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ART. I.—MOROCCO, AND ITS FACILITIES FOR AMERICAN
COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

MOROCCO—NATURE OF ITS GOVERNMENT—POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE—ITS
HARBORS AND PORTS—EXPORT AND IMPORT DUTIES—THE MERCHANTS OF
MOROCCO—CHARACTER OF THE TRADE AS AT PRESENT CONDUCTED—SUG-
GESTIONS FOR IMPROVING AND INCREASING THE TRADE—TRADE WITH WED-
NOON, AND TO THE COAST SOUTH OF MOROCCO.

If we consider the situation of the empire of Morocco, its proximity to the civilized communities of Europe, the value of the commercial relations it already sustains with them, and the vast resources of the country, which a properly directed spirit of enterprise might now easily and rapidly develop, it seems really astonishing that the commercial men of our country have hitherto, with a few fortunate exceptions, almost wholly neglected so promising a field for the exercise of that business tact and talent, which is gradually insuring them a trading pre-eminence in the most distant and barbarous countries in the world. This neglect can only be accounted for by the scanty and unsatisfactory nature of our information respecting *Maghrib el Acsa*, or the extreme west, as the empire of Morocco is called by its inhabitants. Neither its vicinity to Europe, nor an active commerce carried on with it for many ages by the most enlightened European nations, have made them even moderately well acquainted with the geography, the natural history, or the antiquities of one of the most interesting countries on the face of the globe. It has been justly observed by Mr. Matra, an English consul at Morocco, that there have been more books written on Barbary than on any other country, and yet there is no country with which we are so little acquainted. Since Mr. Matra's time, a number of new books have appeared, but without affecting the truth of his observation, or its applicability to the present time. In this country the ignorance is still more profound; and it may be safely asserted that there is no country, of the same extent and importance, of which our notions in respect to the nature of the government, the condition and habits of the people, the products of the soil, the physical geography of the country, the facilities for trade, and the character of the harbors and ports, are so very far from

the truth. Convinced that the subject is one that can be made of great importance to the commercial interests of the country, we propose to throw out, in a concise and cursory way, a few observations and reflections upon the trading resources and facilities of Morocco, and to offer some suggestions for the improvement of the trade between the two countries. In order to a proper understanding of the latter part of the subject, it will be necessary to make some remarks upon those circumstances that exert an immediate controlling effect upon commerce; such as the nature of the government, character of the people, &c.; and a full comprehension of our observations will be much facilitated by a reference to the following sketch of the coast, which we have thought it useful to subjoin:



The government of Morocco is generally supposed to be an unlimited despotism. This is not exactly true. The power of the emperor is limited in many particulars, and by a great many circumstances, and is very different in different parts of the empire. In some provinces his authority is readily acknowledged and obeyed; in others only a nominal obedience is rendered; while in others, in the very heart of the country, he has not the slightest influence, and even his name is hardly known. All along the Atlantic coast, from the straits of Gibraltar to Mogadore, his authority is well established. In the rich and populous district of Suse, he has not much more than a nominal sovereignty; and among the Berebber tribes of Mount Atlas, and in a large district situated directly between his two principal cities, Fas and Morocco, his power is held in the most perfect contempt. He is also controlled by public opinion, and the religious prejudices of his people, which the most daring despot is forced to respect. Certain local customs and privileges also very much modify his power, in places where it is best established. In some parts, for instance, he can permit the exportation of cattle and grain; in others, it would so offend the prejudices of the inhabitants, that he would not dare attempt it. From the town of Rabat it would be almost impossible to export sheep or cattle, which can be readily taken from Cassa Blanca and Mazagan to the south, or from Tangier to the north. The despotism which reigns in Morocco, although not perfectly unlimited, is, however, exceedingly simple in its form, and for that reason offers fewer impediments to the progress of civilization, than would arise from a system of tyranny with a more complex organization. If the emperor should choose to take any steps for the improvement of his people, he would meet but little of that kind of opposition which has so long thwarted the efforts of the Ottoman emperors. His authority is not shared with a mufti, or a religious body, like the Ulema; and he would not be interrupted by the insolent pretensions of a privileged class of nobles and soldiery. May it not be hoped that an emperor will soon arise, who will take advantage of the favorable circumstances of his situation, and exercise his power for the redemption of a country which may otherwise, in a comparatively short space of time, stand an isolated monument of Mohammedan barbarism? The present emperor, Muley Abdrahaman, cannot be expected to do much good; but he has the very considerable honor, for an emperor of Morocco, of not doing much harm: and it will be something for his reign that he has not impeded, by any active exertions, like his immediate predecessor, Muley Suleiman, the improving influence of a commerce, however feeble and miserably conducted. His eldest son, who has already been admitted to the honor of the umbrella, the exclusive privilege of imperial power, is supposed to have a comparatively enlarged mind. He is about twenty-five years of age; resides in vice-regal style in the old king-making city of Fas; and, although the succession is generally very uncertain, will most probably, without difficulty, step into his father's place.

The population of Morocco, according to Count Graberg de Hempso,*

* *Cavalier Count James Graberg de Hempso*, author of *Spechio Geografico e Statistico dell' Impero di Morocco*, written in Italian, and published at Genoa. The count is a Swede, and formerly resided at Tangier, as *chargé d'affaires* of Sweden, and diplomatic agent for Sardinia. In 1822, he was unceremoniously ejected from the country by the then emperor, Muley Suleiman. It had been represented to the emperor, that the

and other authors, consists of four distinct races, viz : Amazirgs, Moors, Arabs, and Jews. The Amazirgs, or Mazirgs, M. de Hemso observes, are the direct descendants of the most ancient inhabitants, not only of *Maghrib el Acsa*, but even of all Northern Africa, from the banks of the Nile. A writer, however, in the London Quarterly, questions whether they ever occupied this extent of territory. The Amazirg tribes extended from the Atlantic ocean to Sewah, or the oasis of Jupiter Ammon ; but of their permanent residence eastward of this or on the Nile, (the irruptions of predatory tribes being left out of consideration,) there is no historical evidence. They were also the original inhabitants of the Canary islands, and furnished the mummies which have frequently been found in the caves of Teneriffe. It is by them also that the great desert of Sahara is peopled. The chief Amazirg tribes now dwelling in Morocco, are the Berebbers and Shelluhs ; the former occupying the hills in the northern part, and extending eastward towards Algiers ; the latter spreading from the neighborhood of Mequinez. It has been a subject of much dispute whether there is any radical difference in the language of these two tribes. Mr. Jackson maintains that they are perfectly distinct. M. de Hemso, on the other hand, asserts their close resemblance. He says : " A Spanish priest in Tangier who, in his various journeys through *Maghrib el Acsa*, had often spent the night among the Shelluhs of Beni Hassan and Temsna, and who had also had much intercourse with the Berebbers, with whose language he was tolerably well acquainted, assured me, that between these two dialects there is at least as much resemblance as between English and Low Dutch. With respect to the characters of the two tribes, he used to say that the Shelluhs appeared to him to be the French of Maghrib, and the Berebbers the Belgians." The question of language is, however, unimportant to our present purpose, and we must leave the Maroqueen philologists to settle the question among themselves.

The next to the Amazirgs, in point of numbers, are the Moors. It is generally conceded that they are the descendants of the Moors who were driven out of Spain after the conquest of Granada. They are by far the most interesting class, in a commercial view. They are much the largest proportion of the population of the cities and seaports. They hold all the offices, and it is with them that the merchant comes directly in contact. A knowledge of their character is, therefore, essential for any one having dealings with them ; a knowledge which, in some instances, has been pretty dearly bought. M. de Hemso draws a pretty highly-colored, but tolerably correct picture of them. He says : " I who, during a period of twelve years, have lived among and dealt with Moors, of various districts, and who have studied with attention their character and dispositions, can conscientiously assert, that their character is made up of every thing that

count had, in some European publication, spoken disparagingly of his government ; in addition to which the count had the audacity to ask payment for twenty guns, which, at the emperor's order, he had procured from Sweden. A party of soldiers made their appearance at the Swedish consulate just at dark, and, without allowing the count a single moment for any kind of preparation, hurried him down to the water-port, and despatched him in a boat for Gibraltar. The count and his nation were compelled to pocket the affront. This anecdote illustrates the improvement which has within a few years taken place in the diplomatic intercourse of the country. An emperor of Morocco would not now dare to think of committing such an outrage.

is meanest and vilest in the heart of man. They are now, and will be for ages to come, exactly the same barbarians they were in the days of Salust and Procopius: that is to say, they are fickle, perfidious, cruel, and incapable of being restrained either by fear or kindness. Even their countenance has in it something sinister and revolting, which cannot be contemplated without an involuntary shudder." This is certainly not very flattering; but it is impossible to deny that it is pretty nearly true. The worthy count has, perhaps, laid on the color a little too thick in some places; but then he had had twelve years experience, ending in a gross outrage, and a regular swindle of twenty pieces of cannon by the imperial Diddler, and a little exaggeration can be readily pardoned. He ought not, however, to have been quite so indiscriminate in his denunciations. The truth is, that the varieties in the character of the people, in the different districts into which the country is divided, is one of the most important elements in the calculation of the prospects of mercantile success—an element which has hitherto been entirely overlooked in the general and sweeping abuse of common superficial observers. True it is, that as a nation, the Moors are the most perfectly demoralized people upon the face of the globe, with the exception, perhaps, of their brethren in the other Barbary states. The most atrocious and disgusting vices are the common practice; and their utter contempt of truth, and of the commonest principles of honesty, has been and is the theme of all who have come in contact with them. But it must be observed, that there are different degrees of depravity in different districts, and that a thorough knowledge of these, and of the local characteristics of particular towns or provinces, will very much qualify our notions upon the subject. Take, by way of illustration, the town of Rabat. This city is situated on the Atlantic coast, between Cape Spartel and Mogadore, at the mouth of the river Bure-greb. It is directly opposite the town of Salle, once so celebrated for its corsairs, but which has now fallen into decay, partly from the suppression of its piratical trade, partly from the filling up of its side of the harbor with sand, brought down and deposited by the river, and partly from the superior activity and enterprise of its rival, Rabat. Salle, half in ruins, is now scantily inhabited by a miserable, Christian-hating, bigoted population. It is impossible for a Christian to set foot within the town, even under the protection of Moorish guards; and the traveller arriving by land, is compelled to make a detour round the walls to reach the ferry, from fear of being stoned; and even then he will be fortunate if he escapes insult from the Salle vagabonds surrounding the boats on the beach. On crossing the river, a distance of less than a quarter of a mile, the change is found to be very great. Rabat is a large and flourishing town, of about twenty-five thousand inhabitants. The native bigotry and ferocity of the people have been qualified by the residence among them of a number of Moorish merchants, who are in the habit of making frequent expeditions to Gibraltar, Marseilles, Genoa, and Leghorn, and who, by their intercourse with Europeans, have become disabused of some of their prejudices, accustomed to the sight of Christians, and polished into a toleration of the refinements and habits of civilized life. Rabat has also some political privileges peculiar to itself, the remains of the customs and laws by which it was governed two or three centuries since, when it existed as a kind of republic, varying its degree of independence from time to time, as it was more or less able to resist the encroachments of the kings of Fas or Morocco.

There exists a peculiar institution, or society, in this city, which we believe has never yet been noticed by any writer. It is called the *Itarbane*, or the *Forty*. This society, although called the Forty, numbers several hundred. Its object is, in case of the emperor's death, or any political convulsion, to enforce the laws, to protect the persons and property of the Jews, and to prevent those excesses which, upon such occasions, are always committed in other cities. Should there occur any political difficulties, the Itarbane take possession of the city, place sentinels in all the streets, prevent the assembling of mobs, and punish, with the severest penalties, any infraction of their regulations. Owing to this custom, *El Millah*, or that quarter of the city devoted to the Jews, has never been pillaged—a thing that cannot be said of any other city in the country. All the members of this Itarbane are highly respected and respectable, and the meanest of them are treated by the bashaw and his officers with the highest consideration. Property in Rabat is probably as safe as in any city of Europe. How erroneous is it then, to include in one sweeping denunciation, towns and provinces which differ so much from each other in social and political characteristics—or to consider as universal many of the obstacles to commercial enterprise which are, in a great measure, dependent upon local circumstances!

“In addition to these two classes of inhabitants, there are quite a number of Arabs, chiefly Bedwins, who inhabit the sun-burnt plains of Maghrib. They live in low, black tents, generally grouped together into a small village, or *douah*, of three or four hundred inhabitants. They raise a little grain, but their chief dependence is upon their flocks. When the land is exhausted in one place, they readily strike their tents and seek a new place to encamp; and, in the course of their wanderings, undergo hardly any change either in manners or language.” It is from them that some of the principal articles of trade, as wool, wax, and sheep-skins, are obtained.

