who, it is well known, regarded them as trespassers upon the Indian territory. Agriculture, then, was the natural and primary pursuit which was followed by the settlers, and at first but little attention was devoted to manufactures, which must always spring up as a secondary interest, and at a time when a basis is laid in the cultivation of the earth. Nor could it have been expected to grow to any considerable extent, especially when the parent country, provided with ample means and motives, had already advanced to so great perfection in that respect. But notwithstanding the obstacles presented by the facts which we have mentioned, we find the hardy colonists of New England early engaged in the manufacture of coarse woollens for their own use; and here was first exhibited that jealousy with which Great Britain has ever regarded the progress of every species of manufactures that might, in any mode, compete with her own. In order to nip the manufacturing interest of this country in the bud, we find the British parliament, as early as 1699, declaring that "no wool, yarn, or woollen manufactures of their American plantations should be shipped there, or ever laden in order to be transported from thence to any place whatever;" and twenty years afterward, in 1719, the house of commons enacting that "the erecting manufactories in the colonies tended to lessen their dependence upon Great Britain."

The policy of the parent government, which was afterward so signally exhibited in those causes which ripened the American revolution, was not slow in displaying itself. Accounts were carried to the mother country that the colonists, who at this period began to exhibit the germ of that enterprise which has since been the prominent feature of the country, were not only carrying on trade, but also setting up manufactures detrimental to Great Britain; and, in consequence of these reports, an order was issued by the house of commons requiring the board of trade to report with respect to laws made, manufactures set up, or trade carried on, detrimental to the trade, navigation, or manufactures of Great Britain. This act, designed to cripple the growing power of the infant colonies, was faithfully executed, and a report was made by the board of trade in 1732, which, although probably not accurate, contains the best account of the condition of American manufactures at that period. This report stated that a law had been passed in the colony of Massachusetts Bay to encourage the manufacture of paper, which act tended to diminish the profits made by the British importer of that article; that in "New England," New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, woollen and linen cloth were manufactured to some extent for domestic use, and that the product of those colonies being chiefly cattle and grain, with a quantity of sheep, the wool would be lost were it not used for that purpose. It was also reported that flax and hemp were produced in the colonies to a considerable extent, which were manufactured into a coarse sort of cloth, as well as bags, traces, and halters for their horses, that were more serviceable than those that were imported from abroad; yet, from the high price of labor here, the manufacture of linen could not be carried on at less than twenty per cent, and that of woollens than at fifty per cent less than the cost of the English fabrics.* The returns from the English governor of

* Pitkin's Statistics.

New Hampshire alleged that there were no manufactures in that province, excepting a little linen made by its emigrants from Ireland, but that the principal trade was in lumber and fish. Massachusetts, at that time, also manufactured a coarse cloth from their flax and wool, but the merchants could import the foreign fabrics at a cheaper rate than they could purchase those which were made at home. A few hatmakers worked at their trades in the towns of that state, but none of their articles were exported. The leather of this province was also wrought by the people; and although iron was worked to some extent, it was deemed inferior to that which was imported from Great Britain, this being considered much the best, as it was wholly used in shipping. The same report stated that all the iron works within its bounds did not make one twentieth part of the amount required for its consumption. Nor did New York at that time exhibit the degree of manufacturing enterprise which was deemed detrimental to Great Britain—provisions, furs, whalebone, pitch, oil, and tar, constituting the principal portion of its trade. That of New Jersey was no more formidable in this respect, as its traffic consisted of necessary articles shipped from Pennsylvania and New York. To these articles may be added, a little linen and cotton cloth, brown holland, “for women’s wear,” a paper-mill that manufactured to the amount of £200 yearly, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, besides six furnaces and nineteen forges for making iron, that had then been constructed in New England. In Rhode Island there were no manufactures returned; and the province of Connecticut produced timber and boards, all sorts of English grain, hemp, flax, sheep, black cattle and swine, goats, horses, and tobacco. The manufactures in this colony were inconsiderable, the greater portion of the people being engaged in tillage, while others were employed in the various handicrafts, such as tanning and shoemaking, in building, joining, tailors and smiths’ work. At this period the colony of New York was enabled to pay for the foreign fabrics imported from Great Britain, by being permitted to exchange their provisions, and those of New Jersey, as also horses and lumber, with the foreign sugar colonies, for money, rum, molasses, cocoa, indigo, cotton, and wool. Horses and lumber were exported from Connecticut in return for sugar, molasses, salt, and ardent spirits. In Pennsylvania brigantines and small sloops were built, which they sold to the West Indies, and “the surveyor-general of his majesty’s woods” states, that in the province of New England many ships were built for the French and Spaniards in exchange for rum, molasses, wines, and silks, which “they truck there by contrivance.”*

Such was the condition of American manufactures when the United States were humble colonies of the parent government, and such the policy of the mother country in 1732; a policy which resulted in a recommendation of the board “to give these colonies proper encouragement for turning their industry to such manufactures and products as might be of service to Great Britain, and more particularly to the production of all kinds of naval stores.”

Immediately upon this event acts were passed by the British parliament, designed to prevent the progress of the colonial manufacture; and from the information which had been received, that hats were made to a considerable extent in these colonies, it was provided, by statute passed in

* See Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce*.

1732, that no hats should be exported; the same act limiting the number of apprentices who were to be engaged in this business, and prohibiting the exportation of hats from one British plantation to another, as well as the manufacture of hats, excepting by those who had served an apprenticeship of seven years, and forbidding any black or negro from making hats at all.* The manufacture of iron was also regarded with equal jealousy; and although the colonies were permitted, by a law that was enacted in 1750, to import pig and bar iron into Great Britain free of duty, its sole design was that they might thus be enabled to monopolize its *manufacture*; and all establishments for that object erected in the colonies, were deemed a "*common nuisance*," and were required to be abated within thirty days after the evidence of their existence should be adduced, under a penalty of £500. These acts were justly deemed by the American colonists usurpations of their rights; for why, said they, ought not the manufacturers of this country have been permitted the same privileges as the same classes in England? Thus matters continued until the American revolution—the colonies struggling against the exactions of the British crown; and it has been alleged that this systematic policy, connected with the colonial trade, tended to ripen that event. When the war came, it was reasonable to suppose, what was in fact the case, that our own country should augment not only the manufacture of all articles required for domestic use, but also those which were found necessary for defence; and at the peace of 1783, although efforts were made to extend the manufactures of the country, little appears to have been done in this respect, from a want of unanimity in the several states, as well as the want of power under the old confederation.†

Mr. Jefferson, in his "Notes on the State of Virginia," alluding to the manufactures and commerce of that state in 1781, remarks: "We never had any interior trade of any importance; our exterior commerce has suffered very much from the beginning of the present contest. During this time we have manufactured, within our families, the most necessary articles of clothing. Those of cotton will bear some comparison with the same kinds of manufacture in Europe, but those of wool, flax, and hemp, are very coarse, unsightly, and unpleasant; and such is our attachment to agriculture, and such our preference for foreign manufactures, that be it wise or unwise, our people will certainly return, as soon as they can, to the raising raw materials, and exchanging them for finer manufactures than they are able to execute themselves." In regard to its exports, he says: "In the year 1758, we exported seventy thousand hogsheads of tobacco, which was the greatest quantity ever produced in this country in

* Lord Brougham, in the first volume of his "Inquiry into the Colonial Policy of the European Powers," a work published in Edinburgh in 1803, remarks: "The hat manufacture of New England was an object of jealousy to the British legislature. It is absurd to suppose that any laws could have prevented the colonists from making hats even for the use of the neighboring settlements, so long as it continued to be very convenient and profitable. But in a very short time the manufacture disappeared, even in so far as it was permitted; and now, without any laws whatever, Great Britain supplies the United States with this article to a much greater extent than ever she did during the existence of the colonial government." This statement is probably inaccurate; but if true, it is well known that the fact no longer exists.

† Pitkin's Statistics.

one year. But its culture was fast declining at the commencement of this year, and that of wheat taking its place, and it must continue to decline on the return of peace." The succeeding table from Mr. Jefferson's computation, indicates the annual amount of exportation from that state during the period in which he wrote :

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Price in Dollars.	Amount in Dollars.
Tobacco,	55,000 hhd. 1000lb.	at 30d. per hhd.	1,650,000
Wheat,	800,000 bush.	at $\frac{5}{8}$ d. per bush.	666,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Indian corn,	600,000 bush.	at $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bush.	200,000
Shipping,	100,000
Masts, planks, scantling, shingles, and staves,	66,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Tar, pitch, turpentine, Peltry, viz. skins of deer, beavers, otters, muskrats, raccoons, foxes, . . .	30,000 barrels	at 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bar.	40,000
Pork,	180 hhd. 600lb.	at $\frac{5}{7}$ d. per lb.	42,000
Flaxseed, hemp, cotton,	4,000 barrels	at 10d. per bar.	40,000
Pit coal, pig iron,	8,000
Peas,	6,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Beef,	5,000 bush.	at $\frac{2}{3}$ d. per bush.	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Sturgeon, white, shad, herring,	1,000 barrels	at 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bar.	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Brandy from peaches and apples, and whiskey,	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Horses,	1,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
			1,666 $\frac{2}{3}$ *

Upon the establishment of the constitution new energy was infused into the government, and the attention of the prominent statesmen of the country was directed to the establishment of a fixed policy, not only in regard to our commerce, but the manufactures of the nation. In July of 1789, a law was passed for the "encouragement and protection of manufactures;" and although the question of the measure of that protection appears to have divided the public mind, the absolute importance of protecting our manufactures in some mode was clearly avowed. The pressing urgency of the interest, and the direction of the public mind to the subject, resulted in the full conviction that some systematic course of legislation should be adopted regarding it; and this conviction resulted in the very able report which was made by Alexander Hamilton, the first secretary of the treasury, which was communicated to congress in 1791. The financial talents of that great man,—with a mind equally profound and comprehensive, severe, acute, and far-reaching—equally adapted to grapple with great principles which lie at the foundation of the political system, and looking back to the past and forward to the future, to analyze the most minute

* See Notes on the State of Virginia, by Thomas Jefferson, p. 277.

point, and to detect error in any of its details, if error existed,—were brought to bear upon this great subject. In that report General Hamilton collated the principal facts connected with this interest; exhibited the amount and kind of the manufactures existing in the country at that period; showed the commercial causes which would most directly bear upon the various sorts of our production; examined, weighed, and answered the objections which were then already made to the protective system and in favor of free trade, and showed the productive capacities and the various products of the country which he deemed required protection; and, finally, recommended such duties and bounties as were deemed calculated to advance the prosperity of the American manufacturer. In that report he laid the foundation of what has been termed the "American System," by his attempt to show that the protection of the manufacturing interest would tend indirectly to advance the other great interests of the nation. In the course of that report he remarked: "But there are more particular considerations which serve to fortify the idea that the encouragement of manufactures is the interest of all parts of the Union. If the northern and middle states should be the principal scenes of such establishments, they would immediately benefit the more southern by creating a demand for productions, some of which they have in common with the other states, and others of which are either peculiar to them, or more abundant, or of better quality than elsewhere. These productions principally are: timber, flax, hemp, cotton, wool, raw silk, indigo, iron, lead, furs, hides, skins, and coals. Of these articles, cotton and indigo are peculiar to the southern states, as are hitherto lead and coals. Flax and hemp are or may be raised in greater abundance there than in the more northern states, and the wool of Virginia is said to be of better quality than that of any other state; a circumstance rendered the more probable by the reflection, that Virginia embraces the same latitudes with the finest wool countries of Europe. The climate of the south is also better adapted to the production of silk."* The influence of this report was felt throughout the country, proceeding as it did from so able a mind, and embodying a mass of statistical matter connected with the production of the country, which was peculiarly valuable at that period, and more satisfactory to the people, inasmuch as it recommended some uniform and systematic course of policy upon the subject. Meanwhile, Mr. Samuel Slater, a manufacturer from England, who was the founder of the cotton manufacture of the United States, had arrived in this country, and established a manufactory in Providence, Rhode Island. To this individual we are indebted for the introduction into this country of the Arkwright machinery. The manufacture of coarse cloths, composed of cotton, woollen, and flax, had previously been carried on to some extent, and in sufficient quantities, in several districts, to supply four fifths of the clothing of the people. Establishments for the manufacture of cotton and wool, were also erected in Massachusetts and Connecticut; and during the year 1790, the legislature of the former state granted aid to a number of gentlemen who had, in 1787, founded a cotton manufactory in Beverly, of which the principal articles were corduroy, fustians, and jeans. In the same year cotton spinning was first commenced in Pawtucket. A manufactory of woollen was,

* See the Report on Manufactures, in the works of Alexander Hamilton, vol. i. pp. 221, 222.

about the same time, founded in Hartford, Connecticut, through the agency of Jeremiah Wadsworth, Esq. ; and it is an interesting fact connected with the institution of this factory, that George Washington, then president of the United States, during the January of 1790, addressed congress in a suit of woollen cloth woven from its looms, and presented to him by the owners of that establishment.*

Besides the articles to which we have alluded, the product of the manufacture of the United States, General Hamilton, in his report, specifies skins and leather, iron, wool, flax and hemp, bricks, coarse tiles, potters' ware, ardent spirits, malt liquors, different kinds of paper for writing and printing, sheathing and wrapping, press paper, and paper hangings, hats, womens' stuff and silk shoes, refined sugar, oils of animals and seeds, soap, spermaceti and tallow candles, copper and brass wares, andirons and other domestic utensils, philosophical apparatus, tin wares, snuff, chewing and smoking tobacco, gunpowder, and painters' colors ; which articles were manufactured in the course of ordinary trade. Such was the germ of the manufactures of this country, which would have ripened to a solid and effective system had not the course of our national policy been affected by circumstances which we shall mention. The encouragement given to American manufactures, both by individuals and national legislation, did not escape the notice of leading statesmen abroad. In 1791, the committee of the Board of Trade, in their distinguished report upon the subject of the West India trade, although acknowledging the right of this country to establish protective duties either for the purposes of revenue or for the encouragement of domestic industry, expressed their anxiety lest these duties should be raised to an extent which should interfere with the manufactures of Great Britain ; and recommended that they should not be increased to a greater amount than they then were. Indeed, they proposed to bind the United States not to raise these duties to a higher than the existing rate ; and if that object was not attained, it was agreed to stipulate that the duties should not exceed those which were established by commercial treaties upon British goods, introduced into Holland and France by formal negotiations with those powers. Another proposition was, that duties upon British goods imported into the United States should not be raised to a greater amount than merchandise imported from any other foreign nation.

It was the evident design of these several propositions, not only to provide for the consumption of British goods in the United States, but also to secure for that empire the carriage of foreign articles. No effective measures appear to have been adopted by the United States upon the subject, however, from the year 1793 to 1807, when the embargo coming on, our colonies found themselves deprived of many necessary articles of manufacture to which they had been accustomed ; and being cut off from foreign intercourse, and, in consequence, from the products of British manufacture, their attention was naturally turned to the protection of this interest among themselves. The House of Representatives, accordingly, in 1809, not only ordered the re-printing of General Hamilton's report upon manufactures, but also required the then Secretary of the Treasury, Hon. Albert

* A society was founded in 1787, in Pennsylvania, for the "encouragement of manufactures and the useful arts." For their plan see White's History of the Rise and Progress of the Cotton Manufacture, p. 50,

Gallatin, to collect the prominent facts connected with the manufactures of the United States and to report a plan for their protection. In accordance with these instructions, Mr. Gallatin, in view of the facts which he had obtained, estimated the total value of American manufactures at \$120,000,000, and those from cotton and wool at \$40,000,000. This information, although inaccurate, was communicated to the house in April of 1810, but on account of the deficiency in the returns, the marshals, with their assistants, were ordered, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to collect and report all the facts connected with manufactures within their several districts; and from these returns, which were, however, defective, the total value of American manufactures at that time was estimated by Tench Coxe at \$127,694,602. The number of cotton factories in the United States, according to the return of the marshals, was one hundred and sixty-eight, and but few woollens were manufactured at all, excepting in private families.*

But the war of 1812 soon followed, by which the country was effectively deprived of foreign fabrics, and the necessary consequence of this event, was the direction of the public mind to the subject of domestic manufactures. A large amount of capital was accordingly invested in this interest, and the number of manufactures was increased to a great extent; but these establishments were erected only to meet with disaster on the return of peace, for in 1815, our ports having been opened to foreign goods, the manufactures of Great Britain poured in upon the country to such an amount as effectually to glut the American markets; and while the British importers suffered great losses by the diminution of the price of their goods, from that fact the prospects of the American manufacturer were effectually clouded. Indeed, the principles which have uniformly characterized the policy of Great Britain were clearly demonstrated in the remark made by Lord Brougham respecting this policy upon the floor of the British parliament, in relation to these losses. "*It is well worth while,*" said that gentleman, "*to incur a loss upon the first exportation, in order, by the glut, to stifle in the cradle those rising manufactures in the United States, which the war has forced into existence contrary to the natural course of things.*"

The national mind, upon the return of peace, appears to have been more particularly directed to the importance of the protection of American manufactures, and in 1816 an effective course of legislation was directed to that object. Its offspring was the tariff of 1816, designed mainly to protect the domestic production of cotton and woollen fabrics. By this act, the duty upon woollens, from June of 1816 to the same month of the year 1819, was fixed at twenty-five per cent ad valorem, and from the period last named at twenty per cent. It was also provided by this act that all cotton cloths whose original cost was less than twenty-five cents per yard, should be deemed to have cost that sum, and should pay duties accordingly; the design of the act being to exclude the coarse cotton fabrics of the East Indies, and to protect the manufacture as well as the production of American cotton. A permanent duty of thirty per cent was also laid upon various other articles, such as hats, cabinet wares, manufactures of wood, carriages, leather, and also upon all manufactures of leather and paper; and in order to encourage the production of domestic

* To Mr. Pitkin's work we are indebted for many valuable facts connected with this part of the subject.

sugar, a duty of three cents per pound was laid upon all imported brown sugar. Upon some of these articles, however, the duty was raised in 1818, and in 1824 there was a revision of duties upon all woollen and cotton goods; which, however, was met by a countervailing act of the parliament of Great Britain, which reduced the duty upon imported wool from sixpence sterling per pound to one penny, for the purpose of permitting the British manufacturer to send his woollen fabrics to the United States at a cheaper rate, and in order to prevent the successful operations of American industry in this respect. In consequence of these measures the American manufacturers applied to congress for relief, and the result was the celebrated tariff of 1828, which increased these duties to a considerable extent, prescribing the duties upon all woollens which did not exceed fifty cents at forty-five per cent ad valorem, and the duty upon other articles in the same proportion.

Such was the policy of the country in reference to the production of American manufactures until the year 1831. At this period it was proposed to reorganize the revenue system, inasmuch as the national debt was nearly extinguished, and for that object two separate conventions were held for the purpose of remodelling the financial policy of the nation in this respect: the one, the free-trade convention which was held at Philadelphia, and composed of gentlemen of intelligence, maintained the expediency of reducing all the duties upon imported products to a low and equal rate; and the tariff convention, composed of men of equal character, supported the policy of reducing the duties only upon those articles which did not interfere with our domestic products—articles which had not been and could not be produced in the country. At the meetings of these several conventions, the principles governing the interests involved were weighed, discussed, and set forth in their several addresses made to the people, and the petitions to congress, by both parties. Upon their several suggestions followed the acts of congress of the fourteenth of July, 1832, modifying the preceding tariff laws. During the succeeding year arose the sectional discussion that wellnigh rent the Union asunder, when the people of the country beheld the state of South Carolina in a posture of alleged rebellion against the laws of the Union. Before the prior act had taking effect, however, the tariff law of 1832 was modified by what was denominated "The Compromise Bill," which is understood to have been framed by the admirable statesmanship of the Hon. Henry Clay, who, by this measure, doubtless saved the country from those overt acts on the part of South Carolina, claiming itself to be a sovereign state, which would probably have amounted to treason by the constitution. This last tariff law, enacted during the winter of 1833, extended its provisions down to the thirtieth of June, 1842. It provided that all the duties which exceeded twenty per cent upon the value, should be reduced twenty per cent annually, until the thirtieth of June, 1842. The same act declares what articles shall be admitted free of duty after the thirtieth of June, 1842; attempts to limit the power of future legislatures in regard to the amount of the imposition of duties on imports to a sum not exceeding twenty per cent ad valorem, and also declares that only those duties should be laid after the thirtieth of June, 1842, as may be required for the purpose of raising such revenue as may be necessary to an economical administration of the government. Such then is the present state of the tariff law.

Having sketched a brief history of the manufacturing policy of the

country, we now propose to enter upon a rapid view of the opinions entertained upon that subject, from time to time, by different sections of the republic. On the establishment of the first tariff law in 1816, it is well known that New England voted with the south, and in opposition to the western states, as well as New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, upon the question of the protection which was to be afforded to the interest of the cotton manufacturer; and the bill for reduction was ultimately carried by New England votes, together with those of the southern portion of the country. As regards the alleged original support of the protective system by the south, we have upon record the explanation of the southern policy upon that subject, from Mr. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, one of its most eloquent and able orators. His remarks we subjoin, in order that both sides of the question may be heard; for it is our design to enter into no party argument, but only to trace the political history of manufactures, and, as accessory thereto, to give the views of leading statesmen upon this important national interest. "There still remains another misrepresentation of the conduct of the state," said Mr. Calhoun, "which has been made with the view of exciting odium. I allude to the charge that South Carolina supported the tariff of 1816, and is, therefore, responsible for the protective system. To determine the truth of this charge, it becomes necessary to ascertain the real character of that law, whether it was a tariff for revenue or protection; which presents the inquiry, what was the condition of the country at that period? The late war with Great Britain had just terminated, which, with the restrictive system that preceded it, had diverted a large amount of industry from commerce to manufactures, particularly to the cotton and woollen branches. There was a debt at the same time of one hundred and thirty millions of dollars hanging over the country, and the heavy war duties were still in existence. Under these circumstances the question was presented, to what point the duties ought to be reduced. That question involved another—at what time the debt ought to be paid?—which was a question of policy involving, in its consideration, all the circumstances connected with the then condition of the country. Among the most prominent arguments in favor of an early discharge of the debt was, that the high duties which it would require to effect it, would have, at the same time, the effect of sustaining the infant manufactures which had been forced up under the circumstances to which I have adverted. This view of the subject had a decided influence in determining in favor of an early payment of the debt. The sinking fund was accordingly raised from seven to ten millions of dollars, with the provision to apply the surplus which might remain in the treasury as a contingent appropriation to that fund, and the duties were graduated to meet this increased expenditure. It was thus that the policy and justice of protecting the large amount of capital and industry, which had been diverted by the measures of the government into new channels, as I have stated, was combined with the fiscal action of the government, and which, while it secured a prompt payment of the debt, prevented the immense losses to the manufacturers which would have followed a sudden and great reduction. Still revenue was the main object, and protection but the incidental. The bill to reduce the duties was reported by the committee of ways and means, and not of manufactures, and it proposed a heavy reduction on the then existing rate of duties. But what of itself, without other evidence, was decisive as to the character of the bill, is the fact that it fixed a much

higher rate of duties on the unprotected than the protected articles. I will enumerate a few leading articles only. Woollen and cotton above the value of twenty-five cents on the square yard, though they were the leading objects of protection, were subject to a permanent duty of only twenty per cent. Iron, another leading article among the protected, had a protection of not more than nine per cent, as fixed by the act, and of but fifteen as reported in the bill. These rates were all below the average duties as fixed in the act, including the protected, the unprotected, and even the free articles. I have entered into some calculation in order to ascertain the average rate of duties under the act. There is some uncertainty in the data, but I feel assured that it is not less than thirty per cent ad valorem, showing an excess of the average duties above that imposed on the protected articles enumerated of more than ten per cent, and thus clearly establishing the character of the measure, that it was for revenue and not protection.”*

Even during the year 1824, the votes of New England stood fifteen for and twenty-three against the act, while those of the states of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Kentucky, and Ohio, were in favor of the measure—seventy-eight standing for and nine against it. Upon the bill which was introduced into the house during that year, Mr. Webster, acting as the organ of a portion of New England, clearly expressed his views, which, coming as they did from one of the most powerful minds of any age, certainly deserve respectful consideration. Upon that question this distinguished statesman, although he did not in fact oppose the tariff system as a system, was, nevertheless, averse to the measure of protection viewed by that bill. For example, he was opposed to a very high duty upon imported wool, and, indeed, he appears to have been informed by his constituents that such duty would, in the end, injure the domestic producer of that article, because, as was claimed, a certain quantity of wool, cheaper than could be furnished here, was required for the operations of our woollen manufactories, and would thus tend to diminish its consumption. He was opposed to an increased duty upon iron, because the serfs of Russia and Sweden could manufacture it for the wages of seven cents per day, and to an increased duty upon hemp, because it was calculated to injure the shipping interest. Indeed, his opposition to those features of the bill, which seemed, in their consequences, likely to injure the commercial interests of the nation, was eloquently and openly avowed. In regard to the cotton manufacture, he stated in that debate, “As to the manufactures of cotton, it is agreed, I believe, that they are generally successful. It is understood that the present existing duty operates pretty much as a prohibition over those descriptions of fabrics to which it applies. The proposed alteration would probably enable the American manufacturer to commence competition with higher priced fabrics, and so would, perhaps, an augmentation less than is here proposed. I consider the cotton manufactures not only to have reached, but to have passed the point of competition. I regard their success as certain, and their growth as rapid as the most impatient could well expect. If, however, a provision of the nature of that recommended here, should be found necessary to commence new

* See the speech of Hon. John C. Calhoun in the senate, Feb. 15th, 1833, on the bill reported by the committee on the judiciary, relative to the proceedings of South Carolina.

operations in the same line of manufacture, I should cheerfully agree to it if it were not at the cost of sacrificing other great interests of the country. I need hardly say that whatever promotes the cotton and woollen manufactures, promotes most important interests of my constituents. They have a great stake in the success of those establishments, and, as far as those manufactures are concerned, would be as much benefited by the provisions of this bill as any part of the community. It is obvious, too, I should think, that for some considerable time manufactures of this sort, to whatever magnitude they may rise, will be principally established in those parts of the country where population is most dense, capital most abundant, and where the most successful beginnings have been already made. But if these be thought to be advantages, they are greatly counterbalanced by important advantages enjoyed by other portions of the country. I cannot but regard the situation of the west as highly favorable to human happiness. It offers, in the abundance of its new and fertile lands, such assurances of permanent prosperity and respectability to the industrious, it enables them to lay such sure foundations for a competent provision for their families, it makes such a nation of freeholders, that it need not envy the most happy and prosperous of the manufacturing communities. We may talk as we will of well-fed and well-clothed day-laborers or journeymen; they are not after all to be compared, either for happiness or respectability, with him who sleeps under his own roof and cultivates his own fee-simple inheritance.*

The fundamental principle of the argument of Mr. Webster in that debate was, that protection should be afforded only to those articles which we might produce at nearly the same cost as they could be furnished from abroad. "The true inquiry is," said he, "can we produce the article in a useful state at the same cost, or at any reasonable approximation towards the same cost at which we can import it?"† In the debate upon that subject in 1824, the same system of policy appears to have been advocated by Mr. Webster, and, in 1833, he maintained the constitutionality of the tariff laws against the most powerful champion of the south, Mr. John C. Calhoun. From the causes which we have mentioned, the various manufacturing interests of the country have gradually grown to their present state, sometimes impeded by temporary checks, but generally maintaining their proper equilibrium, so that now they may be considered as having attained a solid and permanent foundation. Nor has the production of cotton and woollen fabrics alone been nurtured into vigor. The various species of manufactured production, as connected with the trades, have kept pace with the larger interests, so that we have not only in great measure supplied ourselves, but in some species furnished a surplus for exportation.