The Jews are the next most numerous class. They are chiefly the descendants of those who were driven out of Spain. Although kept in the most degrading subjection to the Moors, the greater part of the trade of the country is in their hands; from which, however, owing to the exactions of the government, very few amass any wealth. The Jews who dwell among the Berebbers of Mount Atlas, and who are supposed to have been established in the country from remote antiquity, enjoy a comparatively happy lot. They are generally agriculturists, and live in freedom and comfort.

The following is M. de Hemso's summary of the whole population :

Amazirgs,	{ Berebbers,	2,300,000
	{ Shelluhs,	1,450,000
Moors, Ludaya, Arabs, &c.,		3,550,000
Bedwin, and other pure Arabs,		740,000
Jews,		339,500
Negroes,		120,000
Christians,		300
Renegades,		200
		<hr/>
Total,		8,500,000

This estimate is undoubtedly exaggerated. A writer in the London Quarterly thinks, and probably with justice, that Balbi's estimate of six

millions, and Lieut. Washington's five or six millions, is abundantly high. At best such estimates must be but the purest conjecture.

One of the greatest difficulties in the way of trade with Morocco, is the want of safe harbors for vessels of a large size. Our seamen have a perfect horror of the North African coast, and the less they know of it the greater their dread. The freight on a cargo of wool from Mazagan to Mogadore, will be at least fifty cents per quintal more than from Gibraltar, the same distance; and many vessels it would be impossible to charter at any price. This difficulty would have been before this entirely obviated, were it not for the absurd quarantine laws of Gibraltar, which amount, during a great part of the year, to an almost entire prohibition of the trade in small vessels, which would otherwise be carried on, and which would make that port the depot for the commerce of Morocco. Were it not for the quarantine of some articles, and the refusal of admission to others that happen to be pronounced particularly susceptible, by an ignorant board of health officers, the exports of Morocco could be easily taken, as, in despite of this great disadvantage, they are to some extent now, in feluccas, mesticos, and other lateen craft, to Gibraltar, and there transhipped into larger vessels for distant ports. These small boats could enter ports inaccessible to larger vessels—could find many places of safety in bad weather—could lie much nearer the shore, which, in ports like Mogadore, Saffe, and Mazagan, would diminish the trouble and danger of loading—and could pick up their cargoes at the most convenient points on the coast. But several articles of the highest importance are not allowed to be landed at all, and many articles are strictly quarantined—wool, for instance, is strictly excluded; and a single Moorish sash, or piece of cloth, on board a market-boat from Morocco, will quarantine the unlucky boat, cargo, passengers, and crew. The utility of quarantine, in any quarter of the world, and under any circumstances, is exceedingly doubtful; but it is particularly absurd in this case, as it is enforced simply to guard against nothing. What can be more ridiculous than that, because they have, two or three times, had yellow fever at Gibraltar, precautions should be taken against the plague, which, in Morocco, they have not had for many years; and which, now that the overland communication with Egypt is broken up, they may never have again? Notwithstanding its manifest absurdity and inconvenience, however, it is idle to expect a reformation in this matter for many years; and any trade we may have with the empire of Morocco, unless some new plan can be devised, will have to encounter all the disadvantages of its ports. These, however, are not nearly so great as is generally supposed. It cannot be denied, that those on the Atlantic coast are very far from being perfectly safe; but their character has been to some extent misrepresented, and their dangers exaggerated. Proper prudence and good ground-tackle, are all that is necessary to make some of the worst roadsteads of the coast fully equal to many in different parts of the world, which enjoy a comparatively respectable character for safety and facility of access. Let these dangers, however, be estimated at their true value, and they will always be a great drawback upon commercial enterprise.

Mogadore is the most southern port of the empire, and the one that has for a number of years enjoyed the most trade. We quote the observations respecting it, of the late well-known Capt. Riley, who was of course well qualified to judge. "The harbor spreads itself before the town to the south, and is shielded from the sea by an island about two miles long and

half a mile abroad, only distant from the water-port point about five hundred yards. Between the island and water-port vessels enter, keeping the island side close on board, until they run down half the length of it, when they may anchor in two and a half fathoms, at low water, within a cable's length of the island, and with good cables and anchors, ride safe during three quarters of the year. In the months of December, January, and February, strong gales prevail from the westward, which heave in such heavy swells round the two ends of the island, that what seamen call the send, or swing of the sea, breaks the strongest cables, and forces all the vessels in port on shore." But a year since, the truth of the captain's observations was abundantly proved in the case of his own vessel, the brig William Tell, in which he traded for several years with Mogadore. She was forced on shore, a complete wreck; and a French vessel of war, that was in the harbor at the time, escaped the same fate only by getting out six anchors, and throwing her guns overboard; and even then she was so strained, that she was compelled to go to Cadiz for repairs.

Saffé is the next port of any consequence. It is formed by the projection of Cape Cantin. The bay is spacious, and pretty well protected from the winds by the Cape; but the anchorage is very bad, and vessels have to lie pretty well out from land. The landing is troublesome, as the surf generally rolls in strong to the beach. Loading a cargo is of course no easy matter.

Mazagan is safe in the summer months, but it is ineffectually sheltered in winter, and a ledge of rocks is apt to receive vessels exposed to a gale from the southwest. Like Saffé, loading is sometimes exceedingly difficult.

At Da el beda the landing is better, but it is safe only in the summer months.

Eidallah is comparatively safe, even in winter, being sheltered by a peninsula which has been frequently called an island; but the landing is bad, and with much wind perfectly impossible.

Rabat, Marmora, and Larache, once famous ports, are all closed up by bars, which will admit the passage of small vessels only. At Rabat the bar is very narrow, and vessels of nine feet draft, by watching their opportunity, can pass it, and when once in are perfectly safe, and lie directly alongside of a ledge of rocks making a kind of natural dock.

But if the Atlantic coast is but poorly provided with harbors, the same complaint cannot be made respecting the small portion of the northern shore which is washed by the straits of Gibraltar. Tangier is one of the most convenient and secure harbors in the neighborhood of the straits. It is in many respects far superior to the bay of Gibraltar, and yet is most carefully eschewed by vessels of both our commercial and national marine. Capt. Riley says, "Tangier bay is the best harbor in the Moorish dominions, its bottom is clear, and it might contain at one time a thousand large vessels, which would ride in safety, being sheltered from all but the northerly winds, which have only the rake of the breadth of the strait, and the holding ground is excellent." Were it not that the province of *El Garb* surrounding Tangier is unproductive of most of the articles required for export, and that there are no roads through it to the more fertile provinces of the south, Tangier would be one of the principal cities of the empire, and the centre of all its trade. It has been distinguished from the earliest time as a commercial city, and for the advantages of its harbor. Under the Phenicians it was a great trading mart, second only to Carthage. It preserved

the character of its port up to its desertion by the English in the time of Charles II. By the Portuguese it was frequently attacked, but without success. In 1470 the Portuguese made an attack upon Azila, a town about twenty miles south of Tangier, and carried it by storm. The Moors were seized with a panic upon the receipt of the news, and the inhabitants of Tangier, which had hitherto been reputed impregnable, abandoned the town, which was quietly taken possession of by a detachment of Portuguese. It was given to the English as a dowry for Catherine of Portugal, queen of Charles II., and by them retained about twenty years. The Moors, however, gave them so much trouble that it was evacuated, and a fine mole of eighteen hundred feet in length was blown up. The foundations of this mole are still above low water, and afford considerable protection to small vessels. After the desertion of the English the reputation of the bay declined—until, within a few years, the English and French naval officers have found that it is as comfortable a place to lie in as is required. Unfounded notions of foul ground, bad anchorage, and heavy swells, will, however, probably render it for years a bugbear to our service.

But what, perhaps more than all other circumstances combined, has hampered trade, and prevented an extension of the commercial relations of Morocco, are the heavy and fluctuating duties levied at the caprice of the emperor upon the principal articles of export. It has not unfrequently been the case that merchants have been suffered to purchase largely under one tariff, and have then been compelled to pay an increased duty before their property would be allowed to be embarked. This has been attempted not more than two or three years since in the case of a large quantity of grain, which, under the influence of the demand for it in England, had been purchased by agents of European houses. A spirited remonstrance from the consular corps, however, convinced the emperor of the impossibility of any longer continuing the system of seducing merchants into the purchase of the products of the country for exportation under one rate of duties, and then extorting more money from them by an arbitrary and sudden increase of tax. Barbaric pride has suffered such a blow by the capture of Algiers; the entire decay of their naval power, which once carried terror to all the Mediterranean coasts; and by the more manly and decided tone which has been assumed by the representatives of Christian nations, that the merchant has not nearly so much danger to apprehend from the capricious exercise of despotic power, and the uncertainty and variableness of commercial regulations. The present emperor, Muley Abdrahaman, is by no means a man of enlarged views, but he has had the advantage of having been, during the reign of his uncle Muley Suleiman, at the head of the customhouse at Mogadore, and he understands the fact pretty well that too many exactions will diminish instead of increasing his revenue. His chief vice, in the eyes of his subjects, is avarice; but this makes him, as far as he knows how, a patron and encourager of trade. It acts as a counterpoise to his religious and political bigotry, which would otherwise lead him to carry out the principles of Muley Suleiman, who openly avowed his determination to cut off all communication with Christians, and to keep his subjects as poor as possible. Of a mild, quiet disposition, Muley Abdrahaman carefully eschews, where it is possible, any political or commercial difficulties, either with his own subjects or with foreigners; and, as compared with his whimsical predecessors, he may be said to be free from caprice. The fact is, that within a few years past,

both the rulers and the people, especially of the towns, have undergone a considerable change and improvement. The tone of public opinion has altered, and a feeling of relationship with Christian countries is beginning to be perceptible. The residence among them of foreigners for commercial purposes is not merely tolerated but desired, and although the hatred of Christians is just as strong, it is not so openly and generally expressed.

The commerce of this empire, as it is at present conducted, is principally in the hands of the Jews, although in some of the towns there are quite a number of Moorish merchants. The Moors have naturally a strong turn for trade, but it is impossible for them to successfully compete with their Jewish rivals, who have in several particulars very decided advantages. The cunning rascality and faithlessness of the Jew merchants of Barbary has passed into a proverb; and notwithstanding the endeavors of their Moorish masters to emulate them, they are likely to remain unsurpassed. But with all their skill and industry they very seldom get rich; or if they do, it is very seldom that they keep their wealth. The emperor in the end generally proves too much for them. Very few of them commence with any capital of their own. It is always borrowed from the emperor, who loans it in sums of from one to ten thousand dollars, and generally without interest. The only consideration for it is, that the borrower shall "make business," as the phrase is, for the customhouse, and the only security is the power of the emperor to come down at any moment upon his debtor, and squeeze principal, interest, profits and all out of him; when, if he yields pretty well, the emperor will perhaps set him up in business again, again to go through the same process. The greater facility with which this system is carried on with the oppressed and degraded Jews renders it almost impossible for his Moorish subjects to obtain the same favors, and they are therefore compelled to trade upon their own capital. The Jew, with his borrowed capital, is compelled to "make business," without any regard to the demands of trade or the state of the markets. He must buy and sell even if he is sure of a loss, and in many cases he is not allowed to dispose of, to any one in the country, articles he may have collected for export. He must export them himself, so as to pay the export duty into the customhouse. If he does not, he is accused of not "making business," and orders are at once issued to have him squeezed. There are, however, some Jewish agents for foreign houses, who are rather more independent, but even they are subject to many exactions and restrictions, and are often called upon for contributions, in the shape of presents to bashaws and other officials. But by far the most independent business men are the few Christian merchants who have stationed themselves at several points on the coast. Of these the principal is the well known English and American vice-consul, Mr. Willshire. He has been largely engaged in a lucrative business for a number of years. In connection with a house in the city of New York, he has been doing a good deal in wool, sheep-skins, and oil, which it is supposed has been very profitable. There are two or three other Christians in the same place. At Mazagan, a European has recently established himself, where he acts as American vice-consul, and agent for a wealthy merchant in Gibraltar. At Rabat and Tangier there has resided for several years a Mr. Ray, the representative of a wealthy French house of Marseilles, who has been doing a very large business, principally in wool and wax. At Larache and Tetuan there are also several Christians who officiate as consular and commercial agents.

They do a small business in wax, coarse wool, and oak bark for tanning. Tetuan was formerly the residence of the corps of consuls-general, but in 1770, an Englishman having killed a Moor, the Europeans were ordered to quit the place. The consuls have since resided in Tangier.*

Of the amount of trade that Morocco carries on with the whole world, it is impossible to arrive at any very accurate conclusion. A table quoted in a number of this magazine, (Vol. 3. No. 6, p. 554,) states the imports of English goods at £74,000. This estimate must be much too low, although we have no data at hand from which we can prove the fact. In 1836 the commerce of Morocco with France amounted to between 7 and 8,000,000 of francs. But to avoid the tediousness of statistical details, which at best are purely conjectural, we shall pass over the discrepant statements of different observers, and confine ourselves to a few practical remarks upon the more important articles of traffic.

The principal articles of import are English cotton manufactures, woolen cloth, iron, tea, sugar, raw silk, and cochineal. This last is an imperial monopoly: no one is allowed to import it but the emperor, or to sell it but his immediate agents; and as it is essential in the manufacture of the Fas cap, and in the coloring of the fine Morocco leather, he contrives to make a profit of five or six hundred per cent. Sulphur and powder are also prohibited articles. Iron bears a duty of \$2 50 per cwt., and raw silk fifty cents per pound. The duty on all other articles is ten per cent ad valorem. Of the cotton goods, such as common white muslins, nankeens, &c., of which a large amount is used, the principal part is English, although the Moors have a strong prejudice in favor of American manufactures. They have an idea that American cottons are made from cotton which has never been pressed into a bale, and that they are much stronger and more durable. So common is this notion that the English have found it convenient to stamp their cotton goods, intended for the Morocco market, with the word American, in Arabic characters. The Moors are great consumers of tea and sugar. Contrary to the custom of the Mohammedans of the Levant, they never drink coffee. Tea is the favorite beverage, and to be palatable it must be made thick with sugar. Indirectly, through Gibraltar, they take from us quite an amount of these articles.

The principal exports from Morocco are wool, oil, wax, leather, goat-skins, almonds, gums, cattle, and grain. Of these, wool† is the most important article. It is produced in every part of the empire; but the finest, and that which best bears exportation to this country, is grown in the province of Tedlar. Next in quality is the wool of Temsna. That which grows in the northern province of the empire, or El Garb, of which Tangier is the port, is coarse and difficult to obtain. By a reference to the map it

* The diplomatic relations of Christian countries with this empire are kept up by means of consuls-general, who, as diplomatic agents, receive salaries, and are not allowed to engage in business. Their whole number at present is fourteen. Russia and Prussia are the only nations who have no representatives. Some of them have the dignity of *chargé d'affaires*, and all of them, except the United States consul, have large salaries, and an allowance for vice-consul, secretary, &c. The presence of the consuls and numerous dependents makes Tangier quite like a Christian town.

† The wools of Morocco are the finest of Africa. The country being in certain parts cool and mountainous, it produces wool as fine as any part of Spain, and some districts rival in quality the fleeces of Saxony.—*Dictionnaire du Commerce*.

will be readily perceived that Rabat would be the nearest and most natural depot for the wool of Tedla and Temsna, were it not for the bar at the mouth of its port. The Arabs would much prefer to bring their wool to Rabat. As it is, they are compelled to pass by Rabat, and striking the coast in the neighborhood of Fedallah and Dar el Beider, proceed along south to the markets of Mazagan and Mogadore. Could the bar at Rabat be removed, it would soon take to itself all the business. It is impossible to bring wool from these provinces to any point further north than this town. To reach Tangier for instance, it must, owing to the rivers and robber tribes, pass through Rabat, and this the authorities of that city will never allow. Even if they would, however, it would be perfectly impossible to transport wool through the province of El Garb, owing to the expense. Roads there are none, except mere mule-tracks, and bridges are unknown, so that at some seasons the communication is entirely intercepted, and at all times is tedious and difficult. This fact is of importance, as it will furnish the ground-work for a suggestion, which, if carried into practice, will have the effect to obviate the difficulty of the bar at Rabat, and completely revolutionize the trade of the coast. Thirty years ago, in Mr. Jackson's time, an extensive trade was carried on in this article. The demand for it was so great, that representations were made to the then emperor that wearing apparel of the Barbary manufacture was rising in value, in consequence of the unlimited exportation of wool, and an order was in consequence issued prohibiting it. This put a stop to the trade. Within a few years it has revived again, and has rapidly increased, until, according to an estimate of our own, it amounts, at the low prices of seven dollars and eight dollars per quintal, to \$600,000 yearly. The duty is quite heavy, amounting to four dollars and two pounds of powder* per quintal. Formerly the duty was much less, but owing to the competition of the merchants who have endeavored to obtain, by higher bids, the exclusive privilege of exportation for particular ports, it has been gradually raised. In 1836, when the duty was three dollars and four pounds of powder per cwt., Mr. Ray, the head of the French house in Rabat, visited the emperor with the richest presents, and making an offer of four dollars and two pounds of powder, succeeded in obtaining a short-lived monopoly for Rabat. He exported under this contract about 10,000 quintals. Since then the duty has been definitely fixed at the same rate. A good deal of wool is taken out of the country on the skin. The duty upon the skin is six dollars per cwt. From fifteen to eighteen skins make a quintal, and each quintal yields about forty-five pounds of fine wool.

Olive oil is the next most valuable article of export, particularly to this country. It is strong, dark, and rancid, and is fit only for manufacturing purposes. This is perhaps not so much the fault of the olive as of the methods by which it is prepared. No care is taken in collecting the olives. They are beaten from the trees with poles, as in Portugal and Spain, suffered to lie on the ground in heaps until half putrified, then put in uncleaned presses, and the oil squeezed through the filthy residuum of former years. Good table oil might be made if care was taken, as in Florence and Lucca,

* The exaction of duty in the form of powder is a kind of compromise with Moorish bigotry. If the Christians are allowed to carry off grain, wool, &c., by which they may be nourished and protected, they are compelled to pay in powder, by which, perhaps some day, Allah willing, they may be destroyed.

to pick the olives without bruising them, and to press only those that were sweet and sound. But such-oil would but ill suit the palate of a Maroqueen, accustomed to drink by the pint and the quart the rancid product of his country.

Wax is an important article of export. The price varies from nine dollars to eleven dollars per cwt., but it has to bear an enormous duty of ten dollars a quintal. This makes it a good article for smuggling, or for bribery through the customhouse, an operation that is very extensively performed. It is principally sent to Italy and France; some of it, however, finds its way to this country, and we noticed recently the arrival of a quantity (probably intended for transhipment) from Mazagan.

Morocco leather, for which this country has been so famous, is now almost given up, as an article of export. It has not been able to bear the competition of the English and French manufacture, owing to the high duty of twenty-five cents; and it has been found much more profitable to take out the raw goat-skins, some of which find their way to this country. Nothing, however, that is produced in any other country can equal in brilliancy, softness, and strength the Morocco leather; and if the subject should ever be brought directly under the observation of American enterprise, this leather would no doubt become an exceedingly profitable subject of trade. The finest skins can be purchased for ten dollars per dozen, and the duty upon them there would not be much difficulty in entirely evading.

The only other articles that are of any importance to the trade with the United States, are almonds, dates, madeira nuts, ostrich feathers, ivory, gum, and leeches. Of these last we receive an immense number under the name of Portuguese and Spanish leeches. The emperor disposes of the exclusive privilege of buying the leeches which are brought to the towns of Larache, Tangier, and Tetuan, for six thousand dollars. Small boats from Malaga, Gibraltar, Cadiz, and Lisbon, receive these leeches at about \$4 50 per thousand, and take them to their respective ports, where they are transhipped for the United States and South America, and become the Portuguese and Spanish, and in some cases, the Swedish leeches of the trade.

The exportation of grain varies with the demand for it in the English market. Cattle are only taken for the supply of Gibraltar. The duty is stated at ten dollars a head. The English have, however, a contract with the emperor, by which they are allowed to take from the port of Tangier 2000 head at four dollars. The authorities of Gibraltar dispose of the contract for the supply of the troops to the lowest bidder, and give in this privilege; but the emperor nearly neutralizes it by disposing of the exclusive privilege of buying all the cattle for exportation, in the northern half of the kingdom, to one of his own subjects. The Moor buys up all the cattle that are to be exported, and the Gibraltar contractor is compelled to buy of him. This has led to many attempts to bring cattle from Mazagan, a point on the coast beyond the Moorish monopolist's jurisdiction, but the uncertainty of the voyage, with the small-sized, miserable Spanish lateen sailing vessels, prevents its being done successfully. Gibraltar has, therefore, to be supplied principally from Tangier, from which place several thousand head, besides those necessary for the garrison, are taken for the supply of the town.

Besides the articles which we have mentioned, Morocco produces a number of manufactures which, under proper circumstances, might be

profitably exported, with which nothing has hitherto been done. Morocco carpets, the finest and most beautiful reed matting, and a cheap kind of woollen cloth, admirably adapted for sailors' shirts and jackets, would undoubtedly pay a good profit. At present they are not even thought of.

From what has been said, it is very evident that the commercial capabilities of this empire are much greater than is generally supposed. That they have not been more thoroughly developed, is greatly owing to the general ignorance and prejudice prevailing upon the subject, as much as to the moral and physical obstacles which we have already considered.

The people in whose hands is the chief business, are incapable of conceiving any thing beyond the usual routine. Lazy, ignorant, jealous, and prejudiced, they look upon any innovation, or any exhibition of energy and enterprise, with suspicion and contempt. And in this they are fully equalled by the Spanish and Portuguese sailors, who principally visit their ports. Of the value of time they have no idea, and it will frequently take a Jewish merchant as long to ship two or three bales of wool, as would answer with us to freight a frigate. Even the very few Europeans who are engaged in trade, and have an opportunity of knowing the resources of the country, soon imbibe the same notions, and satisfied with what is, seem never to have entertained an idea of what might be. Could American enterprise be directed into this promising field, there can be no doubt that it would reap an abundant reward. To an American there would present themselves so many new, active, and energetic ways of doing business, instead of the old dilatory and circuitous system, that he could not fail of success; and we are convinced that the subject needs only to be known and understood, to attract the attention it deserves. The trade, as it is at present conducted, is well worthy the attention of our mercantile capitalists; besides which there are many methods by which it might be materially improved. We shall offer one suggestion here, that from its nature particularly recommends itself to our notions and habits, and that, carried into effect, would be in the highest degree creditable to the character of our countrymen for enterprise and commercial skill. A reference to the map will be necessary to make our suggestion completely understood.

We have before stated that Rabat, were it not for its bar, would have a decided advantage over any other port upon the coast. Its proximity to the great cities of Fas, Mequinez, and Morocco, and to Gibraltar and Cadiz—its relative position to the rich and fertile provinces of Temsna and Tedla—the number and character of its population—the safety of its port when once inside—would, were it not for this unfortunate objection, give it a decided superiority over the open and dangerous roadsteads of Mazagan, Saffe, and Mogadore, to the south. The bar, however, is an obstacle that cannot be easily removed, although in our opinion it is very possible to obviate the objections to it. This would be done by a small steamboat to run generally through the straits of Gibraltar, from Gibraltar to Tangier, and occasionally from Tangier to Rabat, as business should require. A steamer drawing five or six feet of water could readily go in and out over the bar. By this means the absurd quarantine regulations of Gibraltar would be evaded, and the direct trade with this country very much facilitated and increased, and in a great measure changed from the dangerous ports on the Atlantic coast to the comparatively safe and commodious harbor of Tangier. The steamboat would freight at Rabat with the products of the province, run round into Tangier, where she would throw out her

susceptible articles, such as wool, leather, and all kinds of manufactured goods, take from Tangier a new bill of health, and with her non-susceptible articles, such as passengers, cattle, fowls, grain, flour, &c., run across to Gibraltar, a distance of three or four hours, and readily obtain pratique. American ships would then go to Tangier, and load with cargoes for which now they have to go south. The business would at once be probably more than enough for one boat; in fact we have data in our possession from which it can be proved that there is business enough, and that of a very lucrative kind, to fully occupy one boat in the straits of Gibraltar alone, from Gibraltar to Tangier. The principle is well understood that to facilitate trade is to increase it. A steamboat upon a new route always makes a great deal of business that did not exist before; but leaving out of sight any anticipations of the kind, however well founded, it can be proved that this route offers a certainty of three or four times the profit arising from any investment of the kind in this country.