It would be impracticable to go into a particular description of the amount of the various manufactured articles which are produced in the U. States, from the want of accurate returns of their production. We accordingly pass over at present a consideration of the manufacture of cottons and woollens, and proceed to a general view of those articles which are produced from other sources than manufacturing establishments. And first, we turn to the manufacture of iron. It is well known that immense beds of this mineral, as well

* See Webster's Speeches and Forensic Arguments, Vol. I., p. 294.

† Ibid.

as those of lead, are beginning to be laid open throughout our western states, and as early as 1810, the total manufactures of iron in the country was estimated at \$14,364,526 in value. Indeed, when we look at the vast quantity of machinery that is made in Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and many of our eastern states, besides the very large amount of hardware that is even now manufactured in the country, as also implements of household comfort, we must be convinced that this production is an important and lucrative branch of enterprise. To these may be added the manufacture of leather, a sufficient portion of which is wrought for the domestic consumption of the country. New York and Pennsylvania carry on this business to a great extent, and it is well known that the great bulk of the inhabitants of Lynn, in Massachusetts, are principally engaged in the manufacture of shoes. The manufacture of trunks, harness, boots, and saddlery is carried on in almost every village of the country of any considerable size. According to the authority of Mr. Pitkin, the total amount of this manufacture in the United States cannot be less than from forty to forty-five millions of dollars. The manufacture of hats has also long been an object of American enterprise; and when we consider the number of these articles which is required at home for domestic consumption, it is a source of honest pride that we have long, not only supplied our domestic markets with hats of our own production, but furnished a surplus for exportation. The manufacture of fur hats is carried on to a considerable extent in Albany, besides that of straw-hats in Massachusetts. It was estimated by Mr. Pitkin, that in Massachusetts the value of hats, caps, and straw bonnets of all kinds, amounted, in 1832, to fifteen millions of dollars.

The manufacture of cabinet ware, in its various forms, is, it is well known, carried on to a great extent in the country, and produces not only a sufficient quantity for our own supply, but in 1833 yielded a surplus for exportation that amounted to \$200,635. The necessary article of salt is also made in great abundance in the states of Massachusetts, New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Sugar has been made formerly in Louisiana to the amount of from twenty-five to thirty thousand hogsheads per annum, and molasses to the amount of one million two hundred and fifty thousand gallons; although the amount returned in 1831 from that state was, of sugar seventy-five thousand hogsheads, and of molasses three millions six hundred and fifty thousand gallons. The business of refining sugar has recently become an important object of enterprise, and this business is carried on to a considerable extent in the country. It is well ascertained that the sugar of Louisiana is equally valuable for refining with that of the West Indies. An establishment for this purpose has been erected in New Orleans, and a considerable number of sugar refineries have been erected throughout different parts of the country. The useful and beautiful article of glass is, it is probably well known, made to a considerable extent in our country; the principal points for the manufacture of which are Pittsburgh, Boston, New York, and Wheeling in Virginia, Maryland, Brownsville in Ohio, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, and in the District of Columbia. The manufactures of the United States have extended not only to the making of flint glass, but crown window-glass, cylinder window-glass, glass bottles, vials, apothecaries' ware, demijohns, carboys, &c., and the total amount of our domestic manufacture of this article was recently estimated at three millions of dollars. The production of spirituous liquors forms no inconsiderable a portion of the manufactures of

the country, and notwithstanding the laudable exertions of the temperance societies, a large amount is now produced, not only from molasses, but the different kinds of grain. Besides the several species of manufacture which we have enumerated, may be mentioned the production of a new fabric ; we mean that of silk. As early as 1760, the white mulberry tree was introduced into Mansfield, in the state of Connecticut ; but little appears to have been accomplished in this interest until the close of the American revolution, and in 1783 a bounty of ten shillings was granted for every hundred white mulberry trees, and a bounty of three pence for every ounce of raw silk. This bounty, together with others which succeeded, was eminently calculated to stimulate the enterprise of the silk manufacturers, so that the amount of raw silk annually made was recently estimated at about seven thousand pounds, which were valued at thirty thousand dollars. The recent attention of the people to this subject throughout the country is calculated to increase the manufacture of this article to a much greater amount. Various chemical compounds sold by the druggists are also made in large quantities ; an application of chemistry to the useful arts which is attended with very valuable practical results. Copperas, to the amount of many millions of pounds, is also here produced. The manufacture of lead has been carried on also to a considerable extent, the mines of the western portion of our country having produced from 1823 to 1832, fifty-five millions nine hundred and three thousand eight hundred and eighty-eight pounds, to which a large addition will be made from the new mines of Wisconsin and Iowa, which recent developments have opened to the light. White lead, red, and sugar of lead, are also made to a considerable extent. Soap and spermaceti candles ; paper, which has always received protection from the government, not only by the imposition of duties upon the imports, but also by the free importation of the rags of which it is made ; tobacco, that is annually produced in this country to several millions of dollars. Cables and cordage, gold and silver jewelry and plated ware, as well as ware of brass, copper, tin, pewter, and britania buttons and combs, porcelain, and carriages of different sorts, various articles made from flax and hemp, which are used in shipping and other purposes, are also yielded. We have thus merely alluded to these products of American industry for the purpose of showing the numerous objects to which the activity of our country has been directed, an enterprise which is destined to be advanced to more important results as the population of the republic increases, and augmented stimulants are provided for domestic production, by more extended markets, both at home and abroad. Most of these articles constitute the greater part of the materials of domestic trade, and fill our shops and warehouses. There is no plainer evidence of the progress of the country than in the contrast of the amount of these articles now daily yielded with that of former times. And it is a source of satisfaction that their manufacture is constantly increasing. Throughout the whole length and breadth of the settled portion of the republic, how many thousand workshops are ringing with the sound of the hammer ! How many forges are pouring forth their columns of smoke towards the heavens, and what multitudes of men in the various trades are moulding the raw materials, provided by nature, into new forms of utility and taste, thus augmenting human comfort and swelling the sum of national wealth ! Of the amount of this productive labor, we can form some estimate by computing the value of the consumption of our country,

and the proportion which is furnished to this consumption by our domestic production.

Besides the articles to which we have alluded, various others are yielded in the country, and among those which we would specify, are manufactures of umbrellas, brushes, brass nails, and cotton and woollen cards, all of which are supposed to amount in value to about three hundred and fifty millions of dollars per annum, and which load the shelves of our shops.

We have thus seen the manufactures of the United States forced into existence by the early exigences of the country when we were cut off from foreign supplies, and actually strengthening under the fostering hand of the government, so that they have now gained a fixed and permanent foothold upon the soil. We now proceed to a consideration of that part of the policy which, as a system, is probably designed to be the subject of more ardent discussion than any other of our national interests, because it is more important in its character, being more extensive in its influence, and involves larger consequences than the individual industry which is connected with the trades. The solid and vigorous enterprise of the people of our northern states, and that of a portion of the west and south, have planted the basis of the cotton manufacture upon the soil, encountering obstacles in the attempt that would seem calculated to dishearten any but themselves. We have seen the south at one time in favor of the system, and at another opposing it, and it becomes interesting to know something of its present state. We have no means at hand of ascertaining the precise condition of the woollen manufacture, but it is ascertained that this has advanced to considerable importance in our northern states. In those portions of our territory where the rugged character of the soil seems to furnish but scanty motive for agricultural labor, and where an abundance of water-power appears to have provided ample means for this species of industry, manufactories have sprung up to an extent that would hardly seem credible to one whose attention had not been directed expressly to the fact. Numerous villages have silently extended themselves in the interior of New England, whose existence was scarcely known to those upon the border; and it is only by the cutting of a railroad through them, in order to furnish an outlet to their products, that the public have had an opportunity to witness their actual condition. The searching glance of American enterprise has sought out every fall where a head of water could be obtained for the purpose of placing upon it a factory; and even the southern and western states appear to be emulating the example which has been set by those of the north: indeed we cannot fail to be impressed with the amazing growth of this branch of enterprise, when we learn that, according to an authentic computation, the amount of capital invested in the cotton manufacture of our country is forty-five millions of dollars,—about one fourth of that which is employed in the cotton manufacture of Great Britain.*

In regard to the policy of encouraging the manufacturing system of this country by national legislation, the fundamental doctrine laid down by General Hamilton, in his report, appears to be founded in solid reason,—a doctrine which maintained that “every nation ought to endeavor to possess within itself all the essentials of national supply; these comprise the means of subsistence, habitation, clothing, and defence. The possession of these,”

* See “The Cotton Manufacture of Great Britain and America contrasted,” by James Montgomery, page 161.

he remarked, "is necessary to the protection of the body politic, to the safety as well as to the welfare of society: the want of either is the want of an important organ of political life and motion; and in the various crises which await a state, it must severely feel the effects of any such deficiency. The extreme embarrassments of the United States during the late war (the war of the revolution) from the incapacity of supplying ourselves, are still matters of keen recollection. A future war might be expected again to exemplify the mischiefs and dangers of a situation to which that incapacity is still in too great a degree applicable, unless by timely and vigorous exertions. To effect this change as fast as shall be prudent, merits all the attention and all the zeal of our public councils: 'tis the next great work to be accomplished."* This view appears to have been fortified by all our national experience. General Hamilton had himself been a prominent actor in a contest which clearly demonstrated the position. He had seen a country invaded by a foreign army, destitute, in a great measure, of the means which might have supplied their necessary wants; and a soldiery, in many instances, driven on to forced marches beneath wintry skies without the necessary clothing which ordinary comfort would seem to have required to protect them in the service of their country. The war of 1812 exhibited the same scene, and after the peace it was found necessary to direct the public mind with more vigor to the protection of manufacturing industry, a policy which has been continued to the present time.

It is understood that the south and southwest are opposed to the imposition of duties upon foreign manufactured fabrics, because they say that the diminution of importations would have a tendency to contract the market for their cotton abroad, and that, since their staple furnishes the great bulk of the freights which are exported, they have a right to control the protective policy of the country. But how stands the matter? The imposition of duties upon foreign fabrics, is the levy of a tax upon the consumer of the article protected; and how large a proportion of these consumers is furnished by the population of the south? Certainly a very inconsiderable portion of the consumption of the nation is provided by that part of the country! The raising of cotton by the south is an enterprise dictated by their own interest, and the shipping it to foreign parts is governed by the same motives. If duties are to be laid upon foreign fabrics, the largest proportion of the consumers, or those upon whom the tax is levied, should control the policy. We profess to be opposed as much as anybody to a narrow, exclusive, sectional legislation. Let broad-minded statesmen have in their eye the good of the whole country, and they will establish this interest upon the right basis. Let them keep in view the welfare, not only of the factory owner, but the mechanic—the good of the northern weaver, as well as the southern planter, and the western wheat-grower—and their ends will be good. Let them legislate for the just gains of the employers, who, in most cases, have acquired their capital by their own industry, and for the interests of the great mass of the operatives also. If it is found that it is necessary for the economical administration of the government that duties should be augmented, let these duties be discriminating, having clearly in view the prosperity of the whole country.

If a tax is to be levied, the great bulk of the consumers, the people, must pay it, and let it be imposed in such mode and measure as will result

* See the Report of General Hamilton on Manufactures.

in their benefit. It would seem to be the proper policy of the country, if we are to nurture the system of manufactures by national legislation as a branch of national enterprise, to discover, in the first place, how far the interest of the nation makes it necessary that this system should be protected. If there are any evils which have been found growing out of the system by the employment of operatives who are too young to engage in such labors, if their too constant occupation in these establishments leaves but little time for intellectual and moral cultivation, or if by full investigation it should be discovered that such labor is calculated to produce ill health to the workmen who are engaged in them, consequences which we are informed have often flowed from the manufacturing system as it has been conducted in England, we should in the commencement of our career guard ourselves against these consequences. If the manufacturing system receives aid from the government, it will doubtless yield to those rules prescribed by the several state legislatures for its regulation. The most important of these rules would seem to be such enactments as should prohibit the employment of all operatives under a certain age, a proper provision for their education, a proper regulation of the hours of labor, and such a ventilation of the factories as to prevent the mephitic influences which may possibly spring from the confined air of those institutions. Such a policy would be of no detriment to the cotton manufacturer, while it would most effectually tend to the advantage of that large class which comprises our factory population.

The policy of protection is founded in this:—that it is desirable that all nations should possess in themselves the means of comfort without dependence upon foreign markets. This independence may be partially secured by such an imposition of taxes on the article necessary to be protected, as will furnish encouragement to the producer. The *abstract* policy of free trade cannot, we think, be considered with any practical advantage as a national question, because we have no power of controlling foreign legislation. It is very evident that the western portion of our country is by nature more favorable for the raising of agricultural products, such as wheat and corn, than any other part of the globe. But if the attention of our own people is directed exclusively to the raising of wheat, what would be its value if foreign ports should be barred against us, as Great Britain now is in effect by the existence of the corn laws. The foreign policy which we have mentioned, and the necessity that is found to the depending upon ourselves in case of exigency, has induced the establishment of the protective policy, in order that encouragement may be thus afforded to various kinds of manufacturing industry. The numerous trades, and every species of productive labor, will be benefited by that legislation which excludes the competition of foreign labor, whether manufacturing or otherwise. But whatever may be the differences of opinion which may hereafter divide the country upon the subject of the protective policy, the manufacturing system has become so deeply rooted among us, that it must in the nature of things be permanent. It has, indeed, been estimated by an experienced manufacturer, that the amount of capital invested in the cotton manufacture alone, throughout the Union, cannot be less at the present time than forty-five millions of dollars. Of this amount the state of Massachusetts alone, four years ago, employed \$14,369,719 of this capital. New York, with its vast agricultural and commercial resources, appears to be but little behind her sister state of Massachusetts.

Lowell, the offspring of the manufacturing system, now containing a population of about twenty thousand,* has derived its prosperity from this branch of enterprise, and the system is here more thoroughly organized than in any other part of the country; the factories producing a greater amount of cloth and yarn from each spindle and loom than is furnished by any other factory upon the globe: and our surprise at its amazing prosperity will be increased, when we learn that only about twenty years since the tract which now embraces this great city of spindles was occupied only by a few farmers, who gained their subsistence by cultivating this unfruitful spot in taking fish in the rivers of Concord and Merrimack.

That the cotton manufacture is gradually extending through the country under favorable auspices, there can be but little doubt. The principal waterfalls of Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, are successfully improved by its wonderful agency; and in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and some of the principal towns upon the Ohio, it has made considerable progress. It is believed that the interest will be permanently fixed as the population of the country advances, not only in the north and east, but the southern states and the remote west, which is now burdened with all the resources which give wealth and stability to nations.† We are informed that several cotton factories are in existence in Tennessee, which are operated by slave labor, no white man being in the mill but the superintendent; and the water-power in a part of that section of the territory is so abundant, that it is believed that the interest of manufactures can be prosecuted successfully,

* A late number of the Lowell Journal published a sketch of that city, its manufacturing establishments, schools, morals, religion, &c., drawn up by *Eliphalet Case*, Esq., from which we derive the following:

“The town of Lowell was incorporated March, 1826. On the spot now occupied by the city, the population, at the time the first purchases were made for manufacturing purposes, did not exceed 200 persons. In 1828, it reached 3,532; in 1830, it was 6,477; in 1833, it was 12,363; in 1836, it was 17,633; and by the census of 1840, it was 20,981. It is now only twenty years since the project of using the waters of the Pawtucket Falls originated with several enterprising gentlemen of Boston and vicinity. The increase of population has, therefore, exceeded a thousand a year, for twenty years.

The city charter was obtained in 1836. The city is situated at the confluence of the Merrimack and Concord rivers, on the west side of the Merrimack, above and below the famous Pawtucket Falls, and on both sides of the Concord, between which and the Falls, a distance of about a mile, the canals and mills are all located, extending back from the first-named river about three fourths of a mile. Lowell is connected with Boston by the Middlesex canal and the Boston and Lowell railroad. The distance is twenty-six miles. The road is the best built of any in the United States. It is constructed with iron rails, resting on granite sleepers laid on stones imbedded in the earth, and has double tracks. The city is connected with Andover and Haverhill, in this state, and Exeter, N. H., by a railroad that connects with the Boston and Lowell, ten miles below. It is connected with Nashua, N. H., by the Nashua and Lowell railroad, fifteen miles in length. Numerous lines of stages also connect it with every other important section of the surrounding country. It is bounded as follows, viz: 1,068 rods on Merrimack river, 426 on Tewksbury, 248 on Concord river, and 1,122 rods on the old town of Chelmsford, of which it originally formed a part. It contains 3,200 acres, including half the waters of the rivers, the distance which they bound it.”

† The progress of population in the new states of the west has tended in good measure to extend the interest of manufactures into that quarter.

although perhaps the climate of that region may in some measure impede its present prosperity ; indeed, while we are writing, we learn by the newspapers that a cotton factory has just gone into operation within the remotest southern boundaries of Florida. It is understood that the principal manufacturing establishments of our northern states are engaged in the production of goods for home consumption, but considerable quantities have been exported to India and South America, where it is understood that American staples have hitherto competed successfully with those of British production. If Mr. Webster, as early as 1824, could say with truth that even at that time the manufactures of the country had been established upon a basis beyond competition, how much more safely may the remark now be made, when prosperous manufacturing villages dot the country from Maine to Tennessee and the banks of the Ohio, and are beginning to spring up even in the extreme south !

And what is the condition of these institutions in reference to the modes of life of the operatives engaged in them ?—for that condition becomes a part of the question when the interest is brought up before the country as a matter of national legislation. We have had, indeed, distressing pictures painted for us by Miss Martineau and Edward Lytton Bulwer, of the condition of these establishments abroad. And, in truth, amid the overgrown population of the United Kingdom, and that subdivision of labor, by which the same course of pursuit is entailed from generation to generation, we might well expect scenes of distress which are revolting to human nature, and opposed to the spirit and structure of a republican government. We have had evidence of the existence of children in English factories, who were scarcely disrobed of their swaddling clothes, urged on by long-continued toil to premature age, before the bloom of youth should have faded from their cheeks ; of Spitalfields weavers—those dwarfish, withered, crooked apologies for humanity—with the light of intellect faded from their eyes by the incessant labors to which they are exposed, and the want of the ordinary means of education. And this evidence has been adduced in abundance upon the floor of the English house of commons. Opposed to this we have had counter-statements, going to show that the condition of the English factory operatives is as happy as that of any other class of the English population. The state of the infant portion of the factory population in that empire has awakened the interest of some of the most benevolent of the British statesmen ; and it certainly is one of the noblest passages of the career of Sir Robert Peel, that in 1819, he succeeded in obtaining the passage of an act by which no child, under nine years of age, should be allowed in a cotton factory, nor under sixteen be subject to more than twelve hours of labor during the day ; a course of policy which brought upon him unmerited reproach. Nor was the late Mr. Saddler far behind his noble compeer in the same cause, who fully laid open the horrors which were perpetrated in the English cotton and woollen factories ; and being a member of the legislature, proposed not only that every species of manufacture should be subject to the same law, but at a more recent period proposed that the hours of labor should be limited to ten.

But the causes which bear so unfavorably upon the factory operatives of Great Britain, we think, can never obtain any permanent foothold in our own country. In the first place, the character of the government is entirely distinct, being based upon a broad foundation of republicanism.

The people in this country are peculiarly jealous of all those measures of policy whose tendency is in any way to debase the more active classes ; and it is well known that they watch with lynx-eyed vigilance all those interests which abroad have induced in any measure such a result. It is also well known that it is in the power of the majority at all times to discountenance measures which lead to the consequences that we have described. The principles of our holy religion are too deeply implanted in the soil, to further that course of policy which might lead either to vice or ignorance ; and it is well known that in no other part of the globe are moral principles more widely diffused than in that particular section of the republic where the manufacturing system the most extensively prevails. The husbands, the fathers, and the brothers of those who constitute the active agents of this system, are themselves voters, and some of them even the legislators of the country. We have, moreover, so much faith in the conscientious integrity of the factory owners themselves—many of them true-hearted men, as we know them to be—as to believe that they would never be willing to foster any course of legislation which should have a tendency, in the remotest degree, to endanger the intelligence or the morals of their fellow-citizens ; and equal confidence in the people of the country, who we believe will never countenance any form of national abuse. Nor do we believe that the condition of the factory operatives of the United States is such as to warrant any fears respecting their present state. In the interior of New England, we all know, that many of them are employed near their own homes, and within the range of the oversight of their friends ; and so far as morals are concerned, it is believed that the factory establishments afford as much purity in this respect as is found in other branches of occupation. As regards the health of the active agents of the cotton establishments, evidence has been from time to time adduced upon that subject even here ; and it would seem that the advantages of the operatives in this respect are as great as are furnished by most other kinds of active employment. We learn from a work which has been recently issued, that the health of six females out of ten is better than before being employed in the mills, and that of the males, one half derive the same advantage. Nor is factory labor pursued here as in England—a continuous business for life. The young men and women of the country, in those places where the factory system prevails, employ their industry in these establishments, not as a main object of pursuit, but as a stepping-stone to a future settlement, or to other occupations. When they have, by dint of labor, procured for themselves a small sum, it not unfrequently happens that they marry and engage in other pursuits, or emigrate to the broad and rich fields of the west, where the soil, like a kind mother, opens its arms to receive them, and where they settle down permanent freeholders, perhaps the future legislators of the country.

It may be well here to enter into a brief view of the domestic arrangements of our cotton manufacturing establishments, so far as the operatives employed in them are concerned. And, first, respecting the ages of the children. From the table to which we have referred, it appears that in 1831, there were only four thousand six hundred and ninety-one children employed in these establishments at that time who were under the age of twelve years. Of these Maine had none, New Hampshire sixty, Vermont nineteen, Rhode Island the largest number, namely, three thousand four hundred and seventy-two, Connecticut four hundred and thirty-nine, New

York four hundred and eighty-four, and New Jersey but two hundred and seventeen; certainly a small number, when it is considered that at that time there were eighteen thousand five hundred and ninety males employed in all the factories, and thirty-eight thousand nine hundred and twenty-seven females.

As regards the hours of labor—taking Lowell as a test—it appears, that work is commenced in the morning, from the first of September to the first of May, at daylight, or as soon as the operatives can see, and is discontinued during these eight months at half past seven in the evening. From May to the first of September, five o'clock in the morning is the time for the commencement of the work, and it is stopped in the evening at seven o'clock. Half-past twelve is the dinner hour during the year, forty-five minutes being allowed for that purpose during the summer months, and thirty during the other eight. The following table from an experienced manufacturer, Mr. Montgomery, gives the average hours of labor during the year,

Average hours of work per day throughout the year.

	Hours.	Min.		Hours.	Min.
January,	11	24	July,	12	45
February,	12	—	August,	12	45
March,	11	52	September,	12	23
April,	13	31	October,	12	10
May,	12	45	November,	11	56
June,	12	45	December,	11	24

This statement may, perhaps, apply to most of the manufacturing establishments in the eastern portion of the country, although the hours may vary somewhat in the middle and southern districts. The four holidays, fast, independence day, thanksgiving, and christmas, besides the sabbath, of course, are devoted to rest, religious duties, and amusement. It may be mentioned also, that the average wages of females at Lowell is two dollars a week, besides their board, and that of the men is about eighty cents per day, besides their board.*

* The following is a particular account of the manufactories of Lowell, obtained from the source to which we have referred in a former note :

“The great corporations of the city are eleven in number. The capital invested in them amounts to \$10,600,000. The proprietors of the locks and canals on Merrimack river may be considered as the original owners of all the water-power of the Merrimack at this place, and the original purchasers of all the most valuable adjoining lands. This company was incorporated in 1792, for the purpose of making a canal and locks around the Pawtucket falls. Its capital stock is \$600,000. The charter was purchased by the present company on the eve of commencing the manufacturing operations in this place that have resulted in such unparalleled success. The dam across the Merrimack, and the various canals in the city, by which its waters are conveyed to the mills, were made by it. With two exceptions it built all the mills, boarding-houses, and machinery of the other corporations. It has two shops, smithy and foundry, and gives constant employment to five hundred men, and when building mills and boarding-houses for new corporations, to twelve hundred. Its principal building is called ‘The Machine Shop.’ It turns out manufactured articles to the amount of about \$250,000 per annum. The stock in this corporation has been, if it is not now, probably the best in the world. Besides selling a vast amount of land, on which the principal part of the city now stands, at prices varying from one eighth of a dollar to one dollar per square foot, which was purchased at one or two hundred dollars the acre, the profit on all the mills and boarding-houses it has built on good contracts for the other

We have thus traced a brief view of the rise and progress of the manufacturing interest of the United States—an interest which has kept even pace with the progress of the country in its other mercantile enterprises, and that has now become fixed upon the soil. The offspring, in great measure, of necessity, it has sought and obtained direct legislation from the government in its favor. The period is within the remembrance of some of our older citizens, when the customary dress of the people was homespun, and a suit of broadcloth was deemed a luxury—a silk dress being considered an indulgence which required a public reprimand. The progress of the country in this respect is clearly demonstrated, not only by the general use of imported and costly cloths among the great body of our citizens, but also in the vast amount of domestic consumption from the looms of our own manufacturing establishments. The question of the further protection of our manufacturing interests, resolves itself into a matter of expediency and economy. Would such protection be of solid benefit to the community, and is it required by our present condition? Furthermore, is it a branch of economical policy which should be fostered? These are interrogatories which now divide the people; and they will receive a final discussion upon the expiration of the present tariff law. It is admitted, on all hands, that duties are required for the maintenance of the revenue; but the more important question is, are those duties required for protection? The system of manufactures, as we before hinted, may be considered, in great part, the offspring of the government; and all must admit, that such a policy should be pursued as will tend to the best in-

corporations, and the profits on the immense manufactures of its shops, consisting principally of full sets of machinery for cotton and woollen mills, locomotive engines, &c., it reserves and receives an annual rent for the water-power disposed of for each mill.

“The capital stock of the remaining ten great corporations is, of course, \$10,000,000. Besides these establishments, there are the Lowell Bleachery; the extensive Powder Works of O. M. Whipple, Esq.; the Flannel Mills; the Whitney Mills, where blankets of the very best quality and finish are made; a Batting Mill; Card and Whip Factory of White & Co.; an extensive Bobbin Factory of the Messrs. Douglass; Planing Machine of Brooks & Pickering; extensive Carriage and Harness Manufactory of Day, Converse & Whittredge; Sash and Door Factory of J. H. Wrand; employing altogether a capital of about \$400,000, and 400 operatives. The whole number of males employed in all the manufacturing establishments in the city is about 2,500, and of females 7,000. Very few children are employed. It is provided by the laws of the commonwealth, that all youths employed in the mills, under fourteen years of age, shall attend the schools three months out of twelve every year. The average wages of females is two dollars per week, clear of board; and of males, common hands, eighty cents per day, clear of board. All are paid monthly. The total amount of average monthly wages, out of which board bill must be paid, is about \$170,000, making a yearly aggregate, paid to operatives, by all the corporations, of over \$2,000,000.