The distance between Tangier and Gibraltar, which are within sight of each other, is about thirty miles. The communication is kept up by seven or eight small Spanish lateen craft of from twenty to forty tons each; but it is very irregular, from the fact that it is impossible to cross with a head wind. The wind almost always blows directly through the straits, either east or west. When it blows from the east the boats are detained in Tangier sometimes for two or three weeks until it changes, when away they start in a fleet for Gibraltar, where they have to remain until it again changes to the east. Were it not for this irregularity, together with the danger of being caught out at night in the straits in a boat loaded and lumbered so as hardly to afford standing room, crowded with Jewish and Moorish vagabonds, and filthy beyond even Spanish notions of dirt, there would be a regular run of several thousand passengers a year, who would gladly embrace any thing like an easy opportunity of visiting for a few hours an interesting Mohammedan town. As it is, a large number, consisting of officers of the garrison, inhabitants of the town, and strangers arriving by the English and French steamboats, gratify their curiosity at all risks, and at an expense of from three to five dollars for a passage across. Of this class of passengers a steamboat could safely calculate upon a large number at \$2 per head, in addition to the common Jewish and Moorish forward passengers. A steamer would also have, as a regular business, several thousand cattle which now pay \$1 25 per head. The cattle dealers and contractors of Gibraltar would gladly pay even a higher price for the certainty and celerity of a steamboat. In addition to this, the whole of the produce of the country, such as vegetables, fowls, &c.; and in return, a large amount of goods for the interior of the country, would give one boat full occupation.

A boat for such a purpose ought to be of the strongest and best construction, so as to lessen the liability to get out of repair, but without any expense in fitting up, or any thing for mere beauty. A good strong hull, of two or three hundred tons, without cabins or berths, would be fully sufficient. She should have powerful engines, as it will not unfrequently happen that she will have opportunities, in her passage from Gibraltar, of towing vessels through the straits. The strong current that sets through the straits from the Atlantic, renders it perfectly impossible for vessels to beat out against a head wind; in which case they are compelled to lie in Gibraltar until the wind changes, which is sometimes exceedingly incon-

venient and expensive, particularly for the fruit vessels from Malaga. The boat should also be rigged for sailing. Perhaps the best rig would be brigantine, or square sails on the foremast, and fore and aft sails on the main. As the wind blows almost always directly parallel with her course, either east or west, she would not be compelled to use her steam more than half the time. In some particulars the expenses of such a boat would be less than in this country. Her coals she would get at Gibraltar for \$8 per ton, provisions would be cheaper, and a crew of Spanish and Genoese sailors can be had at \$5 or \$6 per month.

The exclusive privilege for any part of the coast might be very easily obtained from the emperor, provided the person who should undertake it had the necessary diplomatic tact and knowledge of the Moorish character and customs. A few thousand dollars judiciously expended in presents to his ministers, would be fully sufficient. But it would be necessary that the negotiation should be conducted with profound secrecy. A steamer would disturb so many petty interests, and so completely revolutionize the present system of trade, that a strong influence would be at once excited against the project if it was known. The Moorish court is excessively suspicious and jealous, and any representations, however absurd, would find a ready entertainment in their ignorance and prejudice. It is also probable that cupidity, another strong feature in their character, would be successfully appealed to. Bribery is the common custom of the court and country.* Any inferior, or a stranger, is expected to approach an official, if he has a favor to ask, or even on mere visits of ceremony, with a present, and nothing is too mean to be offered. The smallest favors are readily received, although in receiving the most valuable presents there is not a man in the empire, from the prime minister down, who will hesitate to beg for more. The value of the presents are expected to correspond to the dignity of the giver as well as the receiver, and to the cause of the interview. About a fair price for a complimentary audience with a bashaw of a province, is one silk handkerchief, a loaf of sugar, a little tea, and a pound of candles. If there was any business to transact, it would perhaps be advisable to add a piece of nankeen and a cotton turban. With such customs it would be very easy for those who might imagine that their

* The system of making regular and stated presents, by the diplomatic agents of Christian countries, to the principal officers of the town in which they reside, is still kept up, although the amount and frequency of them has in late years been somewhat diminished. The presents are made about five times a year, upon the occurrence of as many Mohammedan festivals or fasts. Five or six of the principal officers of the town only come in for these regular perquisites of office, but their subordinates, down to the guards and gate-keepers, generally contrive to get their share. The American and Neapolitan governments give presents of the least value. Sweden and Denmark are the only two nations that continue to pay tribute. One pays to the emperor \$20,000, the other \$25,000 per annum. The necessity of paying this tribute has long since passed away, and numerous opportunities of rupturing the treaties have occurred, (as for instance in the case of Count Graberg de Hemso,) but still the tribute continues to be paid. The reason in the case of Sweden is, that the tribute originally served as an excuse for a peculiar tax upon commerce, by which it was raised. If the tribute is given up, the tax must be given up; but as it now raises a greater amount than is necessary for its original purpose, the government prefer to throw away \$20,000 upon the emperor of Morocco, in order to pocket the balance. Probably something like the same reason prevails in Denmark.

interest would be affected by the introduction of steam, to prejudice the whole court against the plan and prevent a contract from being obtained; and without such a contract, under the imperial seal, the undertaking would not be safe. With a mere verbal permission there would be a constant liability of interference, and although there could not be much actual loss, a whim of the emperor might cut short the brilliant prospects of profits. Ten years ago, even a written agreement would not have been a very strong guarantee; but times have changed in Morocco, and some steps, short and few it is true, are to be perceived of the progress of improvement. It has been cited as an evidence of the march of mind in New Zealand, that many of the natives have left off eating their old fathers and mothers, and now dine only upon the bodies of their slaves and enemies taken in battle. We don't know that such a decided step can be shown to have been taken in Morocco, but in many things there has been a change. The emperor no longer amuses himself with mounting his horse, and at the same moment drawing his sword and striking off at one blow the head of the courtier holding the stirrup, a common pastime with some of his ancestors a few years since. He no longer seizes upon the persons and the property of Christians at his pleasure, and he no longer dares to treat a member of the consular corps with indignity, much less to imprison or unceremoniously drive them out of the country. His word to Christians he finds the necessity of adhering to, and a written contract for the purpose we have mentioned would be as valid and of as much force as if made with any potentate of Europe.

In the preceding remarks we have had reference only to that part of Maghrib which may be called Morocco proper, but we cannot quit the subject without indulging in a glance at the promising, but uncultivated field for commercial enterprise which lies just beyond the imperial jurisdiction. The sovereignty of the emperor of Morocco over the rich and populous districts of Suse is, as we have before stated, merely nominal. He has no real authority, and in the southern parts of the province the people have for years arrogated and enjoyed perfect independence. The jurisdiction of the emperor may be strictly said to terminate at Agadeir or Santa Cruz, a town about three days' journey below Mogadore. The bay of this town is considered the very best road for vessels in the empire, being well sheltered from all winds. It was formerly the centre of a very extensive commerce across the desert with the interior of Africa, and the residence of a number of Christian merchants, but from the natural strength of its position it excited the jealousy of the Moorish emperor, who ordered the place to be evacuated, and the merchants to transfer their establishments to Mogadore. Since then the trade has been completely broken up, and no vessels have for years visited the place. Beyond this port there is a long extent of coast, inhabited by several rich and independent tribes. The principal of these are the people of Wednoon, a large town about fifteen miles inland, upon the river Akassa, and about four days' journey from Santa Cruz. The town is, says Jackson, a kind of intermediate depot for merchandise on its way to Soudan, and for the produce of Soudan going to Mogadore. Gums and wax are produced here in abundance, and the people living in independence, indulge in the luxuries of dress, and use many European commodities. A great quantity of gold dust is bought and sold at Wednoon. They trade sometimes to Mogadore, but prefer selling their merchandise on the spot, not wishing to trust their persons

and property within the territory of the emperor of Morocco. With Timbuctoo, however, they carry on a constant and advantageous trade, and many of the Arabs are immensely rich. Some time since we had an opportunity of seeing the journal of the lamented Davidson,* in which he confirms Jackson's account, and expresses his decided opinion of the possibility of a profitable trade being opened with the people of Wednoon. The sheik frequently expressed his wish that the English would send him a consul, and open a direct trade with him; thus enabling him to pocket some of the duties which now go to the emperor of Morocco.

Along this district of Suse and Wednoon, from Santa Cruz to Cape Bogador, is an extent of coast of about two hundred miles. It is not visited by the shipping of any nation, and we know but little respecting it, excepting that it has two tolerably good roadsteads. It is very possible, and in fact probable, that there are other good anchoring grounds, that we know nothing about. "This tract of coast," says Jackson, "holds out the greatest encouragement to commercial enterprise, and secure establishments might be effected upon it which would amply remunerate the enterprising speculator."

Some of the more enlightened merchants of Mogadore, towards the close of the last century, had a great opinion of an establishment somewhere between the latitudes 27° and 30° north, but a famine, and afterward a most destructive plague, prevented the execution of the plan. This plan, which, owing to the decline of the morocco trade, and the want of capital, enterprise, and intelligence among those engaged in it, has never been carried into effect, is at the present day full as feasible and as promising as when it was first conceived.

We have not space to enter into an explanation of the details of the various methods by which this trade might be opened and carried on. Suffice it to say, that we think a permanent establishment upon the coast is not by any means essential, and that the business can be conducted in a way that would require but little capital, be attended with but little risk, and afford the certainty of enormous profit. The subject is one that certainly deserves investigation, and which we would recommend to the attention of our commercial capitalists.

* Davidson was a young and enterprising Englishman, who, under patronage of the Duke of Sussex, and the Geographical Society, undertook, five or six years since, to visit Timbuctoo, by passing through Morocco. The influence of the English government got him to Wednoon, the sheik of which place engaged to see him safely across the desert. A few days after leaving Wednoon, a party of Arabs rode up to the caravans with which he was travelling, exclaiming, Where is the Christian? Where is the Christian? The caravan had halted, and Davidson was sitting a little apart. They immediately rushed towards him and shot him dead; thus adding another to the long list of martyrs in the cause of African discovery. It is supposed that his death was caused by the commercial jealousy of the Moorish merchants of Fas who trade with Timbuctoo.

ART. II.—COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN looking abroad upon the crowded docks of our seaport towns, we perceive them heaped with bales, boxes, and casks, as well as commercial implements and merchandise of all kinds,—general depots of import and shipment, bordered by vessels of various sizes, with their delicate pencilings of spars and cordage, which have either folded their wings after their ocean flights, or are loading their cargoes for foreign ports,—we are easily satisfied that these points are the grand gateways of the commerce of the country. The flags of the principal nations of Europe wave above our harbors. Advancing into our streets, we view the sidewalks heaped with foreign goods, and the shelves of our stores loaded with the same sort of commodities; and entering still further, into the houses of our citizens, we behold them furnished, and the occupants themselves, for the most part, clothed with fabrics which are introduced from abroad. The products of commerce most clearly bear the largest proportion to the whole amount of goods employed throughout the republic, either in use or in exchange; and their traffic, constituting as it does the principal object of the enterprise of our merchants, and a subject which employs the industry of a very large mass of our citizens, deserves notice in the pages of this magazine.

It has ever been found that just in proportion as nations advance in wealth and refinement, they demand the products of commerce. Engaged as colonists in laying the foundations of an empire, in tilling the soil, and removing the obstacles of nature, they are uniformly found simple in their habits, and contented with the crude productions of the earth, and the hard appliances always found in a new country. But as soon as wealth is acquired, and the consequent leisure, the fine arts are introduced, and literature adorns and enriches the mind, they are seldom contented with the common conveniences of life, but seek out those objects which are the best calculated to afford the means of luxury and enjoyment. These advantages, if they may be so considered, are to be found, in great measure, in the productions of commerce; and hence it has happened that those productions of commerce have kept uniform pace with the advance of the nation, in the respect which we have mentioned. We propose, in this article, to trace out, in so far as we are able, the commercial relations of our own country with the prominent nations abroad; inasmuch as we shall thus be enabled the more thoroughly to understand the facts that we see about us in the commercial world, and to which we have alluded.

Notwithstanding the legislative restrictions which may from time to time have been established, for the purpose of encouraging the introduction, or preventing the exportation of commercial staples, every country must, from the nature of its soil, climate, population, or government, be peculiarly favorable for the production of certain articles, the product either of agriculture or manufactures, and which constitute the proper subjects of exportation. To apply this remark to our own country: it will be clear to every one who will examine the facts, that the soil of our southern states is decidedly favorable to the production of cotton, tobacco, sugar, and rice, the most of which articles are proper subjects of exportation; and the

grain-growing states of the west are equally favorable to the production of wheat. Hence, it falls within the necessary order of things, that we should export those products of agriculture. It is also true that in England, and parts of the continent, where labor is cheap, and machinery, as well as the useful arts, have arrived to a high degree of perfection, the various articles of manufacture can be produced at a much cheaper rate than with us; and accordingly, the same moral necessity exists for us to import a considerable portion of such products. The particular nature of these foreign imports and exports, to and from various parts of the country, will appear as we proceed.

We will first enter into a brief view of our commercial relations with Great Britain; a nation with which our foreign mercantile connections are the most intimate and extensive. It is probably well known, that our intercourse with this opulent and powerful empire, although not of very long standing—we, in fact, having been merely one of its remote provinces previous to the year 1776—has been varied according to the changes of national policy which have marked the two governments. At the close of the war of the revolution, by the treaty of peace of 1783, our own country became, in relation to that empire, a foreign state, and the relations of commerce, accordingly, were thenceforward established upon an independent basis. Previous to the year 1791, it would seem that the policy of that country towards our own was reciprocal; the king and council, who, by an act of parliament of April, 1783, were invested with the power of regulating the trade between the two countries, permitting all unmanufactured goods, with few exceptions, and pig and bar iron, as also pitch, tar, and turpentine, pot and pearl ashes, indigo, as well as masts, yards, and bowsprits, which were the production of our own territory, to be subject to the same duties as were demanded of the same sort of British products imported from any British island or plantation in America. It was also established, that fish oil, blubber, whale fins, and spermaceti, as well as other articles of American production, which had not been enumerated, should be admitted into Great Britain upon the same terms that were required for the same sort of goods in foreign countries; and that where different duties were imposed in foreign countries, then the lowest duties which were required by those countries were also required by Great Britain upon American products. Our intercourse with the British West Indies, it appears, was regulated by the same act. Upon this footing the commercial intercourse between the two nations stood until the 19th of November, 1794, when more stability was secured for our mercantile connections with that country, a treaty of commerce having finally been concluded. Through that treaty our own republic was insured the liberty of commerce with the British dominions in Europe; and our relations with them were placed upon the same platform with that of other nations, by the provision which enacted that no higher duties should be paid by us than were paid by other nations, the right being retained on the part of Great Britain to impose a tonnage duty upon all American vessels entering their ports, equal to that which was paid by British vessels entering American ports, as well as all such duties as were required to countervail the difference of duties that was payable upon goods that entered the United States, either by British or American vessels. In 1804, however, the terms of this treaty, so far as they related to commerce, expired.

The design that had been long entertained on the part of Great Britain,

and which was pressed upon the American commissioners as early as 1806, to equalize the tonnage and other duties between the United States and the British dominions in Europe, was not finally effected until the commercial convention held between our own government and Great Britain, on the 3d day of July, 1815; and this measure was of great importance to us, inasmuch as our imports of hardware, cotton, and woollen cloths, far exceeds that which we derive from any other foreign nation. The trade with the British East Indies, that was commenced soon after the peace of 1783, seems to have been regulated by the same general principles; the British government having secured to us all the advantages consistent with her commercial policy, always profound and far-seeing. Cotton goods, of low price, appear to have been the principal articles of export from that country previous to 1816; but the tariff of that year was designed, and succeeded finally in shutting out those goods from our own ports, in order to secure the prosperity of such manufactures in the United States. Since that period, the principal articles that have been furnished to us from that country are indigo and silks; in return for which we have exported flour, whale oil, candles of spermaceti and tallow, lumber of various kinds, and also manufactured tobacco; the foreign exports from thence consisting principally of gold and silver coin, and more recently, bills have been substituted.

It is a question frequently asked, what has been the cause of the decrease of our commerce with the British West India Islands?—and the answer is obvious in the fact, that by a very sagacious policy the British have secured for their shipping about three quarters of our own exports to those islands; and this remark applies equally well to our intercourse with the British North American provinces. By the levy of large duties upon all articles carried directly from the United States to the West Indies in American bottoms, and the repeal of duties upon all articles formerly transported to the West Indies that are carried from the United States to the British provinces, the trade which formerly passed direct from the United States to the British West India Islands, is now, in great measure, forced through the North American British colonies. The circuitous trade thus permitted, allows the British vessels to pass directly from any part of her majesty's dominions to any part of the United States, and there to take in a cargo either direct for the West Indies, or by the way of the provinces. It has accordingly happened, that not only the American trade has been cut off from the West Indies by such duties, as in effect to amount to a prohibition, but the direct consequence has also been greatly to increase the amount of British shipping employed in the American trade. The actual increase in this respect within a period of only three years, may be judged from the fact that while, in 1830, the whole amount of British tonnage employed in the American trade was but one hundred thousand two hundred and ninety-eight, it had advanced, in 1833, to the enormous sum of four hundred and two thousand seven hundred and thirty tons. A more accurate idea of the effect of this law may be shown by an examination of the statistics illustrating those facts. Of the articles of flour and pork alone, we need but notice these circumstances, to be convinced of the accuracy of what we have stated. In 1830, the amount of flour exported from the single port of New York, in American vessels, to the British colonies, was 20,410 barrels, and in 1833, this amount had dwindled to 6,536; while the amount of pork exported in our vessels to those colonies,

which, in 1830, was only 907 barrels, had increased, in 1833, to the sum of 1,550. In exact proportion to the diminution of our own trade with those provinces has been the increase of that of the British; for in 1830, flour to the amount of only 42,196 barrels was exported in British bottoms, and in 1833, it had increased to 30,307 barrels. So also in the article of pork, in 1830, but 335 barrels were exported in British ships, which had increased, in 1833, to 10,120 barrels, all exported in British ships. The same facts are shown in the diminution of the American tonnage to the British provinces, and the increase of that of the British, during the same period, in the ports of New York and Boston, the principal marts of trade with those provinces in the United States. The result has been, that those merchants who have been formerly engaged in the West India trade have either been shut out from those islands, or have been obliged to employ British ships, which is now done to a considerable extent in the port of Boston.

Our own merchants are not unobservant of the injurious consequences of this policy, and we perceive that they have already directed the attention of congress to the subject. In a report of a committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, submitted to that body on the 2d of March, 1841, by Hon. John Ruggles, upon our present commercial arrangements with Great Britain, they say :

“The arrangement allows the imposition, without limitation, of duties on our produce imported into the British colonies from the United States, and that they may vary in different colonies; that, when imported into any colony, such goods may be naturalized, or considered as productions of that colony, and transported to any other free of duty; that goods may be transported from one colony or province to another, only by British vessels; that American vessels may bring to the colonies or provinces nothing but the products of the United States.

“To avail herself of the advantages which such an arrangement offered, England immediately imposed heavy, and, in some instances, prohibitory duties on our products when imported into the West Indies from the United States, and admitted the same articles free of duty when imported circuitously through the provinces.

“Such are the benefits to British navigation from the arrangement, that, as your committee are informed, Americans have become owners of British vessels to a very considerable extent, in order to avail themselves of them.

“Before adducing the statistical facts which your committee think abundantly support their assertion, they will state some of the modes in which the arrangement is now made subservient to the interests of British ship-owners.

“Articles of our produce, to a very large amount, are daily ordered to be shipped to the British provinces; they are sent in British vessels, *nominaly* landed and naturalized, and sent directly to the West Indian colonies; the vicinity of a number of ports in the provinces where this can be effected, (within two days' sail from Boston,) renders this almost equivalent to a direct voyage from our ports to the West Indies; and it is one in which American vessels cannot participate. As may readily be supposed, every facility is given in such ports of naturalization.

“There is another mode, in which the arrangement favors British shipping, deserving of particular attention. British vessels proceed to our southern ports: if freights to Europe be obtained, they take them; if not, they take a cargo of yellow pine lumber, return to the provinces, naturalize the cargo, and carry it to England. The duty on this article thus carried, is so much less than on its direct importation from the United States, as entirely to preclude its being carried in American vessels. This is done to a considerable extent; and your committee suggest, that if such a discrimination of duty, on an article notoriously not produced in the British provinces, be consistent with the existing arrangement, they can see no reason why a similar duty may not be applied to our other staples, so as to throw the whole carrying-trade between the United States and Great Britain into the hands of our commercial competitors.

“Again, with regard to flour: this article is admitted into the provinces, from the United States, free of duty. The amount thus imported by sea is immense, but insigni-

ficant in comparison with that carried into the provinces over the frontiers. The duty, in England, on flour from the provinces, is five shillings per quarter for the highest rate, and may be as low as sixpence per quarter. On the same article, imported directly from the United States, the duty ranges from a shilling per quarter to twenty-five shillings and eightpence; the rate of duty depends on the price in England, and is usually about twenty shillings per quarter, or four times greater than the duty on flour from the provinces. Here is a vast field for the employment of British vessels, to the exclusion of our own, in the transportation of our own products.

"There is another mode in which the arrangement favors British shipping, in the creation of what has been called the triangular voyage. Formerly, British vessels engaged in the colonial trade went to the colonies in ballast, or but partially laden; they often remained there a long time for the preparation of their cargoes, with which they returned to England. Now, they take full freights to the United States; thence, full or partial freights to the West Indies; and thence, full freights to England. Or they proceed with freights from England to the West Indies; whence, in a few days, they arrive at our southern ports, where they obtain full freights for Europe. British vessels thus employed have a decided advantage over us, even in the direct freights to and from our own ports.

"The gradual extinction of our direct trade with the British West Indies seems an inevitable result of the arrangement; the discrimination of duties on articles imported there directly from the United States, and on the same articles when imported circuitously through the provinces, will eventually turn the whole course of trade in that direction. The duty on flour from the United States is five shillings; and on beef and pork, more than twenty-five shillings per barrel; on lumber, it is twenty-eight shillings; and on shingles, more than three dollars per thousand. All these articles from the provinces are admitted free of this duty; of course, most of them are imported circuitously. And not only so; but the first freight to the provinces, from the United States, is in British vessels, in consequence of the facilities enjoyed by them at the ports of naturalization for transportation to the West Indies. In 1824, 1825, and 1826, the American tonnage which entered our ports, direct from the British West Indies, was 292,700 tons; in 1837, 1838, and 1839, it had diminished to 125,800 tons.

"If such be the state of our direct trade, we have not much to console us in the comparative increase of British tonnage and our own, in the whole of the colonial and provincial trade. The British tonnage cleared from our ports for the colonies and provinces in 1824, 1825, and 1826, was 51,800 tons; the American tonnage was 477,100 tons. In 1837, 1838, and 1839, the clearance of British tonnage, as above, was 1,235,500 tons, and of American but 1,126,000 tons; the increase of British tonnage in our own ports, during this whole period, being about ten times greater than that of our own.

"In addition to our own vicious legislation, our competitors have other advantages over us. The expense of building vessels in the provinces is less, by about one third, than that of building ours; and they are likewise manned and equipped more cheaply. It is true, that, from their manifest inferiority, they do not command the same rates of freight as our own; but their influence is powerful for evil against us.

"As the source when the navy—our right arm in foreign contest—must draw its whole strength, it has ever been our avowed policy to encourage our navigation; its importance may well entitle it not merely to a fair field, but to especial favor. Even a fair field is now denied to us. Many and great advantages are, by this arrangement, given to our most active competitors; and the annexed table, prepared from official returns, shows to what a fearful extent they have availed themselves of them.

Table of American and British tonnage cleared from the several ports of the United States, from foreign ports, from 1824 to 1839, inclusive.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>American tonnage.</i>	<i>British tonnage.</i>
1824,	919,300	69,300
1825,	960,000	61,900
1826,	953,000	65,700
1827,	980,500	94,800
1828,	897,400	105,600
1829,	944,800	87,800
1830,	971,800	89,800
1831,	972,500	211,300
1832,	974,900	284,900
1833,	1,142,200	377,200

1834,	1,134,000	458,100
1835,	1,400,500	523,400
1836,	1,315,500	538,900
1837,	1,266,600	536,400
1838,	1,408,800	486,900
1839,	1,447,900	491,500

"The sudden and great increase of British tonnage subsequently to 1830, when the arrangement went into operation, cannot fail to be remarked. In six years, from 1824 to 1830, its increase was less than twenty per cent; in the ensuing six years, from 1830 to 1836, it was six hundred per cent. The whole increase of American tonnage engaged in foreign trade from 1824 to 1829, has been but fifty-two per cent; whilst that of British tonnage, in our own ports, has been more than four hundred and forty-seven per cent in the same period.

"Your committee deemed an estimate of the amount of the freights of American vessels in the foreign trade, now so jeoparded, not irrelevant to the purpose for which they were appointed; they accordingly submit such a one, from which it appears that the amount of these freights, earned by 667,200 tons of shipping thus engaged, is more than thirty-eight millions of dollars annually; and, moreover, that there are 1,428,000 tons of American shipping engaged in the coastwise trade, whose earnings must very much exceed that amount."*

We quote also, from the same report, their estimate of amount of freight earned by American vessels.