The weekly product of the mills is 1,265,560 yards of cotton cloth, of which 70,000 are of the coarsest kind, called negro cloth. The rest is mostly common, coarse, and fine sheetings, shirtings, drillings, and cotton flannels. A large portion of the finer goods is manufactured into calicoes at the Merrimack print works, and a small portion of the coarser fabric is printed at the Hamilton print works. 1,800 yards of broadcloth, and 6,000 yards of cassimere are produced per week, by the Middlesex Company; and 2,500 yards of carpeting, and 150 rugs, measuring one yard and three fourths each, by the Lowell Company, making a weekly aggregate of 1,265,560, and a yearly of 65,809,120 yards. Thus, it will be seen, that this city manufactures a fraction over four and a half yards of cloth per year, for every man, woman, and child in the United States, allowing the population to be fifteen

terests of all. It has been our design not to enter into any discussion, or to engage in exparte demonstrations, but to set forth, in a clear and condensed form, the facts connected with the rise, progress, and present state of the manufacturing interest. As one of the most important branches of our national enterprise, it deserves to be understood thoroughly, and maturely considered by the people, and such a course of legislation should be pursued as will tend to the prosperity of all.

We cannot close this paper without adverting to the mighty revolution which has been effected during the present age by the agency of machinery. Not only has the individual condition of the great bulk of men become changed by its recent introduction among us, but the enterprises of states seem to be undergoing a change through the influences which it appears to be extending. Doubtless its agency will be instrumental in working out a greater amount of good to the great body of the people, in increasing their productive power, and in spreading abroad those comforts and that intelligence which are the peculiar features of our own age. But at the same time, its direct tendency is to abolish, in considerable measure, the sentiment of taste which has thrown a pure coloring over ages past. If Edmund Burke, that distinguished patriot and statesman, could declare, in his own time, that the age of chivalry had departed, with how much greater truth can the remark be made in our own day, when machinery has almost supplanted the ordinary forces formerly used by men, and converted the country into a great workshop. Our tournaments are the annual fairs which are held in the principal marts of the nation ;

millions. 270,000 yards of cloth are dyed and printed per week. The consumption of cotton per week, in all the mills, is 1,025 bales, or 412,000 pounds. The yearly consumption of wool is, in the Middlesex Mills, 600,000, and in the Carpet 439,536 pounds—making together 1,039,536 pounds. The Middlesex Company consumes, per annum, 3,000,000 teasels. All the companies consume, per annum, 11,660 tons of anthracite coals, 3,410 cords of wood, 500,000 bushels of charcoal, 65,289 gallons of oil, 600,000 pounds of starch, and 3,000 barrels of flour for starch.

“The average time of working in the mills per day, is about twelve hours and a quarter. The female operatives remain in the employ of the companies, on an average, a fraction over three years. Their average ages probably range from fifteen to twenty-four. Very few are under fifteen, and not many over twenty-four. The expense of a female employed in the mills, exclusive of board, need not exceed \$40 per annum, even when she dresses elegantly on sabbaths and holidays, and well every day. She may therefore save, in three years, \$186, enough to purchase a small farm in the western country, or to decently furnish a young mechanic's or farmer's house in New England. It is a very important fact, that most of the girls employed in the mills take good care of their earnings. The cashier of the Savings' Bank informs me, that of \$386,000 deposited in that institution, \$250,000 belong to the operatives, mostly females, employed in the factories. Some young females come here from the surrounding country, work a few years, and employ their earnings to aid their fathers to pay small debts: some to procure the means of completing a genteel education at some one of our numerous New England academies. The majority, however, save their money to furnish the houses of their future husbands. It is supposed that their chances of marrying are increased, rather than diminished, by their residence and employment in the city. Not a few are betrothed before they enter the mills; and while the young men, to whom they were to be wedded, are laboring here or elsewhere for the means to purchase a farm and build a house, they labor for the means to furnish it, and in most cases successfully too.*

* For a full and complete tabular statement of the Lowell Manufactures in January, 1840, see *Merchants' Magazine*, vol. iii. p. 92.

and he who bears off the victor's prize, is the man who exhibits the finest yard of broadcloth, or the best cattle. Men now combine mainly to advance mere utilitarian projects, having reference to the mere base and physical nature of man, without, we think, devoting sufficient attention to the pure in taste, which is believed to be allied to the pure in morals. But we rejoice that the weapons of modern political society are great principles of truth and right—not the mere brute power of physical force. The spinning-wheel of our ancestors is discarded, and the spacious factory, with its confused clattering, has taken its place. The old-fashioned pillion has been forgotten, and our citizens ride to their neighbors upon the swift wings of the railroad. The small shallop, which formerly transacted most of the domestic carrying trade, has yielded to the steamboat, which now vexes every sea by machinery. Machinery divests the cotton plant of its seed, transports it to the factory, weaves it into cloth, and then distributes it to the respective markets in all quarters of the globe. The duty which is binding upon our own government, we think, is, to direct these modern agents in such channels, that they may confer upon the people the greatest happiness and comfort, and establish permanently, in the condition of all classes and all interests, the principles of the Constitution.

ART. III.—BRITISH IMPORT DUTIES.

ABSTRACT OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS
ON IMPORT DUTIES, AND THE EVIDENCE OF JOHN M^cGREGOR, ESQ.

On the 5th of May, 1840, it was "ordered by the British parliament that a select committee should be appointed to inquire into the several duties levied on imports in the United Kingdom; and how far those duties were for protection to similar articles the produce or manufacture of that country, or of the British possessions abroad; or whether the duties were for purposes of revenue alone." The committee appointed consisted of fifteen members, who remained in session one month, and examined twenty-seven witnesses, and subsequently published a very elaborate report, containing a vast amount of evidence of a valuable character, which cannot be attentively perused without producing a strong conviction that important changes should urgently be required in their revenue legislation.

The committee maintained that the tariff of the United Kingdom presents neither congruity nor unity of purpose—that no general principles seem to have been applied, and that it often aims at incompatible ends. The duties are sometimes meant to be both productive of revenue and for protective objects, which are frequently inconsistent with each other: hence they sometimes operate to the complete exclusion of foreign produce, and in so far no revenue can, of course, be received; and sometimes, when the duty is inordinately high, the amount of revenue becomes, in consequence, trifling. They do not make the receipt of revenue the main consideration, but allow that primary object of fiscal regulations to be thwarted by an attempt to protect a great variety of particular interests, at the expense of the revenue and of the commercial intercourse with other countries. The committee were strongly impressed that the effect of pro-

hibitory duties, while they are, of course, wholly unproductive to the revenue, is to impose an indirect tax on the consumer, often equal to the whole difference of price between the British article and the foreign article, which the prohibition excludes. On the article of food alone, it is averred, according to the testimony laid before the committee, that the amount taken from the consumer exceeds the amount of all other taxes which are levied by the government. And the witnesses concur in the opinion, that the sacrifices of the community are not confined to the loss of revenue, but that they are accompanied by injurious effects upon wages and capital: they diminish greatly the productive powers of the country, and limit their active trading relations.

Somewhat similar is the action of high and protective duties. These impose upon the consumer a tax equal to the amount of the duties levied upon the foreign article, whilst it also increases the price of all the competing home-produced articles to the same amount as the duty; but that increased price goes, not to the treasury, but to the protected manufacturer. It is obvious that high protective duties check importation, and consequently are unproductive to the revenue; and experience shows that the profit to the trader, the benefit to the consumer, and the fiscal interests of the country, are all sacrificed when heavy import duties impede the interchange of commodities with other nations.

The inquiries of the committee naturally led them to investigate the effects of the protective system on manufacture and labor. They found, on the part of those connected with some of the most important of their manufactures, a conviction, a growing conviction, that the protective system is not, on the whole, beneficial to the protected manufactures themselves. Several witnesses, who were manufacturers, expressed the utmost willingness to surrender any protection they had from the tariffs, and disclaimed any benefit resulting from that protection.

The committee gathered from the evidence laid before them, that while the prosperity of their own manufactures is not to be traced to benefits derived from the exclusion of foreign rival manufactures, so neither is the competition of continental manufacturers to be traced to a protective system. They were informed that the most vigorous and successful of the manufactures on the continent had grown, not out of peculiar favor shown to them by legislation, but from those natural and spontaneous advantages which are associated with labor and capital in certain localities, and which cannot be transferred elsewhere at the mandate of the legislature, or at the will of the manufacturer. The committee had reason to believe, that the most prosperous fabrics are those which flourish without the aid of special favors. It was stated, that the legislation of Great Britain, whenever it is hostile to the introduction of foreign commodities, is invariably urged by the foreign states that produce such commodities, as a ground and a sanction for laws being passed by them hostile to the introduction of products of British industry.

With reference to the influence of the protective system upon wages, and on the condition of the laborer, the committee were convinced that the pressure of foreign competition is heaviest on those articles, in the production of which the rate of wages is lowest; so it is obvious, in a country exporting so largely as England does, that other advantages may more than compensate for an apparent advantage in the money-price of labor. The countries in which the rate of wages is lowest are not always those

which manufacture most successfully ; and the best service that could be rendered to the industrious classes of the community, would be to extend the field of labor, and of demand for labor, by an extension of commerce ; and that the supplanting the present system of protection and prohibition by a moderate tariff, would encourage and multiply, most beneficially for the state and for the people, their commercial transactions.

The committee further recommend, that as speedily as possible the whole system of differential duties, and of all restrictions, should be re-considered, and that a change therein be effected, in such a manner that existing interests may suffer as little as possible in the transition to a more liberal and equitable state of things. The committee have been persuaded that the difficulties of modifying the discriminating duties which favor the introduction of British colonial articles, would be very much abated if the colonies were themselves allowed the benefits of free trade with all the world.

Although the committee were not able to embrace all the several branches which come within the scope of their instructions, yet they thought themselves warranted in reporting their strong conviction of the necessity of an immediate change in the import duties of the kingdom : and should parliament sanction their views, by establishing imposts on a small number of the articles most productive, the amount of each impost being carefully considered with a view to the greatest consumption of the article, and thereby produce the greatest receipt to the customs, they are persuaded that no loss would occur to the revenue, but, on the contrary, a considerable augmentation might be confidently anticipated.

The simplification they recommend, would not only facilitate the transactions of commerce, and thereby benefit the revenue, but would, at the same time, greatly diminish the cost of collection, remove multitudinous sources of complaint and vexation, and give an example to the world at large, which, emanating from a community distinguished above all others for its capital, its enterprise, its intelligence, and the extent of its trading relations, could not but produce the happiest effects, and consolidate the great interests of peace and commerce, by associating them intimately and permanently with the prosperity of the whole family of nations.

In accordance with these general principles the committee elicited, in the course of their inquiries, the following important evidence, which has made a deep impression on the British nation, and has produced an almost universal conviction that their commercial relations demand prompt and important changes.

Mr. M'Gregor, one of the joint secretaries of the Board of Trade, affirmed, that the whole amount of the revenues received for the protection of British manufactures in the year 1839, was £443,355, with the exception of the amount received on cotton and woollen goods, the duties of which he did not consider as protective, inasmuch as neither the manufacturers of the one or the other require any protection ; on the contrary, several manufacturers themselves had avowed to the Board of Trade, that they wanted no protection whatever, while others, immediately after the peace, declared that unless they changed their system they could not succeed ; that is, they must manufacture in large quantities, and instead of going upon the old system of large profits, they must go upon the principle of small profits and great sales. He mentioned, as a curious fact, that some branches of manufacture which are protected—linens and silks, for

example—have been more frequently in a greater state of distress and misery than any others.

The whole amount of cotton manufactures exported from Great Britain in the year 1839, he stated to be £24,552,129, and that of woollen goods £6,679,287. The amount of import duties on cotton manufactures received the same year, was £6,584, and the amount of duty received on woollens £25,113.

The revenue duty on cotton manufactures at 10 per cent, and that on woollen at 15 per cent, he regarded as no protection. The expense of transport, if foreign manufacturers produced them on the spot so much cheaper than British goods, would be equal nearly to 10 and 15 per cent. Every duty, if paid, he considered protective, that exceeds the cost of transporting the goods, produced at the same price, from the country where they are manufactured to the country where they are sold. The fact of the duty being 10 per cent, and the revenue derived on cotton manufactures being only £6,584, were conclusive evidence to him, with perhaps a few exceptions in regard to Germany, that those goods were produced or sold in England as cheap as in other countries, and that they required no protection. The British manufacturers had hitherto produced those articles cheaper than the chief manufacturers abroad; but latterly they had found, in the Mediterranean, that the woollen cloths of the south of France had been produced cheaper than theirs; coarse fabrics from the south of France met them in the foreign market, and had driven their cloths out of the markets of Italy and Egypt to some extent. He was not prepared to say, however, that the present duty will not very soon become a protection, inasmuch as the manufacturers in the south of France, in places in the neighborhood of Aix-la-Chapelle, and in Westphalia, and also in Saxony, possibly in Moravia, may produce woollens at a cost much less than those of Great Britain, as may be equal not only to the expense of transport, but also to the 15 per cent on the import. Although the amount of the exports of British woollens, particularly to the German states, had not diminished since the establishment of the Prussian tariff over the whole of those countries, yet he found, in all parts of Germany, that Americans, and other purchasers for South America and Cuba, came to the fairs of Leipsic and Berlin, and also Vienna, to purchase woollens and cottons, who had before received their entire supplies from Great Britain. It was his belief that the consumption of British woven manufactures had decreased in the states of Germany; but very extraordinary facilities have been afforded under the Prussian system for the transport of goods. He thought that the consumption of British woollen and cotton goods had diminished to the extent of one half in all the Rhenish states. But the general declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to Prussia, Germany, and Holland, during the years from 1833 to 1838, both inclusive, was as follows:

	Prussia.	Germany.	Holland.	Total.
1833	£144,179	£4,355,548	£2,181,893	£6,681,620
1834	136,423	4,547,166	2,470,267	7,153,856
1835	188,273	4,602,966	2,648,402	7,439,641
1836	160,722	4,463,729	2,509,622	7,134,073
1837	131,536	4,898,016	3,040,029	8,069,581
1838	155,223	4,988,900	3,549,429	8,693,552

The consequence has been, since the year 1833, that a much greater quantity of British manufactures have been sold to be sent through and out of the states under the Germanic Union, into other countries, from the facility which has been extended by the Prussian government in respect to the inland warehousing. All importers of respectability, residing within the confederation, are allowed to bring their goods to their own warehouses. In the towns where fairs are held, they are weighed when they are put in; and at the end of six months the goods remaining are reweighed. On being first weighed, the duty is charged to the merchant in the customhouse books; they receive credit at the end of six months for all that has been sold for transit, and for what remains on hand, paying up the difference of duty for what has been sold for consumption; for the goods then remaining on hand the duty is charged against them for another six months; and the facility thus created by the Prussian government has been found to be very convenient to the importers, for they generally receive the money for the goods they sell before they pay the duties.

He cited some instances of German woollen and cotton goods that were imported to Great Britain to be bonded for exportation; but he considered it contrary to law to put English marks upon them. He stated that he had various specimens of British marks and cards that were printed for the sales at Frankfort, and that they had been sent out to America, &c., in packages, not in the same cases with the goods, but in another box, to be put upon the goods after their arrival.

Mr. M'Gregor presented the committee a synopsis of twenty enumerated articles on which the duty has been laid to protect their manufactures, and not for the purposes of revenue.* They were incidentally selected, with the view of showing the very small amount of duty that they receive altogether upon manufactures. The amount of revenue in the year 1839, on the twenty articles above referred to, was £402,575, and the amount received for the unenumerated articles was £40,380. He did not think the limited number of articles he had selected a sufficient test of the amount of protection: for, in taking an article on which the duty has undoubtedly been laid as a protective one—on silk manufactures, for example—he found, notwithstanding the high duty, that the legal imports yielded £247,361 nett revenue—more than one half of the whole amount of duty yielded by all other manufactures imported; which shows, that while they receive a great revenue on silk goods, silk manufactures are manufactured so much cheaper in other countries, as to be able to bear a duty of from 30 to 40 per cent in Great Britain. Nor does the amount of revenue collected upon any article afford a test, in all cases, of the extent of protection. It would be very small if the articles were produced, as nearly as possible, at the same price as they could be produced in another country—that is, with the difference of the protecting duty; but when we come to the silk manufacture, which yields a revenue of £247,000 a year, and when it is considered that the contraband trade in that article is carried on to a great extent, and that if upon all the silk introduced into Great Britain the duty was paid, the treasury would receive probably more

* Mr. M'Gregor, in the course of his examination, also laid before the committee a revised tariff, the importance of which has induced us to give it a place in a subsequent part of this number. It will not only be useful in showing the existing rate of duties in Great Britain, but will exemplify his views as given in his evidence.—Ed

than £400,000, it is evident that the silk introduced, after paying the cost of transport, and paying the duty of from 30 to 40 per cent, must be manufactured much cheaper, otherwise it would not yield a profit by being imported into that country.

Mr. M'Gregor stated that he had had communication with the head of customs in France, and with others, who assured him that cases and boxes of gloves had been sent to Boulogne and Dieppe for the express purpose of being smuggled into England, which was countenanced by the French customhouse officers at those ports, who assisted frequently in getting the goods off. He further stated that the charge for smuggling was nine per cent upon certain qualities of silk and fine gloves; but for ten and twelve per cent, one can get all but the heavy goods insured into England. He expressed it as his opinion, that the present high duties imposed by the British tariff promotes and encourages smuggling, and, consequently, interferes with the revenue, without saving at all the labor of the country; and he regarded it as a truism, which experience has proved in every country in Europe, that the moment the duty is higher than the premium for smuggling it ceases to be protective. The rate of revenue duty that he would recommend is ten per cent, the same as the premium for smuggling, which he always considered a pretty fair test of the duty being too high. He put all duties above ten to fifteen per cent as protective duties, except upon articles upon which heavy duties are laid on account of not having the same article in the country. The duty on brandy he considered in two senses; in the first place, protective—as protecting British spirits; and in the next, as protecting West India spirits, rum, &c. He also considered it a revenue duty.

In the negotiations that Mr. M'Gregor had had in Austria, France, and the German and Italian states, as a commissioner of the government for the arrangement of commercial affairs, he stated that the simplest tariff that he found in those countries, both in regard to the number of articles and the simplification of the duties, is that of the Germanic Union of customs. The number of rates of duties in the Prussian tariff amount to about 43, while that of the British tariff is 1,150. The basis of the Prussian tariff was calculated to be an *ad valorem* duty of ten per cent upon every article, with the exception of those used in manufacture; raw materials of every description being admitted entirely free, or upon a nominal duty equal to what the French call *droit de balance*, or a duty sufficient to defray the expenses of entry and keeping accounts, and also to ascertain the quantity of articles imported; but the duties upon manufactures being by weight, they vary from two per cent, *ad valorem*, to as high as eighty per cent in some instances, on articles of very coarse manufacture. The original intention was to make the basis of duties ten per cent; but when the question of levying the duty for all the states of the Union came to be settled, levying the duty by weight was preferred, as all the states had but one common customhouse, and as each state received out of the aggregate a proportion of that revenue according to its actual population. For example, out of every hundred dollars or florins raised, Prussia alone received 55; of the remaining 45, the other states received the proportion due them according to their population. Prussia and Saxony, and some other states, feared that in those states bordering on France and Switzerland, if the duty were made an *ad valorem* duty it would lead to corruption on the part of the *employes* on the frontier, in letting in goods at prices lower than

the real values ; and they finally decided that upon all articles liable to be smuggled, the duty should be levied by weight ; and the consequence has been, that upon coarse goods of low value, the duty has averaged as high as about eighty per cent.

Under the Prussian tariff, the general belief was that the new tariff had been adopted for the first time by the whole population of the Union, amounting to about 27,000,000 of people : but previously to the Germanic Union, with regard to the customs, there had been for a long time in Prussia a higher tariff of duties upon woollen cloths, and some other articles, than the tariff of 1839. And in other states, as Bavaria, with a population of nearly 5,000,000, and Wurtemberg, with a population of 1,700,000, Hesse Electorate, with a population of 700,000, and the Duchy of Hesse, with a population of 800,000,—all these, with Prussia, having a population of 23,700,000, had duties nearly as high, and in some instances higher than the tariff of 1839. In other states, having in all the remaining population of 3,300,000, the duties were less ; in the Duchy of Baden and Nassau they were still less ; and in the free town of Frankfort there were no duties at all except town dues. In Saxony, with a population of more than a million and a half, the import duties were very trifling ; and it is a valuable fact in commercial legislation, that in Saxony, a country by no means naturally rich, yet there, without any protection whatever, manufactures of every description have thriven more than in any other part of the continent of Europe.

Switzerland is cited as a country where there are no protective duties whatever ; and the state of their manufactures is such that their cotton goods come into competition with the English, and meet them with very great advantage in their East India markets ; and they are sent to the United States and to the Brazils in very large quantities. On the contrary, the government of most countries, excepting those of Saxony, Switzerland, and Holland, have been led away by the visionary splendor of being able to supply themselves within their own countries with every thing they require. It commenced in France, under Colbert, and it was imitated by other monarchs ; but it has turned out that those countries in which those protections have been completely established, have not at all thriven in consequence of those protections ; and where they have occasionally thriven, they have done so in defiance of them.

When Mr. M'Gregor was at Vienna in 1836, he was informed by Prince Metternich of the great difficulty they had to struggle against the protective system, and since the formation of the Germanic Union of customs, the manufacturers of Bohemia had stated in their petitions that they had some hopes of being able to compete with the fair trader, but that they could never compete with the contraband.

In 1814, when the people of Germany were compelled to become agriculturists instead of being engaged as soldiers, in the course of two or three years they produced a great superabundance of agricultural products, and not being able to find a market for that produce either in England or in France, in both of which the high duties shut out that produce, the excess of labor formerly employed in war and afterward in agriculture went into the manufactures of Westphalia and Silesia. The argument they made use of to Mr. M'Gregor upon every occasion, both in Prussia, Saxony, and in the Rhenish states, and particularly at the two congresses held at Munich, and at Dresden, was this,—“ You compelled us to become

manufacturers; we have not mines of gold and silver, and you would not take what we had to sell you. If you had taken what we had to give, we should have continued to produce it, because we would have found a market for it; but as you would not take it, necessity compelled our people to look out for other occupation, and they were intelligent enough to turn their attention exclusively to manufactures. The German grazier now exchanges his cattle and his beef for fabrics with the home manufacturer, and the corn-dealer and the miller provide bread for the manufacturer, and take his goods and use them in return." This was the common saying in Prussia, where every man is intelligent, and where every man thinks, and where as soon as he sees an effect he immediately inquires into the cause. They have an abundance of all that is necessary to maintain life within themselves; and their industry being directed to manufactures, they are more independent of other countries than those countries are which have not an abundance of food, and wood for fuel and for their buildings. The artisan in the cotton manufacture can subsist himself with equal comfort in Germany at half the expense at which an English artisan can support himself; in Westphalia and the neighborhood of Frankfort, and in Bavaria and Austria, at less than half.

In reference to the real prices of labor, they are stated to be much lower in England than in Saxony and on the continent generally, with the exception of maritime labor, inasmuch as the provisioning of ships is much dearer in England. If ship-owners on the continent even gave the same wages as they do in England, which they do not, they could carry on their shipping more economically, because the provision which is found by the ship-owner for his crew forms an essential part of the wages. Again, if a Hollander, or if a Prussian were compelled to victual his family on shore at the prices paid in England, his wages then would not be to himself more than one half what the same wages are in Prussia; but as he maintains his family in Prussia, the low wages he gets enables him, by the cheapness of provisions in that country, to live as well as an English sailor will who maintains his family in England. The provisioning of a ship is, in every sense of the word, a part of the wages, and wages is what the British ship-owners have greatly to compete against. One of the great advantages that the American ships, and also those of Hamburgh, have over the British ship, is the cheapness of provisioning them.

After a laborious investigation in almost every country in Europe, Mr. M'Gregor came to the conclusion that England—with all her natural advantages of position, which no other country possesses in the same degree, and the intelligence and industry of her artisans, together with capital, machinery, and other elements, such as coal and iron, and the superiority of her harbors for exportation, and many other internal advantages as to carriage and intercourse—should have nothing but fiscal taxation, that is, duties for revenue only, have no protection at all; but only equalize upon equitable principles the system of taxing the population for revenue, and they may then meet the people of all other nations with their manufactures in every country in the world, and in most articles undersell them.

With regard to the duties which have been imposed to protect colonial produce, they were considered so high by Mr. M'Gregor, that they amounted, in fact, to prohibition. The articles under restriction in the colonies, in order to protect the sale in Great Britain, he stated to be wood, timber, and salt provisions of every description; and in truth every article of provision

he thought more or less taxed or prohibited. He considered that the annual loss to the revenue from the protective duty on the article of sugar alone, to be £3,000,000, and expressed his belief that it is the cause of the exorbitant price which sugar bears in Great Britain. He estimates the consumption of sugar throughout the kingdom to be three quarters of an ounce to each individual a day. The calculations made when he was at Paris and Vienna were, that each individual who took coffee or tea twice a day consumed two ounces and a half, which is more than double the quantity consumed in Great Britain. This is exclusive of all that would be required, and that to a great extent, in the preserving of fruits, and in various other ways, such as domestic wines, pastry, and many other preparations into which sugar enters.

Mr. M'Gregor's reasons for anticipating so large an addition to the revenue under his proposed duties, are obvious. The duty on Muscovado sugar from the British possessions is 2½*d.* per lb. ; the duty on foreign Muscovado 6½*d.* per lb. When sugar rises above 7*d.* per lb., he asserts that the laboring classes seldom can use any, and with the diminished use of sugar there is a corresponding decrease of tea and coffee ; on the contrary, an increased consumption of sugar would cause an increased consumption of other articles contributing to the revenue, as tea and coffee, while simultaneous reductions in the duty on those articles would not only increase their consumption, but extend their use, as has lately been manifested among the middling and poorer classes, as a substitute for spirituous liquors.

A considerable and influential body of the citizens of Great Britain object to the admission of Brazilian produce at lower duties than at present, because it is cultivated by slave labor. On this point Mr. M'Gregor observed, that by the treaty existing between the two countries, which expires in 1844, it is stipulated that all British produce and manufactures shall be admitted for consumption in Brazil at a duty, the maximum of which is not to exceed 15 per cent ; that the British have no stipulation whatever as to receiving Brazilian produce, except as to its paying no other or higher duties than that of the most favored nations ; and that the Brazilians are anxious to break up the treaty, and, on breaking it up, to give the British notice that they will prohibit all their manufactures entirely if they do not receive their sugars. He stated that the extent of British manufactures that are annually sent to the Brazils amount to about £5,000,000, and that the markets of that country are the best they have for cotton goods, and, unless it be the United States, for all manufactures. He expressed it as his opinion that by the rejection of British manufactures from that country, the condition of the artisans of Glasgow, Manchester, and Birmingham, would be worse than the slaves of Brazil ; for, said he, "the slaves, however deplorable their condition otherwise, are always provided with substantial food, sufficient clothing and lodging : our operatives have no security as to any maintenance, except for the poor rates, which form one of our greatest general taxes, and which is chiefly caused by our protective duties."

On the subject of supplying the general markets with free-labor sugar, Mr. M'Gregor entertained a belief that such an attempt would cause an increased demand for slave-labor sugar. "On common commercial principles," continued he, "where a portion of what is consumed is withdrawn, if you could get the same article elsewhere, you would go in search of it, where purchasable at any profit ; but I believe you would increase the consump-

tion of free-labor sugar by purchasing all sugars in the cheapest markets. All restriction on buying and selling is a despotic interference with industrious and enterprising liberty. Therefore, if we attempt to discourage slave-labor sugar by allowing only the importation of free-labor sugar, we should be liable to have our efforts thwarted by that principle. All interference with the general freedom of trade is to be apprehended, and it has always affected not only the morals but the prosperity of those countries. Even if we draw a distinction between free-labor and slave-labor sugar, it will never succeed; no commerce can flourish as it should if we choke up its natural channels."

On the subject of colonial coffee, it was stated by Mr. M^cGregor, that the effect of the high differential duty on coffee has been the legal evasion of the law, in principle, as to the way of bringing coffee to Great Britain. Cargoes of coffee have been sent from the United Kingdom, and from ports of the continent of Europe, to be landed at the Cape of Good Hope, which is considered to be within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and brought back to the United Kingdom for the purpose of supplying the necessary consumption there. From the 26th of April, 1838, to the 24th of March, 1840, it appears by the returns that eighty-one cargoes, importing more than 21,000,000 pounds of foreign coffee, had arrived in the United Kingdom from the Cape of Good Hope; the duty being on that mode of carrying coffee nine pence a pound; that is, less than if imported direct from foreign countries. The duty, if imported from the country of the growth of the principal part of the coffee, would amount to £1,750,000; the duty saved by the indirect importation would be £750,000, supposing all to be entered for consumption. The expense of sending coffee to the Cape of Good Hope is about one penny, and consequently it arrives in Great Britain at about five pence less duty than if it came direct from the countries of its growth; but if these duties were reduced to an equitable fiscal principle, the article would be cheaper, and the consumption of coffee in that country would no doubt increase to a very great extent, and save a nominal loss to the revenue of about £250,000. The refusal on the part of England to take coffee from the Brazils, undoubtedly limits very much the introduction of British manufactures into that country. In proportion to the exclusion of British manufactures from Brazil, is the increased demand for the manufactures of Germany, Austria, France, and Switzerland.

Mr. M^cGregor was of the opinion that the differential duty upon foreign and colonial timber is exceedingly injurious to the manufacturing interests, and indirectly to British navigation, inasmuch as they are prevented from supplying in return those foreign nations with their manufactures, which they would take in about the same proportion as they took their timber, or their other productions which they may have to export to Great Britain. It was also his opinion that by lowering the duties on foreign and colonial timber, or equalizing them, the revenue derived from them would be increased—which, in 1839, was £1,603,194—to £2,500,000; that all classes would be benefited, timber being so extensively required in all kinds of buildings down to the poor man's cottage, and for so many implements and countless other uses. If the duty were to be levied *ad valorem*, even at the same rate, he thought it would in amount be higher, from its greater value, on foreign timber. It was his belief that the change would not be prejudicial to the colonies, if the useless restrictions with which they are shackled were taken away, and all British customhouses were removed

from them. He stated that he had resided in all the British North American colonies, and it was his opinion that if the restraints upon the trade of those possessions were removed, they would not be long required to continue any protective duty whatever; but while the colonial restrictions are continued, they will be obliged to continue some of those protections. He also considered that removing those restrictions would be no disadvantage whatever to the mercantile navy, inasmuch as if the mercantile navy be increased the British navy will be increased also. As the British nation has, by their legislation, caused merchants and others to embark in undertakings with their capital, which it would be unjust to destroy by other legislation, except upon equitable principles, he would remunerate them for their losses. For example, the province of New Brunswick alone, from existing circumstances, from the labor and industry of the country having been directed so much more to saw-mills and timber-cutting than to agriculture, would experience inconvenience and loss which ought to be guarded against, on the principle of equity, for some time: but none of the other colonies would, to any serious extent, experience injury. Some individual houses would suffer, but it would be economy to the nation; and it would only be justice to remunerate them for their losses, provided they effected a change which would give them at least an additional million of revenue, with far greater advantages to their manufacturers, shipbuilders, and to their whole population.

Mr. M'Gregor felt confident that the colonists themselves would not only be in favor of those restrictions being withdrawn, but would consider it as one of the greatest boons that the home government could extend to them. As far back as 1834 the people of the Canadas expressed the opinion distinctly:—"Remove these restrictions and prohibitions," said they, "and you may legislate as you think wise and fit in regard to the timber duties."

The prohibitions and duties which have been imposed to protect British agriculture and grazing, Mr. M'Gregor considered to have a two-fold effect—the one exclusive, in regard to bread and salted provisions, except when the prices rise to what may be called great scarcity prices; and the other, to keep up the prices generally of the same articles in England. In so doing, they impose upon all the consumers of the United Kingdom the greatest tax to which they are subjected; and whatever adds to the cost of living, takes from the wealth of the country. The higher the tax upon food and articles of necessary consumption, the less must be the means of the people of paying their revenue tax. One great extra taxation occasioned by the price of food is that of throwing people out of employment, preventing them from earning any thing, and by leaving no resources but the poor rates for their maintenance. It diminishes the fund for the employment of labor. Although it seems a contradiction; but still it is a fact borne out by inquiry, that whenever the price of food is high in England, it is found that there are a greater number of the laboring people unemployed; and not only that, but the wages of those employed, in consequence of so many being thrown out of employment, is less than when food is plentiful. The abundance of employment is generally observed to be greatest where food is cheap, which has invariably been the case in France and throughout the Austrian dominions. It has been the result of producing economy in production, and enabling the public to consume the article cheaper, that the wealth of the country is in-

creased, as well as an increased demand for labor; and with reference to cheap food, it is one of the greatest principles of public and domestic consideration in countries where the people have been always most employed. Belgium and Holland are cited as familiar examples.

Mr. M^cGregor contended that the protective duties of the United Kingdom produce great fluctuations in the demand for labor, and consequently, the distress which occurs among the working classes from time to time. "Those fluctuations," said he, "have been principally the consequence of short crops; and from there not being a steady demand in England for the agricultural produce of other countries, other countries have not been prepared at all times to supply us; because, in consequence of our system of averages and fixed duties, a degree of uncertainty has always prevailed on the continent relative to the British market. The consequent shortness of supply, causing high prices for bread and other articles of food, diminishes the means of purchasing and paying for other articles for home consumption, while the increased price of food, at the same time, diminishes employment in manufacturing labor for exportation to other countries; and the demand for labor is also decreased by the diminished quantity for home consumption, leaving a great surplus to be exported, and which surplus supplies the place of the manufactures that were previously produced when the prices of provisions were low. The steady moderate price of food, the dependent steady demand for labor, the equally dependent demand for manufactures, and the increased or decreased application for parish relief, by those employed, or thrown out of employment, being made in fact by our legislation, not on any measure of certainty, but on the changes of the wind, or the rise and fall of the barometer."

If there was a fixed duty on corn, however objectionable that duty might be, it was his belief that there would be something like certainty as to the trade in that article between foreign countries and England. In that case the trade would be like most other trades not placed under variable and uncertain restrictions; it would lead to a more natural exchange of commodities between England and other countries, and a large amount of revenue would be collected thereby; for it is evident that the greatest revenue that can be collected is from those articles which are most consumed, and certainly of corn the people would consume the most. If there was a low fixed duty on corn and other provisions, it would relieve the people from taxes levied on other articles, and bring wines and other luxuries more within their reach; and not only that, continued he, "but I am convinced that, with the present corn laws, it will be impossible to maintain the present rents of land, inasmuch as if the present corn laws are continued, the inevitable consequence will be that persons of capital in this country, and men of ingenuity, will do what the landlords cannot do; that is, they will remove with their capital and their industry to other countries, whereas the lands cannot be removed; and if you remove the manufacturing industry from the neighborhood of agricultural lands, you reduce the rents of those lands, as has taken place under similar circumstances in every country in the world. In the neighborhood of many commercial towns, Liverpool and Manchester for example, lands which pay a rent of from £3 to £6 per acre, would scarcely be considered fit for any sort of cultivation in places distant from the seats of trade and industry. These lands would become what they were formerly, only fit for rabbit warrens. In various parts of Germany the rents are not one-

tenth part what they were one hundred years ago, occasioned entirely by the removal of the manufactures; for example, in the neighborhood of Ausbury, which was once a flourishing imperial city, the rents at that period were immense; the landlords were, during the prosperity of trade and manufactures, led to build some of the finest palaces in Europe: those palaces are now deserted, or turned into post-houses, or inns, or barracks, or hospitals; nobody is living in them of the name or family of those who constructed them. The same may be said of every town where manufactures once flourished, and which bad laws and bad government have been instrumental in destroying. Desolation has been the consequence of the withdrawal of that flourishing industry, and the same is to be found in every other country in every period of the history of mankind, under similar circumstances."

ART. IV.—GENERAL AVERAGE.*

ITS APPLICATION TO LIGHTERAGE AND FREIGHT.

A VESSEL, on a voyage from Europe to New York, was stranded sixty or seventy miles from New York. The underwriters sent an agent to preserve the cargo in the first place, and if practicable, also the ship—though there was very slight expectation of saving her, as there had been no instance of getting off a ship that had been stranded on the same coast. A greater part of the cargo was landed; but a small part, consisting of iron and a few packages of goods, could not be got out, there being a great deal of water in the hold. The cargo thus landed, was brought on to the port of destination by other conveyance.

The vessel, by help of empty casks and lightwood to buoy her up, was got off, and was towed to New York by a steamboat.

On these facts the following questions are proposed:

1. Are the expenses of getting off the vessel with the small quantity of the cargo left on board, general average?

2. Are the charges of bringing the cargo from the place of stranding to the port of destination general average, or are they to be paid by freight?

1. The expenses of floating the ship is doubtless to be adjusted by an average on the ship and the part of the cargo remaining on board at the time of floating her, and which could not before be got at to be landed.

Upon the same principle, the expense of landing the rest of the cargo would have been adjusted as an average on the ship and cargo, if it had been landed for the purpose of lightening the ship and floating her. But as it was landed for the purpose of saving the cargo itself merely, and not that of floating the ship, I do not see that the ship is liable for any part of that expense, since the proceedings for floating the ship appear to have been subsequent, and entirely independent of the discharging of the cargo.

But the expense of getting off the vessel certainly cannot be a general average upon the whole cargo saved. In the case of *Heyliger vs. N. Y.*

* Furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine, by ZEBEDEE COOK, JR. Esq., President of the Mutual Safety Insurance Company.

Firemen's Insurance Co., 11 Johnson's Rep. 85, the expense of saving the cargo and materials of the wrecked ship were adjusted in general average. In that case the court say, "the expense of conveyance in another vessel or boat, strictly so considered, ought to fall on the shipowner, and not on the shipper of the goods." They distinguished between the expense of saving the property, that is, rescuing it from the situation in which it was liable to be destroyed, and the transportation of the cargo from the place of the wreck to the port of destination. As far as labor and expense are bestowed indiscriminately for the benefit of different interests, those interests contribute proportionally, and whether this is called general or particular average will make no difference in the amount of the loss on each interest. But the moment the vessel and cargo become separated—and what is done for saving either has no effect in regard to saving the other—the principle of general average ceases. This is the doctrine of the case above cited. The transportation of the cargo is held to be a charge upon freight—that is, if the freight exceeds the expense; for it cannot be supposed that the shipowner will pay a greater amount than the freight for the purpose of earning freight. He must hire another ship, if it is reasonable that he should; but it is not reasonable that he should be required to hire another ship at an expense greater than the whole amount of freight. Suppose vessels to go sixty or seventy miles from New York to take out the cargo of a wrecked vessel and bring it on to New York, and the cargo is taken directly from the wrecked vessel on board of the lighters; this mixes up the expense of *saving* and that of *forwarding* the cargo. It is not easy to say what expense is incurred for salvage, and what for transportation. But suppose the cargo to be fished out of the wreck, landed and stored in a safe place, and that it is then re-shipped and forwarded, the expense of salvage and that of transportation are distinct. Here the shipowner has a right, if he so elects, to re-ship the cargo and forward it, and entitle himself to freight. The case admits of an easy and plain adjustment upon this principle. But in the case first supposed, as it is not obvious what was the expense of salvage, and what that of transportation, there is not the same facility in making the adjustment; still this can make no difference in the principle by which the case is governed. Though it is a matter of some difficulty to distinguish the expense of salvage from that of transportation, yet this is a difficulty of settling the facts, and not one of determining the principles applicable to the case. When it is once determined what expense belongs to each description, the case is determined; and in such case, if the forwarding of the goods is impracticable, or if the expense of the forwarding exceeds the whole freight for the voyage, so that the owner elects not to forward them for the sake of earning freight, the question becomes one of total or partial loss on the cargo.

I think, then, that the expense of getting off the vessel is not a subject of contribution by the part of the cargo landed before the vessel was floated. The shipper of those goods had no interest whatever in the floating of the vessel. And the fact of the vessel's afterward proceeding to the port of destination was entirely indifferent to him; so long as she did not take his goods, it was immaterial to him what port she next made, or whether she made any. This shows conclusively that he is not liable to contribute to the subsequent expense of floating the vessel.

The only question in this respect is, whether the vessel, if she is event-

ually saved, and the freight, if it be eventually earned by transshipping the goods, shall contribute towards the expense of landing the cargo taken out of the vessel as she lay stranded; for if it was taken out for the three-fold purpose of lightening the vessel that she might be floated, of saving the goods, and of eventually earning freight, then all three interests must contribute to this expense as far as those objects are attained—that is, to the extent of the amount and in the proportion of the ship, freight, and cargo saved. But if the cargo is taken out merely for the purpose of saving it, without any reference to getting off the vessel, the latter is not liable to contribute for that expense, even though incidentally the floating of the vessel may be thereby facilitated. But if it be matter of doubt whether the discharging the cargo was for the double purpose of saving both that and the ship, the more obvious construction seems to be, that it was for the double purpose, if that be the actual result. This doubt cannot, however, be applicable to the subsequent expense of floating the vessel, and navigating her to the port of destination. There is no room for the supposition that the cargo can be benefited by that expense.

2. Are the charges of bringing the cargo from the place of stranding to the port of destination general average, or are they to be paid by freight?

These questions have been already answered. After the cargo is landed and forwarded by other conveyance to the port of destination, the shipper cannot possibly be benefited by the floating of the ship, and the navigating her to the same or any other port; and this shows conclusively that he is not liable to contribute any part of the expenses incurred for those purposes.

As to the expense of transporting the cargo being defrayed out of freight, this must depend on the fact whether it is done to earn freight—that is, on its being more or less than freight; for if it be more, it is absurd to suppose that the owner of the vessel incurs this greater expense for the purpose of entitling himself to a less amount, viz, freight. In such a state of the facts, the question is one of total or partial loss of the cargo; for in consequence of a peril insured against, the cargo has been brought into a situation whereby the voyage insured is defeated as to the cargo, or the shipper, in order to accomplish the voyage as to his goods, is subjected to an expense of transportation greater than the stipulated freight. The underwriters must either pay this extra expense, or pay a total loss on the goods, which could be avoided only by incurring such extra expense. The underwriter on the goods has stipulated that the ship shall not be prevented by the perils insured against from transporting the goods to the port of destination; the ship has been thus prevented from transporting them to that port; they must, therefore, either pay a total loss, or pay at least the extra expense incurred to avert it.

W. P.

ART. V.—A QUESTION ON AVERAGE.

It sometimes happens that a vessel at sea loses her rudder, or parts a stay, or some other of her standing rigging, by which she is in danger of losing her masts, or she springs a dangerous leak, when it becomes necessary to apply certain articles, that were put on board for other purposes, to a temporary repair of these accidental damages; and a question arises

as to the manner in which such a use of them is to be compensated for—whether they are to be considered and treated as a partial loss, or made the subject of a general contribution.

In the opinion of writers on insurance, “no authorities are requisite to show that this is a subject of general contribution;” yet there are some who affect to doubt the correctness of these views, and contend, that as the damage was casual, its repairs should be adjusted as a partial loss.

A merely superficial view of the case might very naturally lead to such a conclusion, while a deliberate examination would doubtless tend to an opposite and more reasonable and just result.

It is not the magnitude of the sacrifice, but its quality, that determines the principle of a contribution. A voluntary sacrifice of any thing belonging to a vessel, whether it be of her appurtenances, or of the goods of her lading, when made for the general safety, is in law and in practice admitted to constitute an undoubted claim for general contribution; and in most, if not all cases, a voluntary sacrifice, in whatever form it occurs, is preceded by, or is intended to avert, a further accidental damage; and whether the sacrifice so made be for prevention or remedy, it is equally the subject of general average contribution.

To the practical insurer it would seem to be unnecessary to cite authorities in support of the right of the owner of a vessel to claim indemnity for a sacrifice deliberately made with a view to the preservation of the interests at risk, whether the sacrifice be that of a jettison, the cutting away of masts, the slipping from, or cutting away of a cable, or the cutting up of spars, or any other appurtenances, for an extraordinary purpose, or their application to any use other than their original one, for means of preservation, or in mitigation of an impending peril.

We had supposed, until recently, that the principle was universally admitted by practical insurers, as it is by elementary writers; and we believe that the exceptions are only to be found among those who have not given to the subject that consideration, and applied that liberal rule of construction, that is requisite to a just and proper disposal of the question; for whether they are willing to allow that the extraordinary applications of the articles constitute a claim for contribution, or otherwise, they cannot deny that the cutting up of spars, or of cables and hawsers, by which means they are rendered useless for their original purposes, is a sacrifice, to all intents and purposes, of just so much in value as it would cost to replace them, and just as much a sacrifice as would be a jettison of property of equal value.

The requisites necessary to make a valid claim for restitution are as follow. When it is demanded, the ship must be in actual distress; the thing intended to be destroyed must be expressly selected for that purpose; the sacrifice must be made *premeditatedly* and *deliberately*; and the end in view must be no other than that of the general preservation. Abstractedly considered, the mind and agency of man must be employed; the act must be preceded by foresight, and attended by volition. When *recompense* is claimed, it must be clearly shown that services have been performed out of the *ordinary course* of the voyage, and which had no *partial* advantage in prospect, but were absolutely intended for the general benefit. Stevens on Av., Part I. ch. i. sec. 1.

And the same authority is referred to to show, that “SAILS, ROPES, and OTHER MATERIALS, CUT and USED at sea for the purpose of stopping a leak,

or to rig jury-masts, or for any other purpose, where the general safety appears to require the sacrifice," constitute an undoubted claim for general contribution.

Now it is not contended that the mind and agency of man were employed in producing the injury, for that was accidental; but it cannot be denied that they were instrumental in its reparation, and were exerted to preserve the property that had become jeopardized by the casualty, and the means devised for this purpose necessarily involved a sacrifice of something of more or less value, and that sacrifice was a voluntary act, and as such constitutes a claim for recompense by a general average contribution; and in these views we are sustained by the concurrent testimony of all elementary writers upon the subject of insurance, either directly or indirectly, as well as by the practice of insurers in the common and ordinary application of the principles of general average.

The cutting away of a mast, or the cutting or slipping of a cable, or the jettison of the cargo, are either preceded by an accidental damage, or done to prevent or ameliorate it. Thus a vessel may be thrown on her beam-ends by a sudden squall, when to enable her to resume her upright position, it may be necessary to cut away her masts; or being at anchor, she may be struck adrift, and in danger of being precipitated upon a reef or shoal, when the cable is cut, or slipped, to facilitate her getting under way to avoid the impending peril; or she springs a leak, and jettison of the cargo is resorted to, or a sail is used to fother her to stanch the leak. All these measures are superinduced by or are the consequence of a casualty; but we never yet knew it to be maintained, that because these several or individual sacrifices were thus preceded, they were to be borne by the owners or insurers of the vessel in the nature of a particular average or partial loss; but on the contrary, that it is universally admitted that they constitute an undoubted claim for general average contribution.

Wherein, then, we would inquire, consists the difference in the quality of such sacrifices, from that of cutting up spars, cables, or hawsers, for a temporary repair at sea, when but for such an application of them, the vessel and cargo, and the crew, being in great jeopardy, would probably be lost? To say nothing of a *liberal*, we will merely ask for a *reasonable* construction of the case, and whether, upon a deliberate and dispassionate view of it, or a critical examination, it can be perceived why one should be accounted a sacrifice, and the other not? Why the throwing overboard, in a season of peril, the materials, or applying them to an extraordinary purpose for the general safety, can change the principle of indemnity?

The application of the appurtenances of a vessel as has been suggested, is, as we conceive, clearly a voluntary sacrifice; they are diverted from the original and ordinary use for which they were designed; they cannot be restored to their original form; spars or cables, once severed, cannot be reunited for any practical uses afterward: why, then, if they are thus appropriated with a view to preserve the vessel and cargo, should not these interests be held to contribute for the means thus devoted to their preservation?

If such an extraordinary use or application of the materials of a vessel, as we have here referred to, is not a voluntary sacrifice, and meant to minister to the preservation of all the interests exposed to a common danger; and if such an application of them does not constitute an essential ingredient in general average, of which *jettison* is the foundation, or as it

is termed, "the most ancient and legitimate source of average contribution," we are at a loss to perceive the distinction that is attributed to be made between such a sacrifice, and that of voluntary cutting away the masts, or cutting or slipping of a cable, when all the interests are jeopardized by extraordinary sea perils, and the act is performed with a view to their preservation.

ART. VI.—CULTURE OF SILK IN THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

THE following remarks* were made at the last annual fair of the American Institute. In compliance with the request of T. B. WAKEMAN, Esq., the corresponding secretary of that institution, I enclose them for publication in your Magazine. The culture of silk, although of the greatest importance to the welfare and commercial prosperity of the country, has lost much of its interest, from the fact of its having been already thoroughly agitated, and unfortunately treated by some ill-disposed persons with ridicule, if not contempt.

The experience of more than half a century has effectually convinced every person conversant with the culture of silk, that our soil, our climate, our pure and dry atmosphere, and our silvery waters, are evidently adapted to the production of silk. It is proved almost with a mathematical precision that we could, in a short time, not only dispense with silk of foreign origin, but even supply the European markets with this highly valued article, of our own production. The ever-increasing importation of every kind of foreign silk into the United States, and the unfavorable balance of our commerce with foreign nations, imperiously require some efficient measures to increase our agricultural products, and to diminish the ruinous drain upon our resources.

The production of silk is unquestionably destined to fill the dangerous *deficits* left in our domestic and public economy by our unlimited speculations, and by our extravagant luxuries.

The culture of silk is the principal source of the riches of every country where it is properly and diligently pursued. The Lombard Venetian kingdom, having a territorial extent of about one half of the state of New York, with a population a little above four millions, exported in 1833, 6,132,950 pounds unmanufactured silk. The United States, having a soil and climate eminently adapted to the culture of silk, imported in a single year twenty-three millions of dollars of manufactured silk; and this, whilst our people were laboring under the consequences of a tremendous crisis just past, and threatened with a more destructive one; whilst our finances and public treasury were in the most embarrassing difficulties.

It is, however, to be lamented that at the very moment when some enterprising and philanthropic men were trying their utmost exertions to give an impulse in this country to the culture and manufacture of silk, the

* Mr. Tinelli, the author of these remarks, is a native of Italy, where he was long engaged in this branch of industry. He is now an adopted citizen of the United States, and is devoting his time and experience to the same object.

evil spirit of monopoly and speculation, which is often in the way of all enterprises of public utility, came to throw new obstacles in the accomplishment of patriotic views. Men, who never had the slightest idea of producing silk, taking advantage of a momentary excitement which existed among the farmers and the promoters of the culture of silk, undertook to monopolize the commerce of mulberry trees. The extravagant and almost ridiculous speculations which took place in that article, became proverbial. That business ended where it ought to end—disappointments and failures were the consequences of a feverish thirst of sordid gain; and what is more to be lamented, the delusions and disappointments of some speculators in trees have spread discouragement and dissatisfaction among many persons who positively intended to make the culture of silk one of the principal branches of husbandry, and an object of agricultural pursuit.

But as the good sense of the public generally succeeds in deriving some good from evil, that very extravagant speculation in mulberry trees produced good effects respecting the culture of silk. Many persons, who had planted in large quantities the favorite *Morus Multicaulis*, having been disappointed in their expectations, and not finding a market for their trees, they thought to make them useful by applying their production to their proper real destination—the feeding of silk-worms. Cocoons to an immense amount have been produced this very season in many states, and especially in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut; and a great many more would have been produced if cocoons could find a ready market—if silk filatories were established at different parts of each state, where the farmers could readily sell their cocoons.

However, some of those experiments have not been crowned with satisfactory success. The art of rearing silk-worms and reeling silk, embracing many details and much information, perfection cannot be obtained but by repeated experiments and a continued practice. Every error is a step towards the truth. And the numerous specimens of cocoons and silk now exhibiting at your fair will carry conviction to every mind, that a gigantic progress has already been made in the seropedic art, and that the production of silk is not a chimera, but an ascertained fact in the United States.

The causes of those failures, and of the disappointments with which the patriotic attempts of many silk-growers have been attended, are to be found especially in the want of practical knowledge in regard to the choice of the quality of their silk-worms, their management, and the cure of their distempers. A capital point in the art of rearing silk-worms, is a good choice of the eggs and good management in their hatching. Some farmers have purchased the silk-worm's eggs at distant places; in advanced season they brought them home agglomerated in small boxes or bottles, where the privation of air, and a fermentating process, caused a complete destruction of the vital principle of the insects, or rendered imperfect and very precarious their hatching. Eggs, when taken from distant places, ought to be transported in a cold season, and before March, and kept at home in a cool and dry place, from which they must be taken and exposed gradually to a higher temperature, when the time for their hatching approaches. The bad construction of the rooms where the worms have been raised—the want of a constant ventilation—the use of wet or spoiled leaves of mulberry trees, and the fermentation produced by the agglomerated remnants of the food, have, in many instances, generated

distempers among the silk insects, and destroyed the fruits of long exertions and labor. It is to be hoped that experience and perseverance will guide our farmers to better results in their future experiments. But let us now examine the question whether the art of raising silk-worms and spinning silk, will indubitably be a source of advantage and profit to such persons as engage in the business. To those men who are always ready to display their opposition whenever a new object of enterprise is presented to their view, we must answer by asserting facts, the truth of which can be daily defined.

The average crop of foliage yielded by an acre of trees in hedge rows, will be at least fifteen thousand pounds for the first year, and twice as much for the ensuing years. The largest quantity of leaves consumed in the feeding of the worms hatched from one ounce of eggs, is one thousand five hundred pounds, and the smallest quantity of cocoons produced will be at least eighty pounds, that is to say, eight hundred pounds of cocoons at least will be produced by an acre of land. Calculating the cocoons to be sold at the lowest rate, that is to say, at thirty cents a pound, we shall have a product of two hundred and forty dollars per acre of land, taking the *minimum* as a standard in all my calculations. If the operation should be undertaken on a larger scale, then, of course, some deduction must be made for additional barns or buildings, and for hiring a larger number of hands during the six weeks of operation. I am aware that my estimate is far below what other patrons of the culture of silk have exhibited in their statements, which are certainly more brilliant and more seducing; but I must observe, that in this respect any exaggeration, any disappointment, would operate against our views rather than in our favor.