"The cotton freights are assumed as the basis of calculation. From New Orleans, Mobile, and their vicinity, 1,500 pounds per registered ton is a low average of the quantity which freighting vessels will carry. From South Carolina and Georgia, the quantity is considerably less; but the amount exported thence is much smaller. The average of the whole foreign cotton freights from southern ports may be safely stated at 1,400 pounds per registered ton. The average rate of freight may be stated at three farthings, or one and a half cent, per pound. The American tonnage which cleared for foreign countries in 1839, was 1,478,000 tons. On the above basis, their outward freights would have been, with primage, a fraction over twenty-two dollars per registered ton, or - - - - - \$33,255,000

The freights of tobacco, rice, and other exports from the south, are graduated by that of cotton. Southern exports produce a large part of our freights; and in so far as they are in question, the above estimate is but little liable to error. But this rate is too high for our foreign freights from the northern and middle states. It may be remarked, however, that, as it is calculated on the registered tonnage, and as our vessels usually carry fifty per cent more than this, it is, in fact, less than fifteen dollars per ton of goods actually carried. But this, also, is too high an estimate for the average of these freights, including, as they do, those to the provinces and to the West Indies. The large deduction of *one third of the whole above estimated amount of outward freight from the United States* would probably reduce the estimate for the whole of the foreign freights from the northern and middle states to less than eight dollars per ton, and would seem to preclude the possibility of an over-estimate. Deduct, then, one third, - - - - -

11,085,000

\$22,170,000

Add homeward freights, estimated at six dollars per ton of carrying capacity, - - - - -

13,302,000

35,472 000

In this are included the freights from Europe, South America, and the East Indies, ranging from ten dollars to twenty-five dollars per ton, and forming a large part of the whole.

Add the freights earned by American vessels not included in the above estimate; such as those from Cuba, the West Indies, South America,

* See, in Senate Document, March 2, 1841, "A Report of a Committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, in Relation to the Present Commercial Arrangement with Great Britain."

and the East Indies, to Europe, and from Europe to those places; from port to port in Europe, and from port to port in the East Indies and elsewhere. The rates for these are generally double of that we have assumed, and the aggregate amount is very great. A small part of this may be considered as included in the above estimate for the whole outward clearance, as vessels to Cuba and the East Indies do not usually carry full cargoes; but, allowing for this, the amount to be added from this source cannot be over-estimated at

2,600,000

Making the amount of freight earned by American vessels in the foreign trade only, per annum - - - - - \$38,072,000

"The tonnage producing this vast amount is denominated 'registered tonnage;' in 1839, it amounted to 834,000 tons. Of this whole amount, however, a large part is engaged in the coasting trade; a very large number of registered vessels are permanently thus engaged in the regular lines to and from the southern ports. Perhaps nearly as many more are transiently employed in freighting in the same manner. It would not, probably, be too high an estimate to state the average amount of registered tonnage thus engaged at one fifth of the whole amount, or 166,800 tons, leaving the amount of tonnage engaged in the foreign trade at 667,200 tons. The enrolled and licensed tonnage is 1,262,000 tons; adding to this the 166,800 tons above mentioned, we have 1,428,800 tons engaged in the coasting trade. We have estimated the annual earnings of 667,200 tons engaged in the foreign trade at more than thirty-eight millions of dollars. It cannot be doubted that the earnings of more than double of that amount of tonnage engaged in the coasting trade must much exceed that sum."

The influence of the circuitous trade thus established by Great Britain for her own ships, has been to throw a great number of British vessels into the American trade; and this effect has been obvious, not only in diminishing the number of American vessels employed in our trade between Great Britain and Ireland, but in increasing, in the same proportion, that of the British. This circuitous trade, thus yielding to the British so great a portion of the carrying-trade of the country, has thrown into their hands the transportation of a considerable part of the bulky products of the United States, especially that of cotton; and, indeed, the increase of foreign tonnage in the commercial operations of the United States, and the proportionate diminution of American tonnage in our intercourse with the same ports, is obvious from the fact, that, in 1833, the value of the amount of domestic produce exported from the states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Louisiana, was \$35,262,000, of which \$11,990,000 went in foreign vessels—the exports in foreign vessels constituting a little more than a third of the total amount of exports from those states. The principal part of our trade with the British West India Islands, and which has so much diminished from the circumstances that we have described, has consisted mainly of bulky articles, such as lumber, flour, bread, beef, pork, bacon, lard, Indian corn, rye, Indian meal, and live-stock, for which have been returned rum and molasses. We have before remarked, that the largest commercial intercourse is now enjoyed by our own country with Great Britain; and this will be obvious by an examination of the amount of brass and copper manufacture, cotton goods, glass, and earthen-ware, haberdashery, hats, iron and steel, lead, salt, and silk manufactures, linens, tin, pewter, woollens, and other articles, which are imported from that country; the trade to England alone, in 1840, amounting, in the value of imports, to \$33,114,133, and the exports to that of \$57,048,660, during the same year.

The commercial intercourse of our own country with France, although of less importance than that of Great Britain, is beginning to be deemed a

subject requiring more attention than it has yet commanded. The great staple, cotton, is the principal export to that country, it constituting about three quarters of our domestic exports to the French empire, although tobacco, hops, fish, whale oil, whalebone, are included within those of domestic product, and sugar, coffee, teas, cocoa, pepper, and spices of other sorts, being the exports to that country of foreign products; while we receive in return wines, of various sorts, brandy, silks, olive oil, jewelry of a rich kind, and, very recently, cotton goods; our imports from that country amounting, in 1840, to \$17,572,876, and our exports to \$21,841,554. To these may be added, sewing-silk, hosiery, twist, yarn, nankeens, and gloves. The American trade with the French West India Islands is now of comparatively little importance; the intercourse having been first commenced by an *arret* of the French government, bearing date the 30th of August, 1784, by which American vessels, of at least sixty tons burden, were admitted into certain of their ports with timber, dye-woods, live-stock, salt beef, salt fish, rice, liquors, hides, peltry, pitch, tar, and rozin; and in return we were permitted to transport from thence, rum, molasses, and goods which were brought from France, upon the payment of the required duties; and, under certain colonial regulations, the French islands were early supplied by the United States with most of their foreign goods; so that, in 1786, of the exports to that country, which were valued at 20,878,000 livres, 13,263,000 were introduced from the United States, which returned 7,263,000 of their exports—our own tonnage which was employed being 105,095. In the year 1793, France opened a free trade to her colonial ports with the whole world, and offered to secure this trade to us by compact; but this was refused on the part of our government. Although, before the year 1807, the amount of domestic and foreign produce transported by us to those islands was considerable, yet, at that time, most of these islands were in possession of the English, excepting that of St. Domingo, which was held by the negroes, and continued thus until 1814, the date of the restoration of peace in Europe, when France returned to her old system of commercial policy. The imports from the French West Indies during the last year, amounted in value to \$335,251, and the exports to \$514,251. With the island of Hayti, under the government of the blacks, our commerce has been even greater than with the West India Islands in the possession of France; the principal articles exported to that island being flour, rice, beef, pork, butter and lard, fish, cheese, and hams; in return for which we have received cocoa, coffee, and other articles of less importance; our total imports during the last year having been \$1,252,824 in value, and that of our exports, during the same year, \$1,027,214.

Our commerce with Spain, Portugal, and its dependencies, has long been considerable; tobacco, rice, whale oil, fish, and flour, the principal portion of our domestic produce, was there exported; for which the returns have been wines, brandies, and fruits. While the wars which so long devastated Europe were in progress, our export of foreign produce consisted of cocoa, coffee, sugar, pepper, and various kinds of spices; while from 1809 to 1813, our domestic exports of grains and various kinds of provisions, were much augmented, in order to the supply of the allied armies of Napoleon, which were then invading that country. During the prevalence of the long wars to which we have alluded, our countrymen supplied the Spanish islands with European manufactures, and engrossed the carrying-trade of their valuable products. With the island of Cuba,

especially, our commerce has been considerable, as we export not only large quantities of flour annually to that island, but also beef, pork, dried fish, and lard. Besides these agricultural products, a large amount of American manufactures, such as household furniture, coaches and carriages of different sorts, saddlery, hats, combs, buttons, gunpowder, glass, leather, boots and shoes, soap, and tallow candles, together with spermaceti, and several minor articles. In return for these we receive from that island large quantities of sugar and coffee. Of sugar, nearly one half of that which is imported into this country from all parts of the world has been received from that island, and from the same source we have received more than one third of our coffee. With other parts of the Spanish West Indies, the Spanish South American colonies and Mexico, the Central Republic, Columbia, Buenos Ayres, or the Argentine Republic, Chili, and Peru, our commerce is of no inconsiderable importance; Mexico and South America, together with the East Indies, China, the Central Republic, Columbia, Brazil, Buenos Ayres, and Chili, supplying the principal markets for our domestic manufactures of cotton. With Portugal and the island of Madeira, the United States have exported some of our staple agricultural products, such as wheat, corn, flour, and rice, besides dried fish, whale oil, staves, and heading; for which we have received in return salt, fruit, and wines. Our intercourse with the latter territory, like that with Spain, appears to have been very much modified by the invasion of Portugal by the armies of France, and large quantities of American flour were then exported to that country. Our trade was also increased with the Brazils, upon the removal of the Portuguese government to that territory. The exports to the Brazils, and other Portuguese American colonies, of our domestic produce, consisted mainly of flour, and also fish, beef, pork, hams, and butter, candles of spermaceti and tallow, whale oil, household furniture, hats, shoes, and boots, soap, cotton goods, and gunpowder; and also foreign articles, such as cotton and hempen goods, sail duck, cordage, teas, and spices; our ships bringing back copper and raw hides, sugar, coffee, as well as gold and silver coin.

With Russia, whose cold-blooded despotism frowns down upon the world as if the heart of the empire was composed of one of its icy hills, the commerce of the United States has been considerable. Our exports to this empire have, however, been small, comprised mainly of a quantity of cotton, tobacco, rice, and oak-bark, of our domestic produce, and coffee, sugar, spices, and dye-woods, being the articles of foreign produce mainly exported. The imports from that country are, however, very great, their value, in 1840, being \$2,572,427, and are comprised principally of iron, hemp, cordage, duck, various species of cloth wrought from hemp and flax, such as shirtings, tickings, both broad and narrow, drillings, and diapers. With Sweden our trade has been inconsiderable; iron formerly constituting the principal import to this country, for which were returned tobacco, rice, whale oil, and other articles of domestic as well as foreign produce. The value of our imports from Sweden, including Norway, in 1840, was \$1,217,913, and that of our exports, \$550,226. Our commerce with the Swedish West Indies is of much less importance, it having fallen off to a considerable extent since 1821. In 1840, the value of imports from the Swedish West Indies was \$57,545, and that of the exports, \$102,320. Denmark, also, ranks low in the amount of its commercial intercourse with the United States; the value of the imports from this territory, in

1840, being only \$7,501 in amount, and the exports of domestic produce only \$76,183. To the Danish West Indies our trade has been somewhat more extensive; the value of the imports, in 1840, having been \$969,177, and that of the exports of domestic produce, \$918,931.

Our intercourse with Hamburg, Bremen, and the northern part of Germany, is of great importance, and it is likely to be much increased by the establishment of steam navigation between Bremen and Boston, which will go into operation during the next spring. The city of Hamburg, from its central position, surrounded by canals, which, together with valuable channels of river navigation, such as the Elbe and Weser, transport the manufactures of Germany to this emporium, has long been the principal depot of German commerce, and that of the north of Europe, and its port affords free navigation to the United States, and flags from those nations may be seen at any time floating above our docks. To those places we have usually exported, of our domestic produce, tobacco and rice, cotton, spirits, and whale oil, pot and pearl ashes, skins, furs, and hops; and coffee, sugar, teas, cocoa, pepper, and other spices, the product of foreign countries, has also been considerable; the imports from those countries, in 1840, amounting to \$1,074,754 in value, and the exports to \$3,856,310. With Holland and its dependencies our trade is very valuable; the articles of our domestic produce exported being principally tobacco, rice, cotton, whale oil, pot and pearl ashes—those of cotton, tobacco, and rice being of the greatest value; in return for which we have received woollen, linen, and other goods, spirits made from grain, and also manufactures of iron, steel, and lead, paints, cheese, glass, anchors, as well as sheet, slit, and hoop iron. It is seen, by the above statement, that the exports have somewhat exceeded the imports.

With the Dutch East Indies our commerce has been less extensive, we having engrossed the main portion of the carrying trade connected with her rich East India possessions during the wars in which Holland participated. The imports from that country formerly consisted principally of coffee and pepper, a very large amount of which was formerly brought to our own country, but in 1840 the total value of our imports was but \$817,897, and that of the exports, during the same year, \$335,303. To Italy our exports have consisted mainly of sugar, dried fish, coffee, pepper, and cocoa, for which we have had returned silks, wines, fruits, brandies, lead, cheese, olive oil, paper and rags, hats and bonnets. The value of imports from this country in 1840, was \$1,157,200, and that of our exports \$1,473,185.

Our trade with China being second only to that of Great Britain and France, requires a more minute account than we have given to our intercourse with other parts of the world, excepting those countries. It was commenced from the port of New York, by a vessel which sailed on the 22d of February, 1784, and the success of that first voyage attracted no little attention throughout the country, and gave rise to a remarkable expedition. It was set on foot by Captain Stewart Dennis, a citizen of Albany, who, with a sloop of only eighty-four tons, and a crew consisting of seven men and two boys, sailed for Canton on the 19th of December, 1785, and having crossed the ocean, arrived at his destined point, where he "surprised the natives" by informing them that he had crossed the great sea with such a craft. The path was thus laid open to the Celestial Empire, whose self-satisfied glory appears now to be waning, and four

years afterwards, fifteen American flags were seen waving in the port of Canton. Teas, silk, nankeens, and china-ware, sugar, cassia, and other articles of less importance, constitute the principal part of our imports from that country, which, in 1840, amounted in value to \$6,640,829, while our exports during the same year had reached \$1,009,966 in value. The teas imported into this country from Canton, it is well known, are very great in amount, and silks are next in value; in return for which we export ginseng unmanufactured, and domestic cottons. The foreign articles exported are specie, quicksilver, opium, woollen and cotton cloths. In a former number of this journal allusion is made to the furs which were originally carried from the northwest coast of America to China,* which constituted a considerable portion of the trade to the empire at that time; and these furs, especially the sea-otter, first transported to that country by Captain Cook, commanded a considerable price. The sealing voyage first made by Captain Kendrick, in a ship which sailed from Boston, induced others to engaged in the enterprise. Our countrymen were accordingly foremost in pushing new expeditions, not only upon the northwest coast of the continent in quest of furs, but also to the islands of the Southern ocean for seals, exhibiting a hardihood and perseverance scarcely exceeded by that which is displayed by our whale fishermen in sailing to the frozen mountains of the north pole, and the torrid climes of the south. The sealing enterprise was commenced, we believe, and carried on for a long time, mainly from the little village of Stonington, in Connecticut, in barks of eighty tons. And it is now pursued mainly by adventurers from that town, who but recently had twelve schooners employed in the service, with an aggregate tonnage of about eight hundred and fifty-five, and manned by two hundred and fifty-two men. From the 11th of June, 1800, to the 9th of January, 1803, the number of sea-otter and seal-skins carried to Canton by our countrymen, was 1,048,750, amounting in value to \$1,600,000. The total amount of the value of our trade to Canton in 1833, was, of imports \$8,363,971, and that of the exports to our own shores during the same period, was \$6,691,413.

Having taken a somewhat rapid view of the more prominent commercial relations of the United States, it may be proper to exhibit, in a compendious form, the total amount of the commerce and navigation of the country during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1840, which we are enabled to do by the last report on that subject, submitted to congress upon the second of March, 1841.

Total amount of imports in 1840		\$107,141,519
Imported in American vessels	\$92,802,352	
" In foreign vessels	14,339,167	
Total exports		132,085,946
Domestic	113,895,634	
Foreign	18,190,312	
Domestic articles exported in American vessels		92,030,898
In foreign vessels		21,864,735
Foreign articles exported in American vessels		13,591,359
In foreign vessels		4,598,953

* The American Fur Trade,

American shipping entered	tons.	1,576,946
Cleared from American ports	"	1,647,009
Foreign shipping entered	"	712,363
" " Cleared	"	706,486
Registered tonnage		899,764 $\frac{7}{5}$
Enrolled and licensed		1,176,694 $\frac{4}{5}$
Fishing vessels		104,304 $\frac{3}{5}$ —2,180,764 $\frac{6}{5}$
Of registered and enrolled tonnage, &c.		
amounting, as before stated, to		2,076,459 $\frac{7}{5}$
Employed in the whale fishery		136,926 $\frac{4}{5}$
Tonnage built in the United States, in the year		
ending 30th Sept., 1840: Registered		56,121 $\frac{4}{5}$
Enrolled		62,187 $\frac{6}{5}$
	Total tons,	118,309 $\frac{3}{5}$

We have thus taken this rapid view of the commercial relations of the United States, which we have grouped mainly from the state documents last issued by the Secretary of the Treasury, for the purpose of exhibiting the various character and extent of our foreign commerce, omitting all those minute details which might tend to encumber rather than to illustrate. It is seen from this statement that our mercantile relations reach every considerable foreign country with which a commercial intercourse would seem to be a valuable object, and it is evident that from our increasing population and production, this intercourse must be augmented greatly, as new powers of nature are moulded and pressed into the service of man, and new markets are developed abroad. The influence of our commerce thus far has been manifest, not only in furnishing increased sources of enjoyment, but also in multiplying objects of luxury and taste; and its necessary consequence with us hereafter will be, what it has been among other nations, to liberalize the mind, and to advance us to that point of national dignity which will make us respected, not only by ourselves, but by nations abroad. As enterprise seeks out the resources of the soil and augments our wealth, and as a careful and searching national policy, grasping the multiform interests of the country, and familiar with the keen-sighted legislation of foreign states, shall conspire to establish our commercial prosperity upon a solid and permanent basis, may we not hope that in all other respects, the republic will be elevated in the same proportion, and that our own commerce, taking counsel from the abuses of the past, will prove the handmaid of freedom and knowledge, refinement and religion, showering upon us not the flowers only, but the fruits of a pure and highly wrought civilization? Will not the augmentation of our mercantile marine tend, in a great measure, to the increase of our maritime power, and serve as a valuable nursery of our infant navy?

ART. III.—THE BRITISH CORN LAWS.

THERE are few persons in the United States who do not read the newspapers ; and, consequently, become tolerably well informed in relation to the current topics of the day. There are few, therefore, who are ignorant of the fact, that the "Corn Law Question" is now agitating the English nation ; that it has been the principal point on which the late violently contested election has turned ; the principal cause of a political revolution, which has overthrown one political party, and given a triumphant ascendancy to another.

It is not probable, however, that all who have a knowledge of these facts, have a very clear understanding of the corn law question itself. To present an outline of the subject, for the information of the class of general readers, is the object of this article : information the more important, perhaps, from the fact, that in whatever way the British people may settle the question, our own interests will be more or less affected.

Some people think the present generation is running mad in the work of reform. Whether the world is breaking loose from its leading-strings, and venturing forward with a bold but uncertain step, we will not stop to inquire. It is certain, however, that the world is becoming utilitarian ; that few matters, either of principle or practice, will find favor, unless they can bear being tested by the standard of practical expediency. What was done by the "wisdom of our fathers," was, in times past, considered perfect ; but we now find very little veneration for the doings of these fathers, unless they tally with the existing ideas of utility. There is now no dread of novelty : and new opinions are less frequently opposed than formerly, for the mere reason that they are not old and universal.

Opinions upon many subjects, which were once universally received, are now as universally condemned. But while in many departments of science, stores of knowledge have been accumulated, there has been comparatively little improvement in the science of legislation. We find legislators, although they hold in their keeping the whole subject of human happiness, clinging to old opinions with a tenacity altogether astonishing. Legislators frequently refuse to act in the modes indicated by the decided expression of the popular voice. To accomplish reforms, therefore, which the people demand, always requires agitation, frequently convulsions, and sometimes revolution.

It is this kind of agitation, with respect to the corn laws, which now exists in England, and under circumstances, and to a degree, that indicates convulsion of some sort to be not far distant, unless parliament should soon be driven to act upon the subject : and unless, too, that action shall be marked by concession on the part of that interest which, though small in numbers, is sufficiently powerful to monopolize the supply of bread for the whole people of Great Britain.

The landed interest in England, though composed of a few individuals, wields an immense influence in the house of commons. This is owing to various causes. One is the inequality among the different constituencies ;—the great town of Manchester, with its three hundred thousand inhabitants, being entitled to no more than two members, while the borough of Harwich, with only one hundred and ninety-five electors, is entitled to the same number. The qualifications requisite to confer the elective franchise,

are such as must necessarily concentrate in the small constituencies an overwhelming influence in the hands of great proprietors; the electors being so dependent upon the landlords, that, in many of the boroughs not disfranchised by the reform bill, the electors invariably return to parliament the nominees of the aristocratic proprietor of the property. The house of lords is composed almost entirely of land-owners,—an hereditary aristocracy, whose landed estates are, in very many cases, entailed. It is not, therefore, astonishing, that the parliament of Great Britain should, while legislating for the good of the nation in general, be mindful of the interests of the legislators themselves in particular, and that the aristocracy should employ its influence in perpetuating its own privileges.

Corn has been subject to legislation in England from the time of the conquest. Latterly, however, the laws regulating the trade in corn have been framed with an object very different from that aimed at by the earlier enactments.

For a long time the corn laws were intended to secure abundance; both an adequate supply, and a low price. In order to secure this object, the exportation of corn was prohibited; but the prohibition was subsequently modified to a restriction, when wheat bore above a certain price in the market. Other enactments were framed, which it is not necessary here to allude to; but the whole tendency of the laws was to secure to the people an ample supply of cheap bread.

The first important change in this system took place at the close of the revolution, upon the accession of William III. By an act passed 1 William and Mary, the exportation of wheat was not only permitted, but a bounty of five shillings per quarter was paid on all shipped out of the country. This was done to promote the interests of the agriculturists, which were then considered to be of paramount importance. The importation of corn was regulated to promote the same interests, upon the principle of prohibition, or duties equivalent to it, when the price was below a point which might be assumed to be a low price; at a middle and moderate duty, when the price was high; and a free importation, or at most a nominal duty, when corn came to a famine price. It will be readily seen, that this change of system, instead of creating a tendency to low prices, caused prices to tend in the opposite direction. The landed interests, having had a controlling influence in parliament, have hitherto succeeded in maintaining this principle, though with various modifications, to this time; the great object being, to secure to the English wheat-grower a monopoly of the home market, to the entire exclusion of grain of foreign growth.

The present corn law was enacted in 1828, and the following is the rate of duty payable upon the importation of wheat into the ports of the United Kingdom for consumption:

The importation for the purpose of being warehoused, is free.						
When the price is 62s., and under 63s. per quarter, the duty is £1 4s. 8d.						
“	63	“	64	“	“	1 3 8
“	64	“	65	“	“	1 2 8
“	65	“	66	“	“	1 1 8
“	66	“	67	“	“	1 0 8
“	67	“	68	“	“	18 8
“	68	“	69	“	“	16 8
“	69	“	70	“	“	13 8
“	70	“	71	“	“	10 8

When the price is 71s., and under 72s. per quarter, the duty is	6s. 8d.
“ 72 “ 73 “ “	2 8
“ 73 or upwards, “ “	1 0

and when the price is under 62s., the duty rises one shilling per quarter for every shilling the price is reduced.*

The duty on barley, oats, peas, rye, &c., are all regulated upon the same principle.

To ascertain the prices, dealers in grain throughout the kingdom are required to make weekly returns, setting forth the whole quantity, and no more, of British corn bought, either by or for them, during the periods of time to which they refer, with the prices and the names of the sellers respectively.

These returns are collected in upwards of one hundred market towns in the kingdom, by persons appointed for that purpose, called corn inspectors, and by them transmitted to the comptroller of corn returns in London. This officer computes the average in the following manner:

On Thursday of each week, the comptroller takes the returns for the preceding week, including Saturday, and adds the returns therein made, to ascertain the total quantity of corn sold, and the total price. This total price is divided by the total quantity, and the quotient is the average of the week. The average of this week is added with the averages of the five preceding weeks, the total divided by 6, and the result is deemed as the average price, for the purpose of regulating and ascertaining the amount of duties: and the comptroller forthwith transmits the average so ascertained to the collector, or chief officer of the customs, in each of the ports of the United Kingdom, and the duties are levied, according to these averages, on all grain imported into England for consumption. The duties being arranged according to this sliding scale, it is difficult to imagine a system more cunningly devised to protect the British land-owner, at the expense of all other classes.

The benefit is not gained by the nation, as the duties prohibit all importation, until the price of corn approaches that point, at which very little revenue can be collected from it. Nor is it gained by the cultivator of the soil, inasmuch as the higher the price of corn, the greater is the rent demanded by the landlords. The soil of England is divided into great estates, which are held by the nobility and wealthy aristocracy, and the farmers are mostly tenants. Consequently, the only tendency of the corn laws is to swell the rents and incomes of the owners of land.