Another objection, and even with some shadow of truth, is made against the profitableness of reeling cocoons into silk. The want of practice in spinning cocoons among our countrywomen, and the high wages paid for every kind of work in this country, will certainly prevent the production of silk from becoming a profitable undertaking. We cannot compete, (thus say our opponents,) in this art, with countries where labor is at a very low rate, where the wages are 75 per cent below that of our working classes.

I beg leave to observe, that in the production of unmanufactured silk, the largest capital is constituted by the value of the raw material, and the expenses for labor are very trifling. As I have always insisted upon the necessity of establishing large filatories, and as I always thought that reeling silk would prove profitable, when undertaken on an extensive scale, I will suppose a filature of 50 reels, having 50 female spinners and 50 girls to turn the *hasps*. 50 women, according to the present price of labor, will cost, board and lodging included, 16 dollars a month, making \$800
Fifty girls, - - - - - 500

	\$1,300
Two men, - - - - -	40
Three women to pick cocoons, - - - - -	48
One superintendent, - - - - -	50
Wood or coal for 50 furnaces, at 8 cents per day for each furnace a month, - - - - -	112
Sundries, - - - - -	20
	\$1,570

The average of silk produced by 50 skilful women per day, will be at least 70 pounds, or 1960 pounds per month, which quantity, calculated at only \$5 a pound, will give a gross proceed of \$9,800
 Charges deducted, - - - - - 1,570

Nett proceeds, - - - - - \$8,230

I will suppose that a whole bushel of cocoons will produce a pound of silk, if the cocoons are of good quality, and I calculate the cocoons at the fair price of \$3 per bushel, for 1960 pounds of silk, or 1960 bushels of cocoons, at the rate of \$3 per bushel, 5,880

There will be a nett profit of \$2,350 every month on a filature of only 50 reels.

You must observe, also, that the great advantage peculiar to this country, highly favored by nature over Italy and France, of producing two and three crops of cocoons in one year, and the abundance of wood and coal, and the facility of building houses at a moderate expense, will at any time enable us to sustain advantageously competition with silk of foreign production, if the same protection were afforded to that branch of industry as is granted by our tariff to the manufacture of cloth, muslin, and other articles.

But it is almost in vain to attempt the introduction of a new species of industry, a new art or manufacture, without governmental aid. Our constitution happily imparts to our government the right as well as the duty to protect the arts and industry of its citizens, and expressly ordains that "congress shall have power to regulate commerce." The existence of that power implies an imperative duty to make use of it. Acting on this wise principle, our laws protect the author's copyright, protect the American tonnage, in behalf of the shipbuilder. A tax is imposed upon almost every imported article, even of the most common use and necessity. Standing insulated and alone, by a most strange anomaly, silk goods, the luxury of the wealthiest part of our population, are not comprised in our customhouse laws. Thus the activity, enterprise, and costly efforts of those of our agriculturists and manufacturers, whose activity, zeal, and industry are devoted to the culture of silk, in order thereby to form a new national staple, are sacrificed by the overpowering competition of foreign fabrics introduced free of duties.

May, therefore, our people, may our legislators, be duly impressed with the truth, that a duty imposed upon all foreign silks imported into the United States, effects a diminution of the importation of foreign silk; that such a diminution amounts to an increase of the production of our domestic silk, and that such an increase of our production will gradually free our country from every indebtedness to foreign nations, and complete the sacred work of our independence.

L. T.

ART. VII.—PROTECTION vs. FREE TRADE.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

SIR :—Having already been repeatedly favored by you with an opportunity to defend the great principle of Protection to Industry, in your work, I feel that it would be an unworthy return for your kindness to claim a dozen more pages wherein to answer my "Free Trade" opponent's last article, and continue the discussion. I will not so tax your liberality, nor the good-nature of your readers. Indeed, sir, I am very well content to leave the general argument where I have already placed it. If the enlightened public, on a calm comparison of what I have written with the counter essays of my opponent, decide against me, I submit. I have merely presented, as concisely as I may, the considerations which have induced a large majority of the most eminent statesmen the world has known, to give their best energies to the cause of protection. If such men as Pitt, Napoleon, Canning, Hamilton, Webster, Clay, H. Niles, &c., have groped through life in utter ignorance of the first principles of political economy, the blindness of so humble an individual as myself cannot excite astonishment. Without desiring to press the discussion further, I will now barely note one or two mistakes in my opponent's last article.

1. He commences with the broad assertion, that "governments are quite as likely to extend their 'fostering, protecting aid' to a branch of industry for which the country is *not at all adapted*, as to one for which it has a natural capacity." Now it would have been just as easy to assert that governments are as likely to hang saints as felons—to punish uprightness as forgery. And it would have been easy not only to assert this, but to adduce facts, after his fashion, in support of it. Have not multitudes of great villains lived honored and law-protected? And were not Christ, Socrates, and others of the wisest and best, condemned by law, and executed according to law? The inference is direct,—Away with all laws! they punish 'the innocent quite as often as the guilty!' But the man who can seriously assert that our government is '*as likely* to protect a branch of industry to which the country is not at all adapted' as any other, is certainly beyond the reach of my powers of argumentation.

Whether France is so idiotic as he supposes, in protecting the manufacture of beet-sugar, is of course a matter of opinion. It seems a pity her Say, Arago, Chaptal, Guizot, &c., could not listen to one hour's lecturing of my opponent, and thereby save their country six millions per annum on its sugar alone! But when it is considered how difficult to obtain, and how costly when obtained, was the sugar consumed in France in 1811, when such blockheads as Bonaparte and his counsellors undertook to protect and foster the home manufacture of that article, I must think their ignorance of political economy deserving of some compassion!

2. I shall try to answer all my opponent says against countervailing duties by a single question,—*Is he opposed to the Navigation Act?* Great Britain and other nations say to us, "We allow goods imported in our own vessels a deduction of five, ten, or twenty per cent from our regular duties. We do this from no ill will to you, but to encourage our own marine." Now, how shall we treat this? According to the doctrines of Protection or those of Free Trade? One thing is certain. Without countervailing the discrimination, our shipping must be driven from all share in the car-

rying trade with the discriminating nations; so, without a dissenting voice, we have countervailed. What would my opponent have us do in the premises? I have tried to learn already, but without success.

3. My opponent cannot escape my illustration of the truth, that *nominally low* may often be *actually high* prices, by his poor perversion about "cider and turkeys at Londonderry." My illustration was necessarily drawn on so small a scale that every one could see it, but the principle covered the whole ground. The same influences that raised the price of "cider and turkeys" at Londonderry, raised that also of flour at Rochester, and pork at Cincinnati. I do not believe there is a producing interest, or a county in the Union, what would not be directly vastly benefited by our manufacturing at home the cloths, hardware, &c., we now import from England.

4. I do not contend that a free trade between different nations is one "equally taxed," as my opponent gratuitously asserts, but one equally *un* taxed. Strictly, free trade implies the absence of all imposts; but I am an advocate of *fair* trade—a trade mutually advantageous and just to both parties—or none. My Oregon illustration was intended to show that a trade *really* free would not always benefit an infant settlement or a country just emerging from barbarism. I will not go over the ground—which seems to me unshaken by my opponent—but I ask a moment's attention to his manifest unfairness. My illustration supposed that the new Oregon settlement *could not sell* its bulky products in any way but by bringing them across to St. Louis—in other words, not at all. *Under such circumstances*, I maintained that it would be policy in that country to impose a protecting tariff, and manufacture for herself. And my opponent professes to answer this by saying, "barter your mountains of grain and beef which you cannot consume, for those articles which you pressingly need." In this strain he amplifies triumphantly. Is this discussion?

Of course I have said nothing in opposition to credit, either individual or international. I am in favor of the former, and not averse to the latter under circumstances which render it desirable. But running up a heavy balance, year after year, with a foreign nation, by buying of that nation articles which we could easier produce than pay for, and for which she will take scarcely any of our products in return, is utterly inconsistent with my ideas both of proper credit and of fair trade. My opponent cannot see how the manufacturers of a protected country can ruin those of an unprotected one, except by lowering the price of their mutual products. I think he must be the only reader of my illustration by the case of France and England who did not see this. The protected manufacturers have a steady, stable, reliable home market, securing them a certain and uniform business and profit. They throw their surplus and refuse stock into the market of their free trade neighbors, causing a sudden depression. They sell, for instance, all their surplus razors thus at cost and charges—say five dollars a dozen—and thereby glut the market. The rival free trade manufacturers now find their sales forestalled—they cannot sell at all. They are ruined and fail, and next year the protected fabricators have *both* markets to themselves, and can get six dollars a dozen for all they can produce. Free trade has produced fluctuation, temporary depression, and the ruin of its devotees; while the average cost of razors is left as high as, perhaps higher than, ever. In fact, my opponent, though "weary of answering positions which seem so manifestly erroneous," evi-

dently feels the force of this illustration, and urges that "the moderate duty required for the support of the government would prove a sufficient protection." I submit that this is giving up the free trade ground, which implies that *all* duties are an injury to the public interests and an obstacle to national prosperity—to be endured, if at all, only as a lesser evil than direct taxation.

Respectfully,

R. G.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.*

INTERESTING MERCANTILE LAW CASE.

United States Circuit Court.—In Equity—before Judges Thompson and Betts.—April term, 1841. The *United States vs. William Couch, survivor, &c. and another.*—The prayer of the bill demanded an account in respect to effects and moneys alleged to have belonged to the late firm of Castro and Henriquez, and that the right of the plaintiff thereto, in preference to others, might be decreed, and the amount applied on outstanding judgments and customhouse bonds in favor of the United States against Castro and Henriquez. The bill presented this state of facts; that Castro and Henriquez, prior to April, 1823, had been in partnership, carrying on the distilling business in this city; and in connection with that business, imported merchandise, and became indebted to the United States on customhouse bonds to a large amount. On the 20th April, 1823, the firm stopped payment, then being indebted to the United States on duty bonds for over \$74,000. Henriquez was at that time in Europe. The business of the concern was managed by Castro, who also had a full power of attorney from Henriquez. On the day of their failure, or the day following, Castro made an assignment of the property of the firm and that of himself, to Lewis A. Brunell, and immediately departed from New York, without the knowledge of his creditors. On the same day, proceedings were taken under the state act against Castro and Henriquez as absconding or absent debtors, by the defendant Couch, (and his then partner Stebbins,) and others of their creditors.

A few days thereafter, Castro returned to the city, and his assignment to Brunell being supposed imperfect or insufficient in law, he resumed and cancelled it, and executed another, prepared under the advice of counsel, in which he assigned all the partnership estate, and all his individual estate, to Brunell, for the payment of the debts of the partnership, giving preference to the debts due the United States.

That prior to the failure, the firm had consigned to Stebbins and Couch large quantities of distilled spirits for sale, some of which had been sold on credit, and some remained unsold on the day of their failure, but has been since sold and the proceeds realized, which are now held by the defendant Couch, (survivor of Stebbins and Couch.) That after the assignment, Brunell, the assignee, placed like property, belonging to Castro and Henriquez, in the hands of Stebbins and Couch, the avails of which defendant has received and yet retains; and also, that Brunell carried on the distillery of Castro and Henriquez, with their stock assigned him, and consigned the liquors to Stebbins and Couch for sale, and that the proceeds of such sale are retained by the defendant.

The bill also avers that judgments have been recovered by the United States

* Reported expressly for the Merchants' Magazine.

on the customhouse bonds, and executions thereon have been returned unsatisfied, to the amount of \$24,000, which Brunell is unable to satisfy; and it charges that the United States are entitled to have such proceeds (realized by Stebbins and Couch) applied to the satisfaction of the balance.

The bill was filed, April, 1832—Couch filed his answer, January, 1833. The cause was brought to hearing, Dec., 1840.

The cause was argued by Messrs. Butler and Paine for the United States, and by Mr. D. Lord, jr. for the defendant.

The court remarked, that there might be a serious difficulty in the present posture of the case, in giving the plaintiff the relief sought, if the merits were beyond all question on that side. The action rests upon the authority of the United States vs. Howland, (4 Wheat. 108,) and in its institution conformed to that precedent; but has since varied from it by discharging the assignee from the suit.

That the original debtors, (Castro and Henriquez,) or their assignee, seemed to be indispensable parties to a bill of this description, not only for the purpose of discharging the debtor from his liabilities to those from whom he received the funds, and to authorize the institution of a new *cestui que trust* in their place; but also, because an accounting is called for, and the equity of the United States can only intercept what is due the party directly responsible to them, on a just amount taken between such party and his debtor. The assignee ought therefore to have been retained a party to the taking of such account, to enable the court to decree definitively upon the rights of all interested in the subject matter.

This formal difficulty might be obviated, if the case as now disclosed established any right in the United States upon the merits,—unless the staleness of the claim and the extraordinary delays in prosecuting it should be regarded as outweighing any equity on the part of the United States, to amend the proceedings.

The unvaried construction of the 65th section of the act of March 2, 1799, settles this point, that the priority therein given the United States, to be paid out of the estate of an insolvent debtor, takes effect only when the insolvency is established by an assignment of all his property, either by his own act, or by act of law, and when such assignment is carried into execution by the assignee. (4 Wheat. 108. 1 Peters' R. 386. 10 Peters' R. 597. 12 Peters' R. 102. 3 Cranch, 73. 8 Cranch, 431. 1 Paine's R. 183. ib. 629.) The evidence on the part of the plaintiff is very faint upon this head, and it is in no respect aided by the answer. There is ground for implication that Brunell took control of the partnership effects *as assignee*, yet the evidence equally comports with his having acted merely as factor or agent, and it is not a little remarkable, that no trace of the assignment among his papers, or proof of his claim under it, could be produced, if that was the only foundation of his powers in respect to the estate and interests of Castro and Henriquez.

But independent of all question upon the effect of this evidence, the assignment fails to establish the insolvency of the partners, because the individual property of Henriquez was not included in it.

As the insolvency of one partner, or the insufficiency of their joint means to pay the partnership debts, does not necessarily prove the insolvency of the other partner, it is clear that the assignment made by Castro does not secure an entire preference or priority to the United States. The rights of the creditors of Henriquez, at least, are not displaced by it. (8 Peters' R. 271.) This is independent of the doubt that might be raised as to the sufficiency of Castro's assignment of even partnership effects, to supply proof of the insolvency of the firm. (4 Wash. C. R. 235.)

The court further observed, that as it appeared from the answer and proofs, the attachment sued out of the state court was carried no further than the arrest of partnership property, and was discontinued within a few days without the appointment of trustees, or any order of assignment. This initiatory arrest of property, and holding it in custody of the law to abide the decision of the proper forum, whether it shall pass to assignees, is not the proof of insol-

veny contemplated by the act of congress. For although it is declared that cases of insolvency mentioned therein, shall be deemed to extend to cases in which the estate and effects of an absconding, concealed, or absent debtor shall have been attached by process of law, (act March 2, 1799, sec. 65,) yet manifestly the term *attached* must be understood as having relation to the ultimate disposition of the property, and not its simple seizure; because that is often divested immediately for the want of due grounds for the procedure; but more especially, because the priority of the United States arises and is enforced, not that the property of their debtor has been taken from his possession, but for the reason that it is invested in some other party (assignee or executor) who has power to distribute and dispose of it. (12 Peters' R. 136, 137. 1 Peters' R. 386.)

The sheriff becomes no such party by serving a process of attachment. He could not be made amenable to the United States, either by means of his possession of the property, or because he had surrendered it to the owner, or transferred it to the assignees.

When the property is placed, by means of the attachment, in a situation to be distributed, the priority of the United States comes into existence, and then only, for the act renders the assignee paying any debt previous to those due to the United States answerable in his own person and estate for such debts, (sec. 65,) and this liability necessarily imports that the party charged with it, had full dominion over the estate and effects of the insolvent, because he is regarded as having committed a *devastavit*, or misapplied funds by paying them out in disregard of legal priorities, and not as a debtor to the United States, or subject to their action merely by having the estate in his possession.

The court accordingly ruled, that neither the assignment made by Castro, nor the attachment levied on the property of the firm, proved the insolvency of Castro and Henriquez so as to enable the United States to sustain this action.

It was therefore ordered that the bill be dismissed.

FRAUDULENT ENTRY OF GOODS.

United States Circuit Court.—In Equity—before Judges Thompson and Betts. April term, 1841. The United States vs. Samuel R. Wood and George R. Ives.

On the 23d October, 1839, the United States recovered judgment against the defendant Wood for \$12,469 14. The foundation of the judgment was, that Wood had fraudulently entered goods at the customhouse at this port at prices below their actual cost abroad, and had thus evaded the payment of the duties due on their importation. John Wood, from whom the goods were purchased in England by the defendant, became bankrupt, and his assignees employed the other defendant, Ives, to collect or secure the debt owing by Samuel R. Wood to John Wood, and arising chiefly out of sales of the goods so imported.

On the 30th of May, 1838, Ives obtained of Samuel R. Wood an assignment of a large amount of property to cover that debt.

On the next day Ives executed to S. R. Wood a certificate or stipulation, to the effect that "the following securities are to be applied to the amount due by said S. R. Wood to John Wood in the first place, and to his other creditors and the expenses attending the collection and securing the same, and the balance I agree to reconvey and redeliver to him," and then followed a description of the property and securities assigned.

On the 28th of April, 1840, the United States filed a bill in equity against the defendants upon these facts, and claimed priority of payment out of the property so assigned. The answer denied that the assignment was of the entire estate of Wood, or that it was made because of his insolvency, and averred, that it was a partial assignment intended to secure a specific debt only. By arrangement between the parties, Ives was examined as a witness on the part of the United States, and detailed the circumstances leading to and attending the assignment; but stated that the assignment at the time was not understood to embrace all of Samuel R. Wood's property; his household furniture, represented to be worth several thousand dollars, was not included, &c.

The cause was argued for the United States by Mr. Hoffman, Dist. Attorney, and Mr. Butler, and for the defendants by Mr. Foote.

The Court observed, That if the debt due the United States is entitled to the preference secured by the impost act of 1799, sec. 65, to *bonds* given for the payment of duties, yet such priority was conferred only in case of insolvency proved by the assignment of all the debtor's property. The language of the act plainly looks to this condition, and no adjudication of the U. States courts or state courts has given it a greater extent. (3 Cranch, 73. 1 Peters' R. 386. 1 Paige R. 139. 1 Paine, 629.) The United States must establish by clear proofs their right to come in as creditors of the first degree. When the assignment purports to convey *all* the debtor's estate, that may be sufficient evidence *per se*, but this assignment not being of that character, the plaintiff must supply the proof *aliunde*. If the receipt or stipulation of Ives to Wood may import that the whole of Wood's estate was conveyed, still it is susceptible of explanation by parol proof, and the testimony of Ives shows that it was designed as an acknowledgment only of the amount of property transferred, and the conditions upon which it was received. This testimony, corroborative of the answer, is full to the fact that the assignment was of parcels of Wood's estate only, and for the specific object of securing the debt which Ives represented. The United States accordingly lay no foundation for their claim of priority, if such right may be considered to exist even where no bond has been taken or credit given.

But the evidence, as it now stands, exhibits Ives as a general trustee of Wood's creditors for the surplus in his hands. The plaintiff, as such creditor, would be entitled to enforce the trust in this form of action. (4 Wheat R. 108, and note 118.) The bill can, therefore, be retained for that object, and the suit be prosecuted to the appropriate decree. (Order accordingly.)

TARIFF DUTIES.

Circuit Court of the United States.—April term, 1841.—Before Judge Thompson. United States *vs.* Two cases woollens. Lindsey, claimant.

By the Court:—This was a writ of error to the District Court, upon a judgment acquitting the goods. The information charged the goods with having been invoiced at less than their actual cost at the place of exportation. On the trial, evidence was given of their actual purchase at the invoice price; but this was contested by evidence on the part of the United States. The claimant then showed the current market value at the time and place of exportation. The United States Attorney insisted that if the jury were not satisfied of the actual purchase on the terms set up by the claimant, they should find against the claimant, and could not look at the actual general market value. The judge, however, charged that they might look to the actual market value. And this is the error complained of.

The actual cost was no doubt in issue. There was no question as to the admissibility of evidence of the actual market value. The question was as to the mode in which the jury should consider it; and upon this, the decision of the district judge was correct. The evidence was relevant to the issue: unless the actual seller can always be produced, it may be impossible to give proof of actual cost: it may be impossible to produce the witnesses actually present at the sale. The market price is the surest test of the fairness and honesty of the transaction, and of the question whether the price in the invoice was probably the price really paid. It would be a very harsh rule to lay down, that no other evidence would suffice but that of actual purchase. Judgment affirmed.

MARINE INSURANCE.

Superior Court, (New York,) before the full bench.—May 29, 1841.—Heath *vs.* American Insurance Company.

Chief Justice:—This was an action on a policy dated July, 1837, on the schooner Milly Francis, effected in the name of S. Kissam, on behalf of the plaintiff, as trustee. On the 7th July, 1837, Houghton & Booth, of Edenton,

had assigned the vessel to the plaintiff as a trustee for their creditors. The vessel was lost in August of the same year.

The defence was, that there was a prior insurance, and thereby, under the clause as to avoiding the policy in case of prior insurances, the defendants were exonerated from this policy. It appeared that Haughton, Boardman, & Noble, of N. York, the correspondents in business of Haughton & Booth of Edenton, had, on their order, effected a time policy in December, 1836, for a year, on the same vessel, loss payable to the New York house, which was unexpired at the effecting of the policy in suit. The house Haughton, Boardman, & Noble, were creditors to a large amount, accruing in the course of business of Haughton & Booth. The house of Haughton, Boardman, & Noble, assigned their claim on Haughton & Booth to Kelso, for the benefit of their creditors: and Noble, one of the firm, sent the policy of December to Kelso, with other papers. In the assignment by Haughton & Booth to the plaintiff, the vessel was transferred, and the policy held by the New York house was also comprised in the terms of the assignment. The plaintiff fearing that his right to recover out of the policy first made might be contested, wrote to Kissam, who effected the policy, to state the matter to the insurers, and to apprise them that the former policy would not be enforced against them by him or the Edenton house. The defendants after this effected the policy now in suit.

The plaintiff under the circumstances had the right to make this insurance, either independently on his own interest as assignee for the creditors he represented, or as superseding the prior policy. The owners of the vessel had a right to convey that to whom they pleased, and this would defeat the prior policy; for the one claiming a loss under a policy, must show himself owner at the time of loss. How could their agents defeat this right, or the right to make a subsequent insurance on the property transferred? The transfer was made while the vessel was yet in safety; the only right of the New York house was by way of lien on the policy. Before any loss, all claims under the policy were merely inchoate, and the rights of the agents could not prevent the transfer of the vessel. The plaintiff here has certainly an insurable interest, and if either of the policies is to fail, it must be in this case the first policy.

But in another view of the case: Here both the policies were by the same insurance company: the insurers in the second policy had full notice of the first.

It was at all events intended that the second policy should be effective, unless the plaintiff could have the benefit of the first. That is retained and delivered over to a party in adverse interest, although in form assigned to the plaintiff. The plaintiff then clearly had a right to give the notice that he intended to claim under the second policy, and to proceed on it: if he was entitled to the first policy, still this election would protect the defendants, on paying the second. Whether or not the first policy could also be recovered on for the benefit of the New York house, is not a question necessarily involved in this decision. There was certainly an insurable interest in the plaintiff—there was a lien in favor of the New York house on the first policy, which might or might not take effect: in case it did, then the question would present itself, whether, although both policies covered the same vessel for the same voyage, and were founded on the same original ownership, there was not yet distinct and separate derivative interests, each insurable.

It is also a question arising, but not necessary to be here decided, how far this clause as to prior insurances is to apply where both the insurances are in the same office, and the insurers apprized of the whole circumstances.

Judgment for the plaintiffs.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*A Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening, adapted to North America; with a view to the improvement of country residences; comprising Historical Notices, and general principles of the art—Directions for laying out grounds and arranging plantations—Description and cultivation of hardy trees—Decorative accompaniments to the house and grounds—The formation of pieces of artificial water, flower gardens, &c.—With remarks on Rural Architecture.* Illustrated by Engravings. By A. J. DOWNING. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.—Boston: C. C. Little & Co. 8vo. pp. 451. 1841.

For some years past a lively interest has been manifested in this country in rural improvements, and the evidences of our growing wealth and prosperity have become apparent by the increased number of cottages and villas in the vicinity of our larger towns, and along the banks or shores of our noble rivers and other waters,—throughout our rich valleys, and wherever nature seems to invite us by her pleasing and varied charms. Yet, in general, a want of professional skill in rural architecture, or landscape gardening, has been equally manifest wherever we turn our eyes; which has either been caused by a deficiency of a proper knowledge of the subject, or from a desire to imitate foreign works, which are not at all adapted to our soil and climate, or our social and political condition.

It is with these views that the author of the present volume has endeavored to supply the desideratum which has been so long needed; and, as far as we are able to judge, he has been successful in his undertaking. It appears to have been his object to trace out such principles, and to suggest such practical methods of embellishing our rural residences, on a scale commensurate to the views and means of our proprietors, as are best adapted to this country and the peculiar wants of its population.

The performance of the work reflects the highest credit on the enterprising and intelligent author, as well as on the skill of those by whom the work was executed.

- 2.—*A Treatise on the Law of Sales of Personal Property.* By FRANCIS HILLIARD, author of "An Abridgment of the American Law of Real Property." New York: Halstead & Voorhies. 1841. 8vo. pp. 365.

As a sound legal writer, Mr. Hilliard is already well known to his brethren of the American bar, and the work before us cannot fail to add considerably to the reputation he had previously acquired, of being an able and well-read lawyer. The general principles of law, by which sales of personal property are regulated and controlled, our author has systematized and elucidated with much clearness and precision; while the minutest requisites necessary to constitute a legal sale, or which invalidate it, are well explained and clearly illustrated. A treatise of this kind, we are informed, has been long wanted by the legal profession; for although the law relating to sales of real property has been elaborately treated of, and fully considered and laid down by numerous jurists of great ability and vast legal learning, yet the works which have appeared on the law of sales of personal chattels, have been meager and unsatisfactory. The one before us is, we think, of a different character; nor need its usefulness be confined to the lawyer alone. To the merchant it would be almost invaluable; for although we are far from advising him to attempt such an acquisition of the law, as would fit him to understand and pass through its innumerable mazes and complications, yet a knowledge of so much of its principles as would enable him thoroughly to understand his rights, in relation to the sale and transfer of goods—transactions which with him are continually occurring—would enable him to avoid and extricate himself from many of the difficulties and misfortunes into which men engaged in trade so frequently fall.

- 3.—*Life of Petrarch*. By THOMAS CAMPBELL, Esq., author of "The Pleasures of Hope," &c. Complete in one volume; 8vo. pp. 444. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

The author, it appears, in writing the life of this great Italian poet, employed, as a text-book, the celebrated work of the Abbe de Sade, who showed an admirable sagacity in discovering, we may almost say, the chronology of Petrarch's life—his ecclesiastical preferences, his descendants, his relations and friends, his political and literary life. De Sade's work is, in fact, a deep and large reservoir of information respecting the manners and customs of Petrarch's age; and he has given, as it were, a new life to Laura, by bringing forward documents relating to that interesting woman, from the archives of his own family, which he shows to coincide with passages in his writings. Petrarch, as is not generally known beyond his poetry, was a great man. His zeal, his knowledge in recovering the wrecked treasures of the classics, and his Herculean labors in transcribing them, were heroic. He was the first who substituted any thing like an approach to a classical style in Latin, instead of the barbarous jargon which had prevailed throughout Italy for centuries. The fastidious scholars of latter times have condemned his imperfect endeavors at purity; yet it is confessed by competent modern scholars, that passages of pure Latin eloquence are frequent in his writings. Nor was he a mere looker-back upon antiquity: passages might be quoted from his works that show a liberality of spirit far in advance of his age. He derided astrology at a period when skepticism on that subject was deemed as bad as atheism. He studied geography assiduously, and promoted the knowledge of it, as may be seen in the course of his biography.

The volume is beautifully printed and neatly bound.

- 4.—*The French Revolution*. By THOMAS CARLYLE. Second American (from the second London) edition. 3 vols. in 2. New York: William Kerr & Co. 1841.

The style of this book is perfectly monstrous: such a "bituminous alarum-fire," "smoke-atmosphere," "fire-mahlstrom," "theatrical thunder-barrel" style—to use his own phrases—was never before written. Original as it is, we trust it may find few imitations; it is as painful a study (and you cannot read it at leisure) as to watch the chain-lightning. But we cannot help admiring the profound knowledge and wonderful instinct—the ever-abounding mirthfulness and rich thought—the racy originality and dramatic descriptions characterizing this work, and never surpassed by any writer of history. Carlyle gives us a picture-gallery complete, needing no "illustrations" more than these "word paintings." He brings before the reader the actors themselves; we mingle in the mob at the taking of the Bastille—in the rabble rout journeying to Versailles—in the sanguinary crowd, crying for the head of that weak and ill-fated king. The tale seems of yesterday; the historian a breathless narrator just escaped from the thickest of the fight, supposing in his hearers a minute familiarity with the principal actors in the fearful tragedy—portraying with but a stroke or two, yet like those famous etchings in the "Song of the Bell," in a way that must be felt, and cannot be forgotten.

- 5.—*A Treatise on the Elements of Algebra*. By the Rev. B. BRIDGE, B. D. F. R. S. Fellow of St. Peter's College, Cambridge; and late Prof. of Math. in the East India College, Herts. 2d American, revised and corrected from the 7th London Edition. Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwait & Co. 12mo. pp. 224. 1841.

In this work the hitherto abstract and difficult science of Algebra is simplified and illustrated, so as to be attainable by those who have not the aid of a teacher. The author is clear in his explanations, and systematic in his arrangement, and has succeeded in rendering a comparatively abstruse branch of science an agreeable and interesting exercise, both to the pupil and the teacher.

- 6.—*Collections of the New York Historical Society.* Second Series. vol. I. New York: Printed for the Society. 1841. 8vo. pp. 486.

This volume is principally occupied with the annals of the Dutch colonies, "by whom the arts of civilization were originally planted on the banks of the Hudson." The commonwealth which has sprung up within the limits of their ancient jurisdiction, now embraces within its boundaries nearly one sixth of the whole population of the United States, and rivals in extent and population some of the monarchies of the old world. Beginning with the first glimpses of a discovery of our seacoast, Mr. Folsom, of the publishing committee, has brought together the earliest notices of Hudson's memorable voyage, that disclosed the existence of the noble river that bears the navigator's name. The materials of history here presented, exhibit the primitive settlements on Manhattan Island and near Albany—the gradual spread of population into the interior—the perils and hardships, and the difficulties and embarrassments with which the early colonists had to contend. The labor of preparing the present work devolved entirely upon Mr. Folsom, the librarian, and he has, in our judgment, performed his task in a very satisfactory manner. The labor necessarily bestowed upon a careful revision of the various translations, and in collating them with the original works, cost the compiler more time and attention than will be apparent to the reader. The collections of historical societies have heretofore been printed and done up in a very cheap and slovenly style. We are pleased to note an evident improvement in this particular. The volume before us is, on the whole, a very creditable specimen of the typographic art.

- 7.—*The Life of Thomas Paine, author of "Common Sense," "Rights of Man," "Age of Reason," &c. &c., with critical and explanatory observations on his writings, and an Appendix containing his letters to Washington, suppressed in his works at present published in this country.* By G. VALE, Editor of the Beacon. New York: published by the author. pp. 221. 1841.

It has been said that a biographer should be a sincere admirer of the man whose character, conduct, and principles he attempts to delineate. As far as this goes to make up the qualifications of Mr. Paine's biographer, there can be no doubt that Mr. Vail was abundantly qualified to do him justice; for he has lost no opportunity to eulogize his politics, his morals, his religion, and even his gross and abusive attack on Washington. The work is, of course, anti-Christian throughout; and the author speaks of the followers of the cross as "the pious but duped disciples of Jesus." As a literary production it has an average merit, and will, on the whole, do but little towards rescuing the name of Paine from that infamy to which the almost unanimous judgment of mankind has consigned it. The book is not, however, devoid of interest, and contains a very full and yet condensed account of the narrative of Mr. Paine's life.

- 8.—*Chronicles of the Pilgrims.* By ALEXANDER YOUNG. Little & Brown. 1841. pp. 500.

Mr. Young has done a great service, and made a contribution of permanent value to our historical literature. He has discovered and sent forth honorably the original narratives of the settlement at Plymouth—its motives, struggles, perils, and triumphs. Governor Bradford's lost history, and portions of other documents thought to have perished a century ago, are now in our hands. We have to-day the living witnesses of our forefathers' faith in Providence, invincible resolve, heroic endurance, sublime courage, and apostolic virtue. The first twenty-five years of our history stands before us in the monument erected by their own hands, but now freshened and rescued from supposed ruin and future peril by a true son. We are rejoiced to see how triumphant is their self-vindication—that there is not a word of theirs we could wish unsaid, not an act we could wish forgotten, not a line we could desire blotted out—that theirs is that "memory of the just which is blessed." F. W. H.

- 9.—*Selections from M. Bouilly's Encouragement for Youth, with an English Translation facing each page. Prepared and designed for learners of the French Language.* By J. A. FRONTIN, A. M., Prof. of the French Language and Literature. New York: J. A. Frontin. 16mo. pp. 140. 1841.

M. Bouilly was the contemporary and friend of the persons described in these sketches, and is universally acknowledged to have portrayed their characters with truth and fidelity. The touching simplicity of the sentiments embodied in this little volume, will convey through an enticing medium a salutary moral influence.

The object of the translator in preparing a work with the French and English in juxtaposition, has been not only to excite in the American youth a taste for literature in general, but also to assist them in acquiring, in the most agreeable manner, a knowledge and perfection of the French language. The work evidently deserves general encouragement, and no doubt will find it.

- 10.—*Lectures on Spiritual Christianity.* By ISAAC TAYLOR, author of "Natural History of Enthusiasm," &c. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841. 12mo.

This is the last effort of a somewhat original and very liberal thinker of the English Church. It is written more naturally, though less forcibly, than any other of his books. Mr. Taylor in these lectures attempts to define a spiritual Christianity, as to its externals, its peculiar truths, its morals, and its influences; sometimes with great success, but as a whole, much to our disappointment. The moral internal argument for the truth of the New Testament writers, in the first lecture, is excellent. But the lecturer continually halts upon the threshold of a good conclusion, and sometimes indulges the most savage severity to heretics and opponents. We like not his mind—nor his cold, unimaginative mode of thought—nor the tendency of his writings: but there are yet things in them which every scholar ought to study, and every Christian lay to heart.

11. *Tales of the Kings of England; Stories of Camps and Battle-fields, Wars and Victories, from the old historians: with numerous engravings on wood, by Butler.* New York: Wiley and Putnam. 16mo. pp. 234. 1841.

These tales, written for the amusement and instruction of children, are evidently designed to create a relish for the study of history. The dislike, so frequently evinced by the young for this naturally pleasant and profitable branch of literature, may, we think, be attributed to the very general practice of giving them abridgments, mere outlines of history, in which there is nothing to arrest the attention of a child. Young minds require something more amusing, more interesting, than a bare detail of occurrences, or the dates of the years in which kings reigned or died. They want something more strong, and the compiler of this neat little volume has, we think, selected such incidents from the history of England, as are calculated to convey instruction to his young readers, and at the same time afford them as much interest and delight as the fairy stories of their infancy. It is a reprint of an English edition, and Butler's copies of the cuts that "adorn" the book are very good imitations of the English.

12. *Sermons to Children.* By F. W. P. GREENWOOD, D. D., minister of King's Chapel, Boston. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 12mo. pp. 128. 1841.

The well-known intellectual character of the author of these Sermons, is a sufficient voucher for their merit. The points of conduct advocated, are set forth in a familiar and affectionate style, and should be fondly cherished by the large class of children to which they are addressed.

- 13.—*Early Friendships.* By MRS. COPLEY. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 12mo. pp. 174. 1841.

This little volume forms another of the admirable series of "Tales for the People and their Children." It will bear a favorable comparison with the excellent narratives of Mary Howitt, which have preceded it in the same series.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE KING OF HANOVER.

The following treaty of commerce and navigation, between the United States of America and his majesty the King of Hanover, was concluded and signed by their plenipotentiaries at Berlin, on the 20th day of May, 1840; which treaty, being in the English and French language, is as follows:—

The United States of America and his majesty the King of Hanover, equally animated by the desire of extending, as far as possible, the commercial relations between and the exchange of the productions of their respective states, have agreed, with this view, to conclude a treaty of commerce and navigation.

For this purpose, the President of the United States of America has furnished with full powers, Henry Wheaton, their envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary near his majesty the King of Prussia; and his majesty the King of Hanover has furnished with the like full powers, Le Sieur Auguste de Berger, his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary near his majesty the King of Prussia, lieutenant-general, knight grand-cross of the order of Guelph, the red eagle of Prussia, the order of merit of Oldenburg, &c.; who, after exchanging their said full powers, found in good and due form, have concluded and signed, subject to ratification, the following articles:—

ART. 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, with or without their ships and cargoes, the ports, places, waters, and rivers of the territories of each party, wherever foreign commerce is permitted.

They shall be permitted to sojourn and reside in all parts whatsoever of said territories, in order to attend to their affairs, and also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses, for the purposes of their commerce; provided they submit to the laws, as well general as special, relative to the right of residing and trading.

While they conform to the laws and regulations in force, they shall be at liberty to manage themselves their own business in all the territories subject to the jurisdiction of each party, in respect to the consignment and sale of their goods, by wholesale or retail, as with respect to the loading, unloading, and sending off their ships, or to employ such agents and brokers as they may deem proper, they being, in all these cases, to be treated as the citizens or subjects of the country in which they reside, it being nevertheless understood that they shall remain subject to the said laws and regulations also in respect to sales by wholesale or retail.

They shall have free access to the tribunals of justice in their litigious affairs, on the same terms which are granted by the law and usage of the country to native citizens or subjects, for which purpose they may employ in defence of their rights such advocates, attorneys, and agents as they may judge proper.

ART. II.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed in any of the ports of the United States on Hanoverian vessels than those payable in the same ports by vessels of the United States; nor in the ports of the kingdom of Hanover on the vessels of the United States than shall be payable in the same ports on Hanoverian vessels.

The privileges secured by the present article to the vessels of the respective high contracting parties shall only extend to such as are built within their respective territories, or lawfully condemned as prize of war, or adjudged to be forfeited for a breach of the municipal laws of either of the parties, and belonging wholly to their citizens or subjects

respectively, and of which the master, officers, and two thirds of the crew shall consist of the citizens or subjects of the country to which the vessel belongs.

The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the ports of the United States of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Hanover, or of any other country belonging to the Germanic confederation and the kingdom of Prussia, from whatsoever ports of the country the said vessels may depart, whether such importation shall be in vessels of the United States or in Hanoverian vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the ports of the kingdom of Hanover, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, and of every other country of the continent of America and the West India islands, from whatsoever ports of the said countries the vessels may depart, whether such importation shall be in Hanoverian vessels or the vessels of the United States.

The same duties shall be paid and the same bounties allowed on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Hanover, or of any other country belonging to the Germanic confederation and the kingdom of Prussia, to the United States, whether such exportation shall be in vessels of the United States, or in Hanoverian vessels, departing from the ports of Hanover, and the same duties shall be paid and the same bounties allowed on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States and of every other country on the continent of America and the West India islands, to the kingdom of Hanover, whether such exportation shall be in Hanoverian vessels or in vessels of the United States, departing from the ports of the United States.

ART. III.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Hanover, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the kingdom of Hanover of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country.

No higher or other duties and charges shall be imposed in the United States on the exportation of any articles to the kingdom of Hanover, or in Hanover on the exportation of any articles to the United States, than such as are or shall be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country.

No prohibition shall be imposed on the exportation or importation of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, or the kingdom of Hanover, to or from the ports of said kingdom or of the said United States, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

ART. IV.—The preceding articles are not applicable to the coasting trade and navigation of the high contracting parties, which are respectively reserved by each exclusively to its own citizens or subjects.

ART. V.—No priority or preference shall be given 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 or in reference to the national character of the vessel, whether it be of the one party or the other, in which such article was imported.

ART. VI.—The contracting parties grant to each other the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice consuls, agents, and commissaries, of their own appointment, who shall enjoy the same privileges and powers as those of the most favored nations; but if any of the said consuls shall carry on trade, they shall be subjected to the same laws and usages to which private individuals of their nation are subjected in the same place.

The consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents, shall have the right, as such, to sit

as judges and arbitrators in such differences as may arise between the masters and crews of the vessels belonging to the nation whose interests are committed to their charge, without the interference of the local authorities; unless the conduct of the crews or of the captain should disturb the order or tranquillity of the country; or the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents, should require their assistance to cause their decisions to be carried into effect or supported.

It is, however, understood that this species of judgment or arbitration shall not deprive the contending parties of the right they have to resort, on their return, to the judicial authority of their own country.

The said consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents are authorized to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest, and imprisonment of the deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country.

For this purpose, they shall apply to the competent tribunals, judges and officers, and shall, in writing, demand said deserters, proving by the exhibition of the registers of the vessels, the muster-rolls of the crews, or by any other official documents, that such individuals formed part of the crews; and on this claim being thus substantiated, the surrender shall not be refused.

Such deserters, when arrested, shall be placed at the disposal of the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents, and may be confined in the public prisons, at the request and cost of those who shall claim them, in order to be sent to the vessels to which they belong, or to others of the same country. But if not sent back within three months of the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall not be again arrested for the same cause. However, if the deserter shall be found to have committed any crime or offence, his surrender may be delayed until the decision of the tribunal, before which his case shall be pending, shall have been carried into effect.

ART. VII.—The citizens or subjects of each party shall have power to dispose of their personal property within the jurisdiction of the other, by sale, donation, testament, or otherwise.

Their personal representatives, being citizens or subjects of the other contracting party, shall succeed to their said personal property, whether by testament or *ab intestato*.

They may take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, at their will, and dispose of the same, paying such duties only as the inhabitants of the country wherein the said personal property is situate, shall be subject to pay in like cases.

In case of the absence of the personal representatives, the same care shall be taken of the property of a native in like case, until the lawful owner may take measures for receiving it.

If any question shall arise among several claimants, to which of them the said property belongs, the same shall be finally decided by the laws and judges of the country wherein it is situate.

Where, on the decease of any person holding real estate within the territories of one party, such real estate as would, by the laws of the land, descend on a citizen or subject of the other, were he not disqualified by alienage, such citizen or subject shall be allowed a reasonable time to sell the same, and to withdraw the proceeds, without molestation, and exempt from all duties of detraction on the part of the government of the respective states.

The capitals and effects which the citizens or subjects of the respective parties, in changing their residence, shall be desirous of removing from the place of their domicile, shall likewise be exempt from all duties of detraction or emigration on the part of the respective governments.

ART. VIII.—The ancient and barbarous right to wrecks of the sea shall be entirely abolished with respect to the property belonging to the citizens or subjects of the contracting parties.

When any vessel, of either party, shall be wrecked, stranded, or otherwise damaged, on the coasts or within the dominions of the other, their respective citizens or subjects shall receive, as well for themselves as for their vessels and effects, the same assistance which would be due to the inhabitants of the country where the accident happens.

They shall be liable to pay the same charges and dues of salvage as the said inhabitants would be liable to pay in a like case.

If the operations of repair shall require that the whole or any part of the cargo be unloaded, they shall pay no duties of custom, charges, or fees, on the part which they shall reload and carry away, except as are payable in like cases by national vessels.

It is nevertheless understood, that if, while the vessel is under repair, the cargo shall be unladen, and kept in a place of deposit destined to receive goods the duties on which have not been paid, the cargo shall be liable to the charges and fees lawfully due to the keepers of such warehouses.

ART. IX.—The present treaty shall be in force for the term of twelve years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of twelve months after the government of the United States on the one part, or that of Hanover on the other, shall have given notice of its intention of terminating the same.

ART. X.—The present treaty shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the senate; and by his majesty the King of Hanover; and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at the city of Berlin, within the space of ten months from this date, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the above articles, as well in French as in English, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms, declaring at the same time the signature in the two languages shall not hereafter be cited as a precedent, nor in any manner prejudice the contracting parties.

Done in quadruplicate, at the city of Berlin, on the twentieth day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty, and the sixty-fourth of the independence of the United States of America.

HENRY WHEATON, [L. s.]

AUGUSTUS DE BERGER, [L. s.]

This treaty has been duly ratified, and the respective ratifications of the same were exchanged at the city of Berlin, on the fourteenth of November, 1840, by the ministers plenipotentiary of the two governments; and is made public by the President of the United States, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith, by the United States and the citizens thereof.

CHANGE IN THE CURRENCY OF JAMAICA.

The chamber of commerce at Kingston, Jamaica, published on the 1st of January, 1841, under the signature of their president, Hector Mitchell, Esq., the following notice of a change in the currency of that colony:—

“By an act of the legislature of this island, 3d Vic., cap. 39, which has received the royal assent of her majesty in council, and comes into operation this day, the currency of the country has been altered, and henceforth the sterling money of Great Britain will be used; and all accounts, quotations of prices current, &c., will be made in sterling money. All contracts, sales, and other monetary transactions now subsisting, are to be regarded and settled for in the rates of £100 sterling for every £166 13s. 4d. currency. The doubloon is declared a legal tender at £3 4s. sterling; the silver dollar at 4s. 2d.; and the several subdivisions of those coins at the same rate; and the gold and silver coins of Great Britain and Ireland shall be a legal tender to any amount, at the rate they pass current at in Great Britain and Ireland.”

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PORT REGULATIONS.

RATES OF PILOTAGE FOR THE HARBOR OF BOSTON.

In conformity to law, the following rules and regulations relative to pilotage for the harbor of Boston, approved by the trustees of the Boston Marine Society, are published for the information of the public :—

That the following be the rate of fees of pilotage to be charged on all vessels outward bound :—

<i>From November 1st to May 1st.</i>		<i>From May 1st to November 1st.</i>	
7 feet,.....	at 90 cents per foot.	7 feet,.....	at 75 cents per foot.
8 ".....	90 " "	8 ".....	75 " "
9 ".....	90 " "	9 ".....	75 " "
10 ".....	95 " "	10 ".....	80 " "
11 ".....	\$1 00 " "	11 ".....	85 " "
12 ".....	1 05 " "	12 ".....	90 " "
13 ".....	1 10 " "	13 ".....	95 " "
14 ".....	1 10 " "	14 ".....	95 " "
15 ".....	1 10 " "	15 ".....	95 " "
16 ".....	1 10 " "	16 ".....	95 " "
17 ".....	1 10 " "	17 ".....	\$1 00 " "
18 ".....	1 20 " "	18 ".....	1 00 " "
19 ".....	1 30 " "	19 ".....	1 25 " "
20 ".....	1 50 " "	20 ".....	1 50 " "
21 ".....	2 20 " "	21 ".....	1 75 " "
22 ".....	2 50 " "	22 ".....	2 00 " "
23 ".....	2 75 " "	23 ".....	2 25 " "
24 ".....	2 75 " "	24 ".....	2 25 " "
25 ".....	2 75 " "	25 ".....	2 25 " "

And the following be the rates or fees on all vessels inward bound :—

<i>From November 1st to May 1st.</i>		<i>From May 1st to November 1st.</i>	
7 feet,.....	at \$1 45 per foot.	7 feet,.....	at \$1 10 per foot.
8 ".....	1 45 " "	8 ".....	1 10 " "
9 ".....	1 45 " "	9 ".....	1 10 " "
10 ".....	1 56 " "	10 ".....	1 20 " "
11 ".....	1 72 " "	11 ".....	1 25 " "
12 ".....	1 77 " "	12 ".....	1 30 " "
13 ".....	1 77 " "	13 ".....	1 35 " "
14 ".....	1 87 " "	14 ".....	1 35 " "
15 ".....	1 87 " "	15 ".....	1 35 " "
16 ".....	1 87 " "	16 ".....	1 35 " "
17 ".....	1 87 " "	17 ".....	1 35 " "
18 ".....	2 50 " "	18 ".....	1 88 " "
19 ".....	2 75 " "	19 ".....	1 88 " "
20 ".....	3 00 " "	20 ".....	1 88 " "
21 ".....	4 00 " "	21 ".....	2 80 " "
22 ".....	4 00 " "	22 ".....	3 00 " "
23 ".....	4 00 " "	23 ".....	3 00 " "
24 ".....	4 00 " "	24 ".....	3 00 " "
25 ".....	4 00 " "	25 ".....	3 00 " "

That if any branch pilot of the harbor of Boston offers himself to any vessel liable to take a pilot, outside of a line drawn from Harding's Rocks to the outward Graves, and from thence to Nahant Head, if inward bound ; or any branch pilot who may first offer himself to any vessel outward bound, (the pilot who brought in said vessel, or one belonging to the same boat, in all cases to have the preference,) and the master of the vessel should refuse to take such pilot on board, the master and owners of said vessel, or

either of them, shall incur and be liable to the penalty of the amount of pilotage said vessel would pay, for the benefit of the pilot so offering himself, if he be the complainant.

That if any vessel while under the charge of a branch pilot, or his apprentice, shall be lost or run aground, or sustain any damage, through the negligence or unskillfulness of such branch pilot or his apprentice, such branch pilot shall be liable, not only for himself, but for his apprentice, to pay the owner of such vessel all damages, and also be liable to have his branch or commission taken from him.

That no branch pilot for the harbor of Boston be allowed to make or combine or be in any way interested in the business of pilotage for said harbor, with any other branch pilot, except those who may belong to the same boat with himself, under the forfeiture of his branch.

That it shall be the duty of every pilot, after having brought a vessel into the harbor of Boston, to have such vessel properly moored in the stream, or secured to a wharf, at the option of the master, within twenty-four hours after the arrival of said vessel, if the weather permits, without extra charge. The pilot, if called upon after the expiration of twenty-four hours from her first anchoring, to haul any vessel into the wharf, shall be entitled to receive three dollars for his services; and a pilot shall be entitled to receive the same for taking a vessel from the wharf into the stream, provided said vessel does not proceed to sea within twenty-four hours from the time of her anchoring in the stream.

That if any vessel outward bound, having a pilot on board, should be compelled, either by a head wind or a head tide, to anchor in Nantasket Road, it shall be the duty of the pilot to remain on board said vessel until the next high water, (if requested by the master so to remain,) and if, at the expiration of that time, the master does not see fit to proceed to sea, and wishes the pilot to stay by him longer, the pilot so remaining shall be entitled to receive two dollars per day for each and every day he may be detained on board said vessel, over and above the regular fee for pilotage; but no pilot shall leave a vessel outward bound, proceeding directly to sea, without the permission of the master, until said vessel is to the eastward of George's Island.

That the hull and appurtenances of all vessels piloted into or out of the harbor of Boston, shall, at all times, within sixty days, be liable for the fees of pilotage.

That from and after the first day of May, 1835, each pilot boat in the employ of the branch pilots for the harbor of Boston, may have on board one or more apprentices, to be regularly indented to one or more branch pilots attached to the boat, who shall, after having served not less than two years, and on examination and approval of the trustees of the Boston Marine Society, be authorized to pilot vessels of certain draft of water; and further, that not less than four boats shall be kept in constant employ by branch pilots.

That no apprentice belonging to either of the pilot boats shall take charge of any vessel drawing a larger draft of water than his warrant authorizes; nor shall any other person from either of the pilot boats, (not having a branch,) be put on board of any vessel, unless a branch pilot is not to be obtained. And in event of their taking charge of any vessel, as above, they shall cause the usual signal for a pilot to be kept flying, until within the line drawn from the Harding's Rocks to the Graves and Nahant Head; and shall give the vessel up to any branch pilot, or authorized apprentice, that may apply previous to getting within the said line.

Any apprentice who shall omit to give true information respecting his authority, or refusing to give up a vessel to an authorized pilot when he has charge unlawfully, shall forfeit his warrant.

That a blue and white signal, similar to Parker's Telegraphic, No. 3, be established as a signal for the pilot boats by day, and a bright red light by night, to designate them from other vessels.

The present arrangement is that each pilot boat shall take turns for the outside berth in the bay, and take all vessels (both large and small) that she can board, until all her pilots are out, when she is to be relieved by the boat having the next inside berth, and so to continue in rotation.

In order that the regulations may be carried into full effect, two masters have been appointed to each boat.

PILOTAGE OF THE SCHELDT.

The following information, essential to be known by all mariners, was recently published in the Brussels papers:—

“According to the second section of the fifth article of the provisional regulations for the execution of article nine of the treaty of the 19th of April, 1839, relative to pilotage, merchant ships, with a less draft than fifteen decimetres, are not obliged to take a pilot in the Scheldt. In order to enjoy this advantage, several captains leave Antwerp with little or no ballast, and as they drop down the river, take in the quantity of sand which is wanting. After having thus fraudulently increased their draft of water which would make a pilot necessary, they endeavor to pass Flushing in the night, and thus to evade likewise the payment of the pilotage duty on leaving the river.

“The board of pilotage at Antwerp have received the strictest orders to check this abuse. The delinquents will be prosecuted by virtue of the law of the 26th of March, 1818, which renders them liable to a fine of 10 to 100 florins, and from one to fourteen days' imprisonment; and they will have only to blame themselves for the delay which may arise from the prosecution to which they will expose themselves.”

REGULATIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN SPANISH PORTS.

The following is a copy of a circular received at Lloyd's, from the Spanish consul in England, relative to certain regulations to be observed in all ports in Spain by commanders of vessels and consignees:—

“It having been noticed with regret that the captains of foreign merchant vessels do not observe with due punctuality the established regulations and dispositions on their arrival and clearance in Spanish ports; and it having recently occurred in Cadiz that one of these vessels sailed by stealth, without having cleared at the captainship of the port (*capitanía de puerto*), nor received the bill of health, omitting thereby to satisfy the admiralty fees, the provisional regency of the kingdom have resolved, through the financial department, as follows:—

“1. That vessels coming to a certain consignment shall remain under the responsibility of the consignee, who shall be answerable for all infractions of the laws; and

“2. That the consuls, as agents and protectors of the trade of their country, shall guarantee, not as private individuals, but as such consuls, the punctual observance of the laws, and shall further offer the just vindication of their government against those who may infringe them, or who may evade the penalties by taking to flight.

“By order of the regency I inform you of the above, that you may act accordingly, and give it due publicity.

(Signed)

“Madrid, April 12, 1841.

JOAQUIN MARIA DE FERRER.”

HOSPITAL MONEY AT NEW YORK.

Extract from chapter xiv. title iv. of the “Revised Statutes of the State of New York,” entitled “Of the Public Health:”—

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

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

2. From the master of each coasting vessel, for each passenger on board, twenty-five cents; but no coasting vessel from the states of New Jersey, Connecticut, and Rhode

Island shall pay for more than one voyage in each month, computing from the first voyage in each year.

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

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

LAW IN RELATION TO THE HARBOR OF MOBILE.

In consequence of "divers and grievous complaints" having been made of the captains and masters of vessels coming into the port of Mobile, and throwing stone, gravel, and other ballast from on board their vessels, to the great detriment of said harbor; and as the laws heretofore enacted have been found inefficient to prevent such offences; therefore, the senate and house of representatives of the state of Alabama have passed an act, containing the following provisions, which was approved by the governor, April 28th, 1841.

I. That from and after the passage of this act, if any captain or master of any ship, vessel, or other water craft, which shall hereafter come into the bay or harbor of Mobile, shall throw from on board of such ship, vessel, or other water craft, into the waters of said bay or harbor, any stone, gravel, or other ballast, he shall forfeit and pay for every such offence the sum of two thousand dollars, and be imprisoned for a period not exceeding three months nor less than three days, at the discretion of the court wherein such offender shall be sued; one half of said forfeiture to be paid to the first person who shall, on oath, before either of the officers hereinafter named, give information of such offence, and the other half to the harbor master and port wardens of the port of Mobile.

II. That the said forfeiture may be sued for and recovered, by the harbor master and port wardens of the said port of Mobile, in any court having cognizance of the amount sued for, by process of attachment; to be issued in the same manner, and subject to the same rules of construction, provided and established in other cases of attachment; the said attachment to be issued by either of the officers hereinafter named, and to be levied upon the ship, vessel, or other water craft, the captain or master of which shall be the alleged offender; provided, however, that oath be first made by the informer, or other credible person, of the commission of the offence, before some judge or justice of the peace, or clerk of the county or circuit court of the county of Mobile; and provided also, that the said ship, vessel, or other water craft may be replevied on, the captain, master, or consignee thereof giving bond with good and sufficient sureties, to be approved by the officer issuing the attachment, in treble the amount of forfeiture or penalty sued for, conditioned for the forthcoming of the said ship, vessel, or other water craft, to satisfy such judgment as shall be recovered in the suit.

III.—That it shall be the duty of every pilot and deputy pilot of the bay and harbor of Mobile, to inform the harbor master and port wardens of Mobile, of every violation of this act coming to their knowledge, as soon as possible after knowing thereof, and every pilot or deputy pilot knowing such offence to have been committed, and failing to give such information, shall forthwith be deprived of his license, and be forever thereafter disqualified for the office of pilot or deputy pilot of the said port and harbor of Mobile.

IV.—That all laws contravening or impairing the provisions of this act, be and are hereby repealed; provided, however, that all suits commenced, or liabilities heretofore incurred, shall in no manner be affected by this act.

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

EAST INDIA MAIL STEAMERS.

The East India Company look to these steamers as the right arm of their strength. They consist of nine vessels, all of which are nearly completed, and are mostly in a good condition. They have an aggregate burden of 15,658 tons, and a gross value of about £500,000. They are employed, with the exception of four of the number, in transporting what is called the "overland mail" from Bombay to Suez. The following is a list of them and their appointments.

NAMES	Tonnage.	Horse Power.	ARMAMENT.		Total officers and men on board.	AVERAGE OF TRIPS TO SUEZ AND BACK—5984 MILES.		
			No. of Guns.	Calibre.		Coals consumed.	Time taken.	Speed.
Victoria,	714	230	3	22 lbs.	88	630	38	9½
Atalanta,	667	210	3	32 lbs.	88	660	42	7½
Hugh Lindsay,	411	180	4	18 lbs.	77	665	45	6
Cleopatra,	700	220	3	32 lbs.	88	8¾
Sesostris,	900	220	2	68 lbs.	134	7½
Berenice,	646	230	3	32 lbs.	88	841	40	8¾
Zenobia,	670	285	97	850	42
Auckland,	950	220	2	68 lbs.	130
Semiramis,	1000	300	4	32 lbs.	132

The voyage to Suez out and in is 5984 miles, and commonly performed, including all delays, in 38 to 40 days. The stay at Suez is about 100 hours. The coaling alone costs from £2,500 to £3,000 for each voyage up the Red Sea, and the total cost of coal for all the vessels is upwards of £30,000. The number of passengers of all descriptions for two years preceding May, 1840, was—from Suez, 234; for Suez, 255; these include servants and children. The fare of the first class passengers between Suez and Bombay is £80, of which £30 goes to the commander of the vessel for table money, and £50 into the government treasury. The gross receipts for passengers in the period just alluded to was above £30,000, of which about £12,000 went to the commanders, and £18,000 to the treasury.

MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

The following table shows the receipts, expenditures, and dividends of the Massachusetts railroads during the year 1840:—

COMPANY.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	Dividend. Per cent.
Boston and Worcester Railroad,	\$267,457	\$140,441	6
Boston and Providence Railroad,	202,601	7
Boston and Lowell Railroad,	231,575	91,400	8
Eastern Railroad,	183,297	105,293	5
Western Railroad,	121,347	62,071
Nashua and Lowell Railroad,	82,638	52,532	7½
Boston and Portland Railroad,	93,468	70,022	6½
New Bedford and Taunton Railroad, *	26,437	13,026

* This road has only been in operation since the 4th of July, 1840.

BANK STATISTICS.

CONDITION OF THE STATE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

A resolution was adopted by the house of representatives, July 10, 1822, directing the secretary of the treasury to lay before the house of representatives, at each successive session of congress, copies of such statements or returns, showing the capital, circulation, discounts, specie, deposits, and condition of the different state banks and banking companies as may have been communicated to the legislatures, governors, and other officers of the several states within the year and made public; and where such statements cannot be obtained, such other authentic information as would best supply the deficiency. The states or territories that have not complied with the demand of the secretary of the treasury, or only in part, are Vermont, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, New York (free banks,) Delaware, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa. We are indebted to the Hon. Thomas Ewing, the secretary of the treasury, for a copy of the document, which is quite voluminous, occupying nearly fifteen hundred pages. The condensed statements which follow are derived from this document, and are entitled—

1. A condensed statement of the condition, at different intervals, of all the banks in the United States.
2. A comparative view of the condition of all the banks in the United States, near the commencement of each year, from 1834 to 1840, inclusive.
3. A general statement of the condition of so many of the banks as have made returns dated near to January 1, 1841.

In a subsequent number of the magazine, we shall endeavor to lay before our readers, the condition of the banks in each state or territory, for several years.

1. *A Table, exhibiting a condensed statement of the condition, at different intervals, of all the banks of the United States.*

Date	Number of banks from which returns are received.*	Number of banks the affairs of which are estimated.	Total number of banks.*	Loans and discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Capital.
				Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1811	51	38	89	15,400,000	28,100,000	52,601,601
1815	120	88	208	17,000,000	45,500,000	82,259,590
1816	134	112	246	19,000,000	68,000,000	89,822,422
1820	213	95	308	19,820,240	44,863,344	35,950,470	137,110,611
1830	282	48	330	200,451,214	22,114,917	61,323,898	55,559,928	145,192,268
1834	406	100	506	324,119,499	94,839,570	75,666,986	200,005,944
1835	515	43	558	365,163,834	43,937,625	103,692,495	83,081,365	231,250,337
1836	559	8	567	457,506,080	40,019,594	140,301,038	115,104,440	251,875,292
1837	632	2	634	525,115,702	37,915,340	149,185,890	127,397,185	290,772,091
1838	663	663	485,631,687	35,184,112	116,138,910	84,691,184	317,636,778
1839	662	662	492,278,015	45,132,673	135,170,995	90,240,146	327,132,512
1840	661	61	722	462,896,523	33,105,155	106,968,572	75,696,857	358,442,692

* The number of branches is not given in this table, as it was not the practice to enumerate them previous to 1835. For the number in that and each succeeding year, see table 2. The whole number of banks and branches, at the commencement of 1840, is there given as 901.

2. A Table, exhibiting a comparative view of the condition of all the banks of the United States, near the commencement of each year, from 1834 to 1840, inclusive.

<i>According to returns nearest Jan. 1,...</i>	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Banks from which returns have been rec'd,	406	515	559	632	663	662	661
Branches do. do. do. do. do.	141	141	146	154	166	178	139
Banks, the affairs of which have been } estimated, for want of returns,.....	100	43	8	2	61
Branches, the affairs of which have been } estimated, for want of returns,.....	5	40
Whole No. banks and branc's in opera'n,	506	704	713	788	829	840	901
Capital paid in,.....	\$200,005,944	\$231,250,337	\$251,875,292	\$290,772,091	\$317,636,778	\$327,132,512	\$358,442,692
Loans and discounts,.....	324,119,499	365,163,834	457,506,080	525,115,702	485,631,687	492,278,015	462,896,523
Stocks,.....	6,113,195	9,210,579	11,709,319	12,407,112	33,908,604	36,128,464	42,411,750
Real estate,.....	10,850,090	11,140,167	14,194,375	19,064,451	19,075,731	16,607,832	29,181,919
Other investments,.....	1,723,547	4,642,124	9,975,226	10,423,630	24,194,117	28,352,248	24,592,580
Due from other banks,.....	27,329,645	40,084,038	51,876,955	59,663,910	58,195,153	52,898,357	41,140,184
Notes of other banks on hand,.....	22,154,919	21,086,301	32,115,138	36,533,527	24,964,257	27,372,966	20,797,892
Specie funds,.....	26,641,753	3,061,819	4,800,076	5,366,500	904,006	3,612,567	3,623,874
Specie,.....	43,937,625	40,019,594	37,915,340	35,184,112	45,132,673	33,105,155
Circulation,.....	94,839,570	103,692,495	140,301,038	149,185,890	116,138,910	135,170,995	106,968,572
Deposits,.....	75,666,986	83,081,365	115,104,440	127,397,185	84,691,184	90,240,146	75,696,857
Due other banks,.....	26,602,293	38,972,578	50,402,369	62,421,118	61,015,692	53,135,508	44,159,615
Other liabilities,.....	19,320,475	25,999,234	36,560,289	59,995,679	62,946,248	43,275,183
Aggregate of bank accounts,.....	816,047,441	974,643,887	1,205,879,136	1,372,826,745	1,321,535,910	1,371,008,531	1,286,292,796
Agg. of investm's suppos'd to yield inc'me,	342,806,331	390,156,804	493,385,000	567,010,895	561,760,319	573,366,559	559,082,772
Excess of do. beyond am't of cap. paid in,	142,800,387	158,906,467	241,409,708	276,238,804	243,183,261	246,234,047	200,640,089
Aggregate of deposits and circulation,...	170,506,556	186,773,860	255,405,478	276,583,075	200,830,094	225,411,141	182,665,429
Agg. of do., do., and sums due oth. bks.,	197,108,849	225,746,438	305,807,847	339,004,193	261,845,686	278,546,649	226,825,044
Agg. of specie, specie funds, notes of } oth. bks., and sums due by oth. bks., }	76,126,317	108,169,783	128,811,763	139,479,277	119,247,428	129,016,563	98,667,105
Excess of imm. liab. beyond imm. means,	120,982,532	117,576,655	176,996,084	199,524,916	142,598,258	149,530,086	128,157,939
Total of means of all kinds,.....	418,932,648	498,326,587	622,196,763	705,490,172	704,358,577	702,383,122	657,749,877
Total of liab., exclu. of those to stockh's,	197,108,849	245,066,913	331,807,081	376,564,482	321,823,365	341,492,897	270,100,227
Total of liab. of the bks. to one another,	76,086,857	100,142,917	134,394,462	158,618,555	144,175,002	133,406,831	106,097,691
Liab. to all, except oth. bks. and stockh's,	121,121,992	144,923,996	281,404,712	313,143,364	260,825,773	288,357,389	270,100,227
Nett circulation,.....	72,684,651	82,606,194	108,185,900	112,652,363	91,174,653	107,798,029	86,170,680

3. A Table, exhibiting a general statement of the condition of so many of the banks as have made returns dated near to Jan. 1, 1841.

STATE OR TERRITORY.	Date.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Stocks.	Real Estate.	Other Investments.	Due by other Banks.
Maine,.....	Jan., 1841	47	\$4,371,500	\$5,820,792	\$322,750	\$600,804
New Hampshire,.....	June, 1840	27	2,837,508	4,099,612	76,893	337,630
Vermont,.....	Jan., 1841	7	597,810	964,417	14,380	111,691
Massachusetts,.....	Oct., 1840	115	33,750,000	46,513,685	1,169,803	4,702,491
Rhode Island,.....	Jan., 1841	62	9,823,558	12,194,485	\$223,397	603,938
Connecticut,.....
New York,.....	Jan., 1841	95	36,401,460	54,691,163	\$4,630,392	3,588,132	861,643	10,061,002
New Jersey,.....	Jan., 1841	26	3,834,816	5,315,936	40,098	343,696	60,243	1,138,043
Pennsylvania,.....
Delaware,.....	Jan., 1841	3	4	881,648	1,472,464	59,411	66,918	395,082
Maryland,.....	Jan., 1841	21	2	10,214,908	12,554,889	939,953	504,433	137,311	2,007,906
District of Columbia,.....	Jan., 1841	6	1,745,155	2,000,505	219,989	188,048	34,536	122,110
Virginia,.....	Jan., 1841	6	21	10,283,633	15,495,117	1,204,567	798,146	55,341	1,440,684
North Carolina,.....	Nov., 1840	3	7	3,225,000	4,506,226	95,780	4,076	538,784
South Carolina,.....	Oct., 1840	12	11,782,358	16,106,806	2,222,293	333,497	107,212	533,869
Georgia,.....	Oct., 1840	23	16	15,098,694	13,783,221	1,785,304	4,217,493	328,102	1,785,649
Florida,.....	Jan., 1841	3	4	4,040,775	5,024,877	977,045	115,343	104,169	210,002
Alabama,.....	Oct., 1840	3	3	14,379,255	24,183,586	599,366	434,904	1,499,693
Louisiana,.....	Dec., 1840	16	31	41,711,214	48,646,799	13,192,038	1,816,630
Arkansas,.....	Oct., 1840	2	8	3,532,706	3,838,694	500,000	67,196	403,030	117,310
Mississippi,.....
Tennessee,.....	Jan., 1841	2	14	5,802,447	7,604,352	12,000	431,985	905,123
Kentucky,.....	Dec., 1840	1	4	2,987,200	3,021,458	1,025,000	92,004	29,850	501,609
Missouri,.....	Jan., 1841	1	2	1,178,866	1,628,203	80,580	23,808	186,520
Illinois,.....	Nov., 1840	1	6	4,044,025	3,492,438	2,101,849	471,995	15,990	797,278
Indiana,.....	Nov., 1840	1	12	2,671,618	3,689,595	294,000	223,629	717,782	305,144
Ohio,.....	Dec., 1840	26	1	8,103,243	9,878,328	2,688,692	571,333
Michigan,.....	Jan. 1, 1841	3	1	1,000,000	1,713,769	74,541	75,512	160,172	180,467
Wisconsin,.....	Sept., 1840	1	100,000	224,365	14,404	80,537	2,571
Iowa,.....	Sept., 1838	1	100,000	77,941	1,000	4,206	7,221	762
Pennsylvania Bank of U. S.,
		514	136						

STATE OR TERRITORY.	Date.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Notes of Oth. Bks.	Specie Funds.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to Other Banks.	Other Liabilities.
Maine,.....	Jan., 1841	47	\$213,737	\$269,729	\$1,754,390	\$733,834	\$45,281	\$136,909
New Hampshire,.....	June, 1840	27	64,594	193,359	1,088,750	420,800	145,738
Vermont,.....	Jan., 1841	7	27,924	\$60,209	67,777	9,483,029	7,116,703	3,911,724	1,379,512
Massachusetts,.....	Oct., 1840	115	2,120,782	2,991,804	9,112,882	7,257,410	3,961,805	1,379,512
Rhode Island,.....	Jan., 1841	62	318,998	327,206	1,565,880	950,747	518,615	504,935
Connecticut,.....
New York,.....	Jan., 1841	95	4,922,764	2,188,565	5,429,622	15,235,056	17,053,279	10,374,682	2,937,485
New Jersey,.....	Jan., 1841	26	400,720	436,049	2,099,069	1,074,843	211,307
Pennsylvania,.....
Delaware,.....	Jan., 1841	3	4	106,604	155,691	860,963	312,247	28,209
Maryland,.....	Jan., 1841	21	2	1,022,382	1,556,020	2,529,843	3,136,979	1,860,015	225,529
District of Columbia,.....	Jan., 1841	6	176,752	53,101	245,629	121,975	653,386	268,197	3,135
Virginia,.....	Jan., 1841	6	21	900,538	2,318,791	6,852,485	2,754,630	872,152	725,743
North Carolina,.....	Nov., 1840	3	7	221,067	802,709	2,092,877	489,188	90,363	92
South Carolina,.....	Oct., 1840	12	295,208	1,608,537	3,008,514	1,712,745	589,597	521,297
Georgia,.....	Oct., 1840	23	16	2,140,161	1,300,694	5,518,822	1,985,413	1,299,703	582,937
Florida,.....	Jan., 1841	3	4	49,745	5,032	476,706	314,493	382,219	1,126,591
Alabama,.....	Oct., 1840	3	3	2,693,292	1,589,510	7,211,141	2,827,622	1,486,345	2,152,508
Louisiana,.....	Dec., 1840	16	31	2,577,578	3,163,243	6,443,785	3,094,730	7,090,815	7,777,812
Arkansas,.....	Oct., 1840	2	8	157,123	403,030	203,813	995,905	146,018	28,308	250,000
Mississippi,.....
Tennessee,.....	Jan., 1841	2	14	343,847	5,000	647,945	2,045,375	610,836	336,236	423,172
Kentucky,.....	Dec., 1840	1	4	446,936	663,449	1,795,058	416,030	317,438
Missouri,.....	Jan., 1841	1	2	42,345	509,597	347,530	332,909	87,871	509,590
Illinois,.....	Nov., 1840	1	6	129,977	529,640	3,105,415	109,545	117,893
Indiana,.....	Nov., 1840	1	12	166,251	1,076,551	2,865,568	472,748	148,829	1,939
Ohio,.....	Dec., 1840	26	1	867,935	1,052,767	3,584,341	1,938,682	410,287	1,022,503
Michigan,.....	Jan. 1, 1841	3	1	71,964	123,635	568,177	183,909	5,678	512,849
Wisconsin,.....	Sept., 1840	1	29,397	48,492	90,305	17,414	175	85,451
Iowa,.....	Sept., 1838	1	18,874	3,033	10,990	3,686	5,035
Pennsylvania Bank of U. S.,
		514	136							

3 continued.—A Table, exhibiting a general statement of the condition of so many of the banks as have made returns dated near to Jan. 1, 1841.

COMMERCIAL TABLES.

STATE STOCK TABLE,

Computed for the Merchants' Magazine, by D. J. Browne, civil engineer.

This table exhibits the comparative value of the various classes of state bonds that have been issued in the United States; assuming the interest to be paid thereon at the end of each year, and afterward improved at 6 per cent compound interest.

Also, the present worth and amount of any bond of \$1000, for 1 year to 30, if improved in the same manner as assumed in the table. For example, an Indiana 5 per cent bond, payable at the end of 19 years, is worth $88\frac{8.42}{1000}$ per cent, when compared with an Ohio or Illinois 6 per cent bond, at 100 per cent, or *par*, and its present worth is \$888 42, while the Ohio or Illinois 6 is worth \$1000. A New York 5 per cent bond, payable at the end of 9 years, is worth $93\frac{19.8}{1000}$ per cent, while a bond bearing the same rate of interest, and payable at the end of 19 years, is worth only $88\frac{8.42}{1000}$ per cent.

Although the interest on state bonds is usually paid semi-annually, it was thought proper to assume it as paid at the end of each year, on the ground that it would have to remain unimproved for a time.

TIME.	4½		5		5½		5¾		6		7	
	Am't. D. cts.	Value. Per ct.	Am't. D. cts.	Value. Per ct.	Am't. D. cts.	Value. Per ct.	Am't. D. cts.	Value. Per ct.	Am't. D. cts.	Value. Per ct.	Am't. D. cts.	Value. Per ct.
1	1045.00	98.855	1050.00	99.057	1055.00	99.528	1057.50	99.764	1060.00	100	1070.00	100.943
2	1092.70	97.250	1103.00	98.167	1113.30	99.083	1118.45	99.542	1123.60	100	1144.20	101.833
3	1143.26	95.901	1159.18	97.327	1175.10	98.664	1183.06	99.332	1191.02	100	1222.85	102.673
4	1196.86	94.803	1218.78	96.535	1240.60	98.267	1251.54	99.134	1262.48	100	1306.22	103.465
5	1253.67	93.681	1281.88	95.767	1310.04	97.894	1324.13	98.947	1338.23	100	1394.60	104.213
6	1313.89	92.624	1348.77	95.083	1383.64	97.541	1401.08	98.771	1418.52	100	1488.27	104.917
7	1377.72	91.626	1419.69	94.417	1461.66	97.209	1482.65	98.605	1503.63	100	1587.57	105.582
8	1445.39	90.686	1494.87	93.790	1544.36	96.895	1569.10	98.447	1593.85	100	1692.82	106.210
9	1517.11	89.797	1574.57	93.198	1632.02	96.599	1660.75	98.299	1689.48	100	1804.39	106.802
10	1593.14	88.960	1659.04	92.640	1724.94	96.320	1757.90	98.160	1790.85	100	1922.66	107.360
11	1673.78	88.170	1748.58	92.113	1823.44	96.057	1860.87	98.028	1898.30	100	2048.02	107.887
12	1759.15	87.424	1843.50	91.616	1927.85	95.808	1970.02	97.904	2012.20	100	2180.90	108.384
13	1849.70	86.721	1944.11	91.147	2038.52	95.574	2085.72	97.787	2132.93	100	2321.75	108.853
14	1945.68	86.058	2050.75	90.705	2155.83	95.353	2208.37	97.676	2260.90	100	2471.05	109.295
15	2047.42	85.432	2163.80	90.288	2280.18	95.144	2338.37	97.572	2396.56	100	2629.32	109.712
16	2155.26	84.841	2283.63	89.894	2411.99	94.947	2476.17	97.474	2540.35	100	2797.08	110.106
17	2269.58	84.284	2410.64	89.522	2551.71	94.762	2622.24	97.381	2692.77	100	2974.90	110.477
18	2390.75	83.758	2545.28	89.172	2699.81	94.586	2777.08	97.293	2854.34	100	3163.40	110.838
19	2519.20	83.263	2688.00	88.842	2856.80	94.421	2941.20	97.210	3025.60	100	3363.20	111.188
20	2655.35	82.795	2839.28	88.530	3123.21	94.265	3115.17	97.133	3207.14	100	3574.99	111.470
21	2799.67	82.354	2999.64	88.236	3199.60	94.118	3299.58	97.059	3309.56	100	3799.49	111.764
22	2952.65	81.938	3169.61	87.958	3386.58	93.979	3495.06	96.990	3603.54	100	4037.46	112.041
23	3114.81	81.545	3349.79	87.696	3584.77	93.848	3702.26	96.924	3819.75	100	4289.71	112.303
24	3286.70	81.175	3540.78	87.450	3794.86	93.725	3921.90	96.863	4048.93	100	4557.09	112.551
25	3468.90	80.825	3743.23	87.217	4017.55	93.609	4154.71	96.804	4291.87	100	4840.52	112.784
26	3662.05	80.496	3957.82	86.997	4253.60	93.498	4401.49	96.749	4549.38	100	5140.95	113.003
27	3866.76	80.184	4185.29	86.790	4503.82	93.395	4663.08	96.697	4822.35	100	5459.40	113.210
28	4083.77	79.891	4426.41	86.594	4769.05	93.297	4940.37	96.648	5111.69	100	5796.97	113.406
29	4313.79	79.614	4681.99	86.409	5050.19	93.215	5234.29	96.602	5418.39	100	6154.79	113.591
30	4557.62	79.353	4952.91	86.235	5348.20	93.118	5545.85	96.559	5743.49	100	6534.07	113.765

From the "Report of a Late Committee of the British House of Commons, concerning Protective Duties;" which report has been the basis of an article on the subject of import duties, which is already before the reader, in the present number of the Merchants' Magazine.

PRO FORMA TABLE OR TARIFF OF NEW CUSTOMS DUTIES,

UPON A MORE EQUITABLE AND FISCAL BASIS.

ARTICLES.	Proposed Rate of Duty.	Present Rate of Duty.	Revenue for 1839.	Estimated Revenue on Proposed Scale.		
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£	£		
1. ANIMALS, viz:—						
Asses,.....each	0 10 0	Prohibited.	339	5,000		
Goats,.....	0 2 6	Ditto.				
Horned Cattle,.....	0 10 0	Ditto.				
Horses, Mares, or Geldings,.....	1 0 0	1 0 0				
Mules,.....	0 10 0	0 10 0				
Sheep,.....	0 2 6	Prohibited.				
Swine,.....	0 2 6	Ditto.				
Ale, Beer, or Mum,.....per barrel	0 10 0	2 13 0	36	250		
2. Carriages, all sorts, per £100 value,.....	10 0 0	30 0 0	501	1,000		
3. Coffee and Cocoa,.....per pound						
Produce of and imported from all British possessions, including the states under British protection in the Peninsula,.....	0 0 5	0 0 6	794,818	1,000,000		
4. Cotton wool, Sheep's wool, Goat's do., and all other kinds of hair, &c., cwt. Produce of and imported from a British possession,.....	0 2 6	0 2 11			559,645	600,000
5. Food, viz:—						
Wheat,.....per quarter	0 8 0	Prohibited, except nearly at famine prices.	1,089,775	2,000,000		
Barley,.....	0 4 0				
Rye, Peas, and Beans,.....						
Oats,.....						
Maize or Indian Corn,.....						
Buckwheat, Bear or Bigg,.....	0 4 0				
Flour,.....per 196 lbs.						
Barley and Oatmeal, Indian Corn, Meal, &c.....per 196 lbs.	0 2 0				
Rice, not being rough,.....cwt.	0 8 0	0 15 0				
Rice, rough, or Paddy,.....	0 1 3	0 2 6				
Rice from British possessions, &c., per cwt.	0 0 6	0 1 0	32,297			
Potatoes,.....	0 1 0	0 2 0				
Onions,.....per bushel	0 2 6	0 3 0	1,840			
Maccaroni,.....per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 2	1,792			
Beef and Pork, salted,.....per cwt. Ditto, smoked,.....	0 8 0	0 12 0	3,823	800,000		
Sausages,.....per lb.	0 0 4	0 0 4				
Bacon and Hams,.....per cwt.	0 12 0	1 8 0				
Beef, Pork, and all kinds of Butcher's Meat, fresh,.....cwt.	0 12 0	Prohibited.	£372,102	800,000		
Butter,.....	0 10 0	1 0 0			213,077	
Cheese,.....	0 8 0	0 10 6			105,219	
Eggs,.....per 120	0 0 10	0 0 10			12,014	
Fish of all kinds,.....10 per cent ad val.	Chiefly prohibited.			2,040	
Fish, British taking, free,..... Free	
Fruit of all kinds,.....20 per cent ad val.	10 to 200 p. ct.			437,046	500,000
Hay,.....per load.....	10 0 0	1 4 0			5	
6. Indigo, Cochineal, and Verdigris, per lb.						
Indigo, from British possessions,.....	0 0 3	0 0 3			37,624	30,000

ARTICLES.	Proposed Rate of Duty.	Present Rate of Duty.	Revenue for 1839.	Estimated Revenue on Proposed Scale.
7. Hides and Skins of all kinds, Undressed,..... $2\frac{1}{2}$ per ct. ad val.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£	£
Dressed or Tanned,.....	5 ditto	Var. duties 10 to 50 per ct.	62,676	50,000
8. MANUFACTURES, viz :—				
Of Glass, (exclusive of Excise,).....	Var. duties 20 to 500 per ct.	27,326	500,000
Of Silks, of all kinds,.....	247,362	
Of Paper, (except writing paper,)..	20 per c.	2,681	
Of Leather and Skins, Boots, Shoes, Gloves, &c.....	24,874	
Of Linen and Hemp, (except can- vass,).....	14,182	300,000
Of Cotton, Wool, and Hair,.....	316,425	
Of Metals, Minerals, Clays and Earths, Stone, Wood, Precious Stones, Feathers, and all other manufactures, not otherwise enu- merated or charged,.....	10 pr. ct.	10 to 30 pr. ct.	126,930	
9. Metals and Minerals, and Stones of all kinds—				
Raw or Smelted,.....	1 pr. ct. ad v.	Var. duties	33,170	50,000
Forged or Hammered,.....	10 to 30 p. ct.		
10. Oils of all kinds, per £100 value,....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ ditto.	} 10 to 400 } per cent.	70,032	100,000
From British possessions, and from West Coast of Africa,.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$ ditto.			
11. Seeds and Grains—				
Flax, Hemp, and Rape Seed, quar.	0 1 0	} Various du- } ties, from } 5 to 200 } per cent.	145,322	150,000
Mustard Seed,.....	1 0 0			
Ditto ground,.....	20 pr. ct.			
Caraway Seed,.....	1 0 0			
All other Seeds and Grains, not otherwise enumerated, per cwt.	0 2 0			
12. Spices of all kinds,.....per lb.	} Various du- } ties, 20 to } 600 pr. ct.	89,202	100,000
From British possessions,.....	10 ditto.			
13. Spirits—				
Distilled, of all kinds, (except Aqua- fortis and Spirits of Turpentine to be used in manufactures,) per gallon,.....	0 14 0	1 2 6	2,615,442	2,500,000
Produce of, and imported from, a British possession,.....	0 8 0	0 9 0	
Liquors and Spirits, sweetened or prepared, the produce of, and imported from, a British posses- sion,.....	0 10 0	1 0 0	25,258
Aquafortis and Spirits of Turpen- tine,.....per cwt.	0 10 0	82,936	90,000
14. Tallow,.....per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 2	181,999	180,000
Produce of, and imported from, a British possession,.....	0 1 6	0 1 0		
15. Tea,.....per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 1	3,658,800	4,000,000
16. Tobacco,.....	0 2 6	0 3 0	3,495,686	3,200,000
From British possessions,.....	0 1 3	0 2 9		
Manufactured,.....	0 3 0	0 6 0		
17. Sugar, clayed, and in any way re- fined,.....per cwt.	2 10 0	} 3 3 0	} continued—next page	
Muscovado, Brown and Yellow, ..	1 10 0			

ARTICLES.	Proposed Rate of Duty.			Present Rate of Duty.			Revenue for 1839.	Estimated Revenue on Proposed Scale.
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		
Produce of, and imported from British possessions—Clayed, White, and in any way refined,.....	1	0	0	}	1	4	} 4,893,733	} 7,800,000
Ditto, ditto, Muscovado,.....	0	15	0					
Refined,.....	2	10	0					
Molasses,.....	0	14	0					
Produce of, and imported from British possessions,.....per cwt.	0	6	0	}	0	9	} 1,849,710	} 2,000,000
Syrups and Preserves in Sugar, per lb.	0	0	2					
Succades and Honey,.....	0	0	2					
18. Wine,.....per gall.	0	2	0	}	0	5	} 1,849,710	} 2,000,000
And additional 20 per cent,.....	0	2	0					
Produce of, and imported from British possessions,.....per gall.	0	2	0					
19. Wood—								
Mahogany, Rosewood, and all other Fancy Woods for Furniture, per load of 50 cubic feet,.....	1	10	0	}	5	0	} 1,603,194	} 2,500,000
From British possessions,.....	0	7	6					
Boards and Deals of Mahogany, Rosewood, and all Fancy Woods for Furniture, per load,.....	1	10	0	}	10	0	} 1,603,194	} 2,500,000
And additional 10 per cent,.....	0	7	6					
Ditto, from British possessions,.....	0	7	6	}	10	0	} 1,603,194	} 2,500,000
And 5 per cent, ad val.	0	10	0					
Oak, Teak and Elm, Cedar and Juniper, and Mahogany from Honduras, for ship-building, per load,.....	0	10	0	}	All formerly more than 250 per cent.	} 1,603,194	} 2,500,000	
Deals and Boards of, per 50 cubic feet,.....	0	10	0					
And 5 per cent additional,.....	0	5	0					
Oak, Teak, Elm, Cedar, Juniper, and Hardwoods, &c. Produce of, and imported from British possessions,.....	0	5	0					
Pine and Fir Timber, and Spars of all kinds, per load of 50 cubic feet,.....	1	5	0					
Deals, Boards, or Staves of, per load of 50 cubic feet,.....	1	5	0					
And 10 per cent additional,.....	0	7	6					
Pine and Fir Timber, and Spars, Produce of, and imported from a British possession, per load of 50 cubic feet,.....	0	7	6					
And 5 per cent additional,.....	0	7	6					
Dyewoods, of all kinds,.....5 p. c. ad val.					10 to 200 p. c.		68,997
20. Raw Materials of all kinds, to be used in Manufactures, in Science, and in the Arts, 2½ per ct. ad valorem,.....	2½	ditto			}	Various duties, and free, to 200 per cent.	} 351,153	} 393,775

Export Duties of all kinds to be abolished; with the exception, perhaps, of Coal.

Total Revenue for 1839,.....£22,962,600

Total Estimated Revenue by pro forma Tariff, say.....£28,850,025

IMPORT DUTIES.

REASONS WHICH HAVE INFLUENCED THE AMERICAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AT LIVERPOOL TO ASSIST IN ADVOCATING A REVISION OF THE IMPORT DUTIES.

1. The magnitude of the trade between Liverpool and the United States of America, as compared with that with the British West India possessions, including Demerara and Berbice, in whose favor prohibitory differential duties are sought to be maintained, in illustration of which the following table is annexed :—

INWARDS.	American Tonnage.	British Tonnage.	Total.	Value, at £12 per Ton.
From the United States,.....	397,745	67,823	465,568	£5,576,816
From British West India possessions,.....	43,940	43,940	527,280
OUTWARDS.				
To the United States,.....	414,519	82,335	406,894	5,962,728
To British West India possessions,.....	55,562	55,562	666,744

PRODUCE IMPORTED.

From the United States,.....	£12,422,450
From British West India possessions,.....	1,286,220

2. The United States take from this country, in manufactures, on an average of years, the whole value of the produce imported from thence, as shown by the following table :—

	Value (in dollars) of Imports into Great Britain and Ireland from the United States.	Value (in dollars) of Exports from Great Britain and Ireland to the United States.
1831.....	26,329,352	24,539,214
1832.....	30,810,995	36,921,265
1833.....	32,363,450	37,845,824
1834.....	44,212,097	47,242,807
1835.....	52,180,977	61,249,527
1836.....	57,875,213	78,645,968
1837.....	54,683,797	44,886,943
1838.....	52,176,610	44,861,973
1839.....	59,896,212	65,964,588

3. The approaching termination of the tariff compromise act in the United States, when 20 per cent *ad valorem* will be the highest duty levied upon any article imported into that country; and, as we impose a duty on tobacco of 600 per cent, on wheat and flour a duty varying from 10 per cent to 75 per cent, and virtually exclude rice (clean,) ashes, timber, and staves, it is naturally to be expected that the states of which those productions are the growth, comparing the moderate maximum duty to which our manufactures are subjected with the burdens we impose on the products of their labor, will unite with a portion of their manufacturers for the purpose of establishing a tariff based on a principle of retaliation.

4. The sliding scale of duty on wheat and flour places countries so distant as the United States on an unequal footing with those less remote; because, whenever grain is admissible at a low duty, the demand is so rapidly supplied from the continent of Europe, that the duty is generally at a prohibitory rate before supplies from the United States can reach this country; and, as above shown, that our imports from the United States are paid for by an equal amount of exports of our manufactures, it is reasonable to assume that the whole value of grain and flour received from that country would be paid for in the same medium, and not in gold.

5. That if timber were allowed to be imported from the United States at the same duty as previous to the year 1808, the flourishing trade formerly carried on in that article would be re-established, to the great benefit of both countries, as it is notorious that such is the superior quality of timber the growth of the United States, to that of British Ame-

rica, that vessels built of it are insurable as first class for double the length of time allowed to ships built of the latter.

6. The circumstances of the manufacturing interests have materially changed during the last few years; formerly we consumed the greater portion of our manufactures at home, but now more than two thirds of our cotton fabrics are exported, showing the vital importance of encouraging trade with those countries which, like the United States, are willing to receive to any extent the productions of our industry in exchange for theirs.

NICHOLAS ROSKELL,

Liverpool, May 10, 1841.

President of the American Chamber of Commerce.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH THE UNITED STATES AND FRANCE.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The London Times of April 10, 1841, contains the following valuable information, which shows the importance to that country of the trade of the United States:—

“The interchange of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland with all countries, given in English money, according to a scale of official value settled in the year 1698:—

	<i>Imported.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>
1835.....	£48,911,542.....	£91,174,455
1836.....	57,230,997.....	97,621,549
1837.....	54,737,301.....	85,781,669
1838.....	61,268,320.....	105,170,549
1839.....	62,001,000.....	110,198,716

“The interchange of France with all countries, given in English money, at the rate of 25f. for each pound sterling, according to a scale of official value settled in the year 1826:—

	<i>Imported.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>
1835.....	£30,429,067.....	£33,376,888
1836.....	36,223,014.....	38,451,390
1837.....	32,311,718.....	30,323,898
1838.....	37,482,179.....	38,236,305
1839.....	37,878,857.....	40,133,271

“The interchange of the United States of America with all countries, given in English money, at the rate of 50d. for each dollar, according to the actual worth of the merchandise at the time and in the place where landed or shipped, in the year ending as under:—

	<i>Imported.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>
Sept. 30, 1835.....	£31,228,279.....	£25,352,828
“ 1836.....	39,579,173.....	26,804,800
“ 1837.....	29,372,753.....	24,462,370
“ 1838.....	23,641,125.....	22,651,378
“ 1839.....	35,227,527.....	25,214,253

“The interchange of France with Great Britain and her dependencies, by official value, given in English money, at the rate of 25f. for each pound sterling:—

	<i>Imported from.</i>	<i>Exported to.</i>
Great Britain, and possessions in Europe,.....	£2,451,531.....	£3,982,833
Mauritius, and British possessions in Africa,.....	43,452.....	138,296
New South Wales, and the East Indies,.....	1,052,802.....	184,191
British possessions in America,.....	17,506.....	4,750

In the year 1835.....	£3,565,291.....	£4,310,070
“ 1836.....	3,974,438.....	5,037,186
“ 1837.....	4,056,528.....	4,139,382
“ 1838.....	4,545,077.....	6,011,993
“ 1839.....	5,028,585.....	6,952,001

"The interchange of the United States of America with Great Britain and her dependencies, (by declared value,) given in English money, at the rate of 50d. for each dollar:—

	<i>Imported from.</i>	<i>Exported to.</i>
Great Britain and Ireland,.....	£12,760,318.....	£10,871,015
British dependencies,.....	979,120.....	1,663,920
Year ending Sept. 3, 1835.....	£13,739,438.....	£12,534,935
“ “ 1836.....	17,921,023.....	13,334,906
“ “ 1837.....	10,881,157.....	12,753,642
“ “ 1838.....	10,218,995.....	12,434,044
“ “ 1839.....	15,020,906.....	14,201,892

"Perhaps few of our readers were prepared to see that France, as we are shown by her returns, is already importing from England and her dependencies direct, to an amount exceeding £5,000,000 sterling; and the import or custom of France is larger considerably than here appears, inasmuch as under existing regulations all products not being of European growth or manufacture cannot be received into the French market direct, but are sent from this country to Belgium or Holland, and thence into France. The excess of the French exports to this country and her dependencies, compared with the imports, is in some degree accounted for by this cause.

"In like manner, out of the exports from the United States to this country, a certain portion of the amount (between £100,000 and £200,000) represents not the products of the United States, but goods sent there; as, for example, the gum of Senegal or the annato of Cayenne, which are dependencies of France, in order that they may afterward be imported by British vessels into England.

"The excess in the amount of the general exports over the imports of this country shows, that we are a saving and a lending people; our merchants lend to the merchants of other countries, and individuals of acquired fortune invest a portion of their capitals in foreign stocks, or in the purchase of lands in our colonies.

"In the general interchange of the United States we see a condition of trade, comparing the amount of imports and exports, the opposite of our own. We see that they are a borrowing people, and that the extent of their purchasing our products is measured by the degree of our lending the capital by which they are to be paid for. We say this in no invidious spirit, because we are among those who are of opinion that the bond of any solvent community is as good and convenient a return for our industry as commodities in the ordinary sense; only, we speak of it as a fact, attested by all reasonable observation, and by such returns as are here before us, that when this country is in a spirit to invest in American securities, then it is that America is an unusually active customer for British goods.

"In the general interchange of France, we see a steadily increasing trade, and that a remarkable equality obtains throughout, if the exports be compared with the imports. It may be stated incidentally, with regard to French commerce, that about one third of the amount of imports, and about one fourth of the amount of exports, are transported by land.

"We cannot close this subject without subjoining one more table, for the purpose of exhibiting from our own customhouse returns, the progress of that portion of the exports to France and to the United States, consisting only of British and Irish produce and manufactures, which, by declared value, were as follows, viz:—

	<i>To France.</i>	<i>To the United States.</i>
1835.....	£1,453,636.....	£10,568,455
1836.....	1,591,381.....	12,425,605
1837.....	1,643,204.....	4,695,225
1838.....	2,314,141.....	7,585,760
1839.....	2,298,307.....	8,839,204

"As the exports from Great Britain to the United States extend little or nothing beyond our own produce and manufactures, it is at first sight not easy to reconcile what we return as the amount of our exports to the United States with what the United States government returns as the amount of their exports from this country. Among the causes which seem to explain the excess of the United States return, one is, that the freight of the goods is only earned and added to their value after arrival, and the other, that all the imports into the United States, south of New York, will for the last two or three years have been estimated, we might perhaps add, paid for, in depreciated money. Still, explain it as we will, the irregularity of the United States, as a customer of this country, is remarkable. The trade is large, but occasional disorder is one of the conditions under which we enjoy it.

HOPS, MALT, BREWERS, ETC., OF ENGLAND.

The total number of acres of land in England and Wales, under the cultivation of hops, in the year 1840, amounted to 44,805; the duty on hops of the growth of 1840, amounted altogether to £62,253; the quantity of British hops exported from Great Britain to foreign countries, from the 5th of January, 1840, to the 5th of January, 1841, was 923,881 lbs.; the quantity of foreign hops imported into the United Kingdom, in the year ending January 5, 1841, was 11,966 lbs. It further appears, from the above return, that the total number of quarters of malt made between the 5th of January, 1840, and the 5th of January, 1841, in the United Kingdom, amounted altogether to 5,337,107, out of which 3,564,411 were used by brewers and victuallers, and 420,858 by retail brewers; that the number of persons licensed to sell beer "to be drunk on the premises," in England, between the 5th of January, 1840, and the 5th of January, 1841, amounted to 36,871; and the number licensed to sell beer not to be drunk on the premises, to 5,742. The number of bushels of malt consumed by the former was 2,913,978, and the number consumed by the latter 452,890. The quantity consumed by brewers in the whole of the United Kingdom, during the same period, was 19,866,154 bushels, and the quantity consumed by victuallers 8,649,145 bushels.

QUANTITY OF SOAP MADE IN GREAT BRITAIN, IN 1840.

The total quantity of hard soap made in Great Britain from January 5, 1840, to January 5, 1841, was 159,220,068 lbs.; and the total quantity of soft soap made during the same period was 13,535,856. The quantity of hard soap exported from January 5, 1840, to January 5, 1841, was 22,004,075 lbs.; and the quantity of soft soap, 7,008 lbs.; the amount of drawback paid thereon being £140,745. The quantity of hard soap exported to Ireland was 9,930,108 lbs., and that of soft soap 187,244 lbs. The total quantity of foreign hard soap imported into Great Britain was 642 cwt., and the amount of duty received thereon £1,279 18s. 8d. The total quantity of foreign soft soap imported was 87 cwt., and the amount of duty received thereon £203 2s. 6d.

EXPORTATION OF COCOA FROM GUAYAQUIL.

The London Journal of Commerce gives the following statement of the quantity of cocoa exported from Guayaquil for the last eight years—that is, from the year 1833 to 1840, showing a total of 80,960,965 lbs., and an increase in 1840 of nearly 8,000,000 lbs. The quantity exported each year is as follows:—1833, 6,605,786; 1834, 10,999,853; 1835, 13,800,851; 1836, 10,918,565; 1837, 8,520,121; 1838, 7,199,057; 1839, 12,159,787; 1840, 14,266,942 lbs. The countries to which the cocoa was exported were Spain, England, France, United States, Mexico, Central America, New Granada, Peru, Chili, Manilla, Hamburg, Genoa, St. Thomas, Rio Janeiro, Rio de la Plata. Of the quantity exported, England receives but a small portion, being no more than 864,177 lbs. Spain takes the greatest proportion, and Mexico follows. The quantity shipped to the former place for the period stated is 37,477,503 lbs., and to the latter 10,865,561 lbs.

PRODUCTION OF COFFEE IN THE WORLD.

The British Almanac states that "according to an approximative estimate prepared by Mr. McQueen, the quantity of coffee produced in the various countries in which it forms a commercial export, is as follows:—

	<i>Pounds.</i>
Brazils,.....	134,000,000
Cuba and Puerto Rico,.....	49,840,000
Java,.....	80,174,460
Hayti,.....	43,007,522
French tropical colonies,.....	14,720,000
Venezuela and Colombia,.....	11,544,024
Surinam,.....	2,400,000
Mocha,.....	5,500,000
Central America,.....	897,540
British West Indies,.....	10,769,655
British India,.....	6,245,028
	359,398,229

The consumption of coffee in Great Britain, during the year 1838, was 24,920,820 lbs., being more than double the quantity supposed to be produced by the British West Indies.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN THE WORLD.

The following approximative estimate of the quantity of sugar produced in different parts of the world, is taken from the British Almanac:—

	<i>cwts.</i>
British sugar colonies,.....	3,571,378
British India,.....	519,126
Danish West Indies,.....	450,000
Dutch ditto	260,060
French sugar colonies,.....	2,160,000
United States,.....	900,000
Brazils, (exact quantity of white not disting'hed)	2,400,000
Spanish West Indies,.....	4,481,340
Java, (without distinction of quality,).....	892,475
For internal consumption, exclusive of China, India, Siam, Java, and United States,.....	2,446,337
	18,080,658

COMMERCE OF CUBA, IN 1840.

The official statement of the commerce of Cuba, in the year 1840, has been made public. It appears, from this document, that the exports of that most productive spot of earth, amounted, in the year 1840, to almost twenty-six millions of dollars, being four millions and a half more than in 1839. The quantity of sugar exported was six times as large as the quantity of beet sugar grown in France during a similar period. The immense wealth of Cuba, and her great productiveness, in despite of all the embarrassments imposed upon her by Spain, render her an interesting object for the contemplation of political economists. The foreign trade of that island is equal to one fifth of the foreign trade of the whole United States, including cotton, tobacco, breadstuffs, and all the rest. Her internal trade is, however, comparatively small, as there is very little variety in the pursuits of her people, almost all of them being engaged in agriculture, and that confined to two articles, the sugar cane and coffee tree.

The statement exhibits, in detail, the following general results:—

1.—Total Value of Imports,.....	\$24,700,189	}	(a)
Total Value of Exports,.....	\$25,941,783		

2.—Number of vessels of various nations which have entered the twelve ports of the island open to foreign commerce:—

Spanish, 958; American, (United States,) 1465(b); British, 355; French, 59; Belgian, 24; Holland, 21; Hamburg, 32; Bremen, 37; Danish, 20; Swedish, 3; Prussian, 2; Russian, 1; Sardinian, 9; Portuguese, 29; Mexican, 4; Oriental Republic, 1; Granada, 3—Total 3023.

3. Imports—(Articles of prime necessity.)

Rice, arrobas of 25½ English,....	675,082	Butter,.....arrobas,.....	12,698
Codfish, do.	434,412	Cheese,.....do.....	28,888
Pork, pickled, bbls.....	3,871	Jerked Beef,.....do.....	1,229,100
Flour, do.....	194,023	Salted Pork,.....do.....	12,931
Hams,.....arrobas,.....	32,426	Sperm candles, lbs.....	209,205
Lard,.....do.....	168,860	Tallow do. arrobas,.....	52,171

4. Exports—(Principal articles.)

Rum, pipes,.....	10,209	Molasses,.....hogsheads,.....	146,464
Sugar,.....arrobas,.....	12,863,856	Tobacco, leaf,.....arrobas,.....	169,671
Coffee,..... do.	2,143,573	Do. cigars,....lbs.....	849,824
Beeswax,.... do.	26,131		

5. Duties—Imports,.....	\$5,951,801
“ Exports,.....	1,435,696

\$7,387,497

6. Value of Imports—

From Spain in Spanish vessels, \$5,288,276	From Hanseatic towns,.....	\$391,231
do. in foreign do. 6,985	“ Denmark,.....	47,914
“ For. countries in do. do., 6,684,718	“ Turkey,.....	901
“ Spanish America,.....	“ Italy,.....	20,297
“ The United States,.....	“ Portugal,.....	8,294
“ Great Britain,.....	Value of imports in deposit,....	3,357,172
“ France,.....		
“ Belgium,.....	Grand Total,.....	\$24,700,189
“ Holland,.....		

7. Value of Exports—

To Spain in Spanish vessels, \$3,473,630	To Denmark,.....	\$11,686
“ For. countries in do. do. 2,044,441	“ Sweden,.....	56,233
“ Spanish America,.....	“ Russia,.....	856,479 (e)
“ The United States,.....	“ Italy,.....	108,544
“ Great Britain,..... (c)	“ Portugal,.....	211,397
“ France,.....	Val. of exports from deposit, 2,987,745	
“ Belgium,.....		
“ Holland,.....	Grand Total,.....	\$25,941,783
“ The Hanseatic towns,.. 2,122,057 (d)		

(a) Excess of Exports of 1840 over those of 1839,.....	\$4,459,921
Gold and Silver Coin imported,.....	1,362,226
“ “ “ exported,.....	1,053,100

Excess of Imports,..... \$309,126

The circulation of the country has increased, in the last eight years, \$6,246,788; of which \$5,366,691 is in gold, the rest in silver.

(b) Of the vessels of the United States, many are of the largest class. Many also, besides the direct voyage in and out, make a coasting voyage in quest of cargo.

(c) Most of the large American ships, carrying sugar to Europe, clear for Great Britain, e. for “Coves and a market.”

(d) (e) A great part in American ships.

NOTES TO IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

1. This valuation is founded on the customhouse valuations, which being fixed, are, generally speaking, much lower than the selling price, duty off. It makes no account of smuggling, which, inward and outward, is considerable.

2. It shows the commercial movement to have amounted to \$50,641,972; being \$3,844,307 greater than that of the year 1839.

IMPORTATION OF GRAIN AND FLOUR INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The following is a statement of the total number of quarters of each kind of grain, and cwts. of flour and meal, imported into all the ports of Great Britain, in the year ending the 5th January, 1841, showing the proportion imported and charged with duty in December, 1840, and the quantity remaining in bond on the 5th January, 1841, and also the rates of duty on foreign from the 4th of February, 1841:—

QUARTERS OF	Rates of Duty.	Total imported from 5th Jan., 1840, to 5th Jan., 1841.	PROPORTION FROM 5TH DEC. TO 5TH JAN.		Remaining in Bond, 5th Jan., 1841.
			Imported.	Charged with duty.	
Wheat,.....	25s. 8d.	1,992,169	38,276	4,991	83,729
Barley,.....	13s. 10d.	629,897	5,868	4,349	9,545
Oats,.....	15s. 3d.	538,286	6,550	291	9,478
Beans,.....	9s. 6d.	127,602	9,792	9,968	763
Peas,.....	11s. 0d.	160,600	40,915	39,920	1,948
Rye, &c.....	19s. 9d.	27,783	1,627	40	4,930
Total quarters,.....		3,476,337	103,023	59,559	109,391
Cwts. of Wheat Flour,.....		1,545,100	152,753	50,579	183,883
Oat, &c., Meal,.....		8,668	2,379	817	1,608

Of the flour imported in December, 1841, 107,279 cwts. were from British possessions, and of the quantity remaining on hand 115,402 cwts. are also of British colonial produce. Of the wheat remaining in bond, 2,152 qrs. only are from British possessions.

WINES IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND.

The total quantity of the various sweets, or made wines, imported from Scotland and Ireland into England, from January 5, 1839, to January 5, 1840, was 28,298 gallons; and the total quantity imported from the same countries into England, from January 5, 1840, to January 5, 1841, was altogether 26,771 gallons.

SUGAR IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND.

The quantities of sugar imported into the United Kingdom in the year 1840 were as follow, viz:—British plantation sugar, 2,202,833 cwts.; Mauritius, 545,009 cwts.; East India, 482,836 cwts.; Foreign, 805,167 cwts. Total, 4,035,845 cwts.; and the quantity retained for actual consumption in the United Kingdom in 1840 was 3,594,834 cwts. The nett revenue arising from the duties on sugar in the same year amounted to £4,449,070.

THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW was established July, 1839. The number for June, 1841, closed the second year of the existence of this work, and completed the fourth volume. It is published monthly, at FIVE DOLLARS per annum, in advance. Six monthly numbers form a volume of nearly six hundred octavo pages, with a titlepage and copious index. The first four volumes, neatly and substantially bound, can be procured of the publisher, 142 Fulton street, New York, at the subscription price, and the cost of binding—fifty cents per volume. As the repository of statistical information of foreign and domestic trade, commerce, manufactures, banking, etc., etc., collected and compiled from official sources, and classified in tables, it will be found peculiarly valuable as a standard work of reference.