The averages, being computed in the way we have described, afford in reality a much greater protection than is apparent. The average must be taken for six weeks. To admit corn at the duty of one shilling, requires that it should have borne a high price in market for a long time. If the first week of the six, the price should be 63s., and the next four weeks, 73s., it would require that the price should be as high as 83s. for the sixth week, to make a six weeks' average of 73s. In short, no corn can be admitted, unless at a ruinous duty, except during a period of severe and long-continued scarcity.

* For a tabular statement of the duty payable per barrel on American flour, under the corn laws, and for an account of the average price of wheat in Great Britain in 1840, and other valuable statistics connected with the same subject, see pages 386, 387, and 388, of this Magazine, for October, 1841.—*Ed. Mag.*

The corn laws operate in a way to make the trade in corn essentially a gambling business. Since the manufactures of England have become so extensive, and population has so much increased, the price of corn has been uniformly higher in England than in other countries; and under a system of reciprocal trade, the English people would naturally consume a good deal of foreign growth. So long, however, as the supply in England is not absolutely short, it cannot be imported. The first symptoms of a short supply are followed by movements, having for their object to get foreign grain into bond, ready to be introduced the moment the averages can be forced up to the proper point. This done, and the operation is attended with an immense profit; if it fail, it is attended with loss, as a matter of course.

If the profit is realized, it is of course taken from the consumer. But it does not go into the exchequer, nor is the advantage gained by the public. It is gained by the dealers, whose interest is thus identified with the support of monopoly.

When England has a short supply of corn, and is forced to have recourse to other countries, she does not find on hand a surplus ready for her purpose. She is not a regular customer. Consequently no preparations are made to supply her demand. An inevitable consequence is, a sudden rise in price in the markets in which the demand is made, as is the case in every market, when a demand comes of an extraordinary nature. And the difficulty may be still more aggravated by the conduct of other governments; like the French, for example, who have once prohibited exportation of bread stuffs, when the English harvest has failed.

The demand being extraordinary, the means of payment must be provided out of the usual course of trade. Other nations are not prepared to take, at a moment's notice, English fabrics to the value of six or seven millions sterling; nor are they ready to give credit for corn, which must be had at a moment's notice. Payment must be made in gold: and the manufacturing and commercial interests are not only deprived of the trade to this extent, which, in the natural course of things, they ought to enjoy, but are subjected to the losses and depreciation of property attendant upon every convulsion in the money market.

The money market in London may be in a tranquil state, trade apparently prosperous, and every thing going on smoothly, when there may occur ten days of wet weather in August, damaging the crops, and exciting alarm for the incoming harvest. The speculators send abroad for grain, and the Bank of England finds itself most dangerously in debt to other countries, and a heavy drain existing upon its treasure. The screw must be applied instantly; the money market is thrown into an agony of pressure; the bank itself is in jeopardy. During the occurrence of such a state of things in 1839, it was only by the most extraordinary exertions, aided by a timely loan from the Bank of France, it saved itself from stoppage.

The tendency of prices is to fluctuate violently. The price of 73s. being reached in the average, the ports are opened to admit foreign wheat, at one shilling duty. Immediately there may be a million quarters, (eight million bushels,) which had been previously locked up in warehouses, entered for consumption. So large a quantity thrown into market, naturally causes the price to recede. The averages suddenly fall. The duty

becomes prohibitory, and further supplies are prevented, until the same fluctuating process is again gone over.

The corn laws operate to tax the many for the benefit of the few: that is, the great body, who are all consumers, are taxed indirectly for the comparatively insignificant number who are land-owners. The price at which bread is sold in England is, by the operation of the law, kept at a point far above what its natural price should be, judging from the price at which it can be afforded after paying the government an aggregate revenue equal to what it now receives, and independent of the advantage of paying for it in manufactures. This difference is paid by the consumer, and goes out of his pocket; therefore, it is a tax: but the national treasury does not receive it, nor does the foreigner; but it finds its way into the pocket of the land-owner in the shape of an increased rent.

These laws have an important bearing upon the commercial and manufacturing interests of Great Britain, both as respects the foreign and domestic trade; and also upon the moral and social condition of the working classes.

Great Britain is the great exporter of manufactures of every description; of cotton, wool, linen, iron, &c.: she has abundance of minerals and raw materials, and from her position, and the skill she has attained in every branch of manufacture, owing to the minute division of labor among her artisans, is capable of supplying other nations with most articles of necessity cheaper than they can supply themselves.

It might be supposed that a trade so extensive would be of immense value; and it might be so to England, were it not for her own restrictions upon it. Her trade with Europe is not extensive, and is every year diminishing; for the simple reason, that trade cannot be maintained between two nations when one acts upon the principle of selling, but refusing to buy in return.

The fields of Europe are fertile, and can be made to produce immense quantities of the finest wheat, at prices which would allow it to be delivered in London, upon an average, at about 46s. per quarter, after paying the cost in Poland, and all expense of freight, damage, drying, screening, commissions, insurance, and all other charges. This is lower than the average of prices in England, which appears to have been uniformly higher than 46s. since 1793, except in one instance, in 1822, when the price was 44s. 7d. The operatives of England want this corn: the continental laborers want their manufactures: both are suffering from want of employment; and both might be profitably employed if they could exchange their productions with each other: yet both are compelled to stand still, as the Englishman is not allowed to receive the corn, which is the only commodity his customer has to give him.

Mr. Keyser, one of the assistant-commissioners recently appointed to inquire into the condition of the hand-loom weavers, says, in his report, that the manufacturing classes attribute their distress to the operation of the corn laws. He says: "Opinions, all tending to the same purport, are variously given, one of which I cannot forbear to quote: '*If I make a piece of cloth, and meet a Frenchman with a sack of corn on his back, I should be glad to exchange; but up steps a customhouse officer, and won't let me; and I may eat my cloth if I can.*' A clearer explanation of the effect of the corn laws upon the manufacturing classes in England, it is not within the power of language to give."

The exclusion of continental corn from British ports has led to a system of retaliation on the part of other powers, by means of high protective or prohibitory duties. They have felt themselves forced into it, against their interests and their wishes. Dr. Bowring, who was employed by the English government on a tour of commercial observation in France, Belgium, Switzerland, and other countries, gives it as his decided opinion, that the system of restriction pursued by England has caused retaliatory duties to be imposed by the states on the continent. He thinks the German commercial union would not have been formed, had the policy of the British government been more liberal. The agricultural states of Europe would be glad to receive English manufactures, if they could give corn in return; and would make liberal concessions in their tariffs if they could be met in a corresponding spirit by England: to some of the continental states, however, a relaxation on the part of England would now come too late; manufactures have there got a strong foothold, and the manufacturing interests have become influential. In many articles of manufacture, the Germans now are able to compete successfully with the English in their markets, and would listen to no modification which would tend to give the English manufacturers any advantage. Indeed, by great numbers of the manufacturers of Germany, the repeal of the corn laws of England would be considered a misfortune.

To examine this subject in all its bearings, would be interesting, but would make at least a dozen articles of the length to which it is proper this should be extended. It is the object of this article to give a mere outline of the subject; and, therefore, it only remains here to point out the effects of the corn laws upon the moral and social condition of the English working classes. The effect is prejudicial in the highest degree. In the first place, England is overcrowded with a laboring population. But when the difficulty of obtaining employment is got over, the operative finds his wages fixed at the very lowest point at which he can subsist. As bread is *the* article of first necessity, so a large part of his scanty earnings must be expended for that article, and the higher the tax upon it, the greater proportion of his wages he expends for it, and the less is left to be expended for clothing, fuel, and other articles of equal necessity; while nothing is left to educate his children, or add to his own domestic enjoyments. In this way the almost universal lack of comfort among the working classes is accounted for, as well as the fact, that, in too many cases, they exist in a state of extreme destitution, distress, and moral degradation.

It is by no means certain that the present exclusive system of England is altogether owing to the corn laws, but there is no doubt the existence of the corn laws has been a powerful support to the exclusive system in other particulars. A landed aristocracy, wielding the law-making power, and desirous to maintain their exclusive privileges, may be supposed to have been quite willing to accede to requests made by other interests for protection; and by this means to divert attention from their own monopoly. A prohibition or restriction having been laid upon some branch of trade, the parties whose interests were adversely effected thereby, were quieted by some restriction made for their benefit; so that the commerce of England has become fettered by a circle of restrictions, that have been thrown around it at various times and for various purposes.

So far the commercial and manufacturing interests of Great Britain have flourished; but, as Lord Palmerston well remarked, it is not in con-

sequence of these restrictions, but in spite of them. It is now under different circumstances than formerly, that England is competing with the rest of the world. The long period of peace, since 1815, has given other nations an opportunity to embark in commerce, and they have not failed to improve it. Other nations have entered into the business of manufacturing, and instead of being longer customers to England, have become her competitors. Consequently, her manufacturing interests are depressed, and her commerce labors under disadvantage.

The merchants and manufacturers have at last discovered the cause of their embarrassments. They have too much protection. The manufacturers are willing to dispense with all protecting duties, and allow other nations to meet them in their own markets, trusting to their superior skill and natural advantages to compete successfully with them—*provided they can have cheap bread*. They ask that machinery may be allowed to be exported, allowing the foreigner the benefit of all their inventions and improvements, in full confidence that they can compete with him, if they can have cheap bread. In fact, the best artisans of England are leaving her, for countries where they can exert their skill, and be free from restriction; so that some relaxation of her system is necessary, if she would not see her commercial and manufacturing interests undermined.

This general system of restriction has also had its influence on the working classes. While other classes of society were protecting themselves by regulations, the working classes have deemed it meet to make restrictions for themselves. Not being influential enough to get enactments by parliament to meet their wishes, they have adopted the more humble, but not less effectual mode of forming combinations; and the manufacturing districts of England are full of them, and completely under their influence: they fix the price of their labor—the hours they will work; in some trades, the number of hands that may be employed. The results of recent inquiry have shown, that no better results have attended their exertions than have attended those of their more aristocratic countrymen; and, in more than one district in England, entire branches of manufacture have been completely annihilated by the operation of these combinations.

It would be interesting to consider the effect the repeal of the corn laws will have upon the trade between this country and England, now that our immense agricultural resources in the west are becoming developed, and our means of transportation are so extensive; but the limits of this paper will not admit of it. It is not too much, however, to predict, that the period is near when not only Englishmen, but people of other nations, will see their true interests, not in restrictive systems, nor in regulations to fetter and clog the free course of commerce: when they will realize that the Almighty has provided abundantly, though unequally, for the supply of the wants of man, and refrain from interposing obstacles to the supply of those who are destitute by those who are overflowing with plenty, who might in return receive the means of supplying wants equally imperative; thus conducing to the mutual happiness and welfare of all mankind.

ART. IV.—THE MORALS OF TRADE.

NUMBER ONE.

EVERY calling and occupation in life has its peculiar trials and temptations; generally in proportion to its privileges are its dangers. It is needful to find what kind of armor is necessary for the particular conflict every one has to fight. This armor, or set of rules, that may guard or shield us, we call the *morals* of the calling in which it is used. Not that there is one set of rules for one calling, and another set of rules for another, which contradict each other; not that there is one kind of morality for ministers, and another kind of morality for merchants. Morality is one and individual, like goodness, like God; but it may be applied to a profession, to a walk in life, to circumstances, so different from other circumstances, as to give it a modification which may entitle it to a name; and hence we have headed our article "morals of trade."

The walk of the merchant is less defined, by public sentiment, than any other. Since all men may be called traders, from those who buy and sell penny whistles, to the great mercantile establishments which regulate the currency of nations; it is so hard to say who is a merchant and who a huckster, who a broker and who a breaker of fortunes, who is respectable and ought not to be so, and who is not in high repute, though never so honest, that the rules, maxims, code and morals, regulations of trade have been left pretty much to themselves, uncollected and often disregarded. Besides, a false and fatal view has obtained, that moral and intellectual progress are somehow out of the reach of the practical men of the world. It has been thought that goodness was a profession like law or medicine; that the culture of the mind was a kind of exclusive business; that such affairs, the pursuit of virtue and the enlargement of the intellect, were quite distinct from the occupations of life. Happily for society, the instincts of men are often stronger than the influence of their theories, and while such notions as we have noticed have been common, the operation of the great laws of God in the heart and mind, have produced what the action of the theory would destroy.

The business of trade is constantly placing a man in an attitude for the training of his heart and mind. No school turns out better pupils; so sharpens the acuteness of the mind; teaches prudence, foresight, cause and effect, the great relations of different parts of the world to one another. Every profession and trade may call into exercise every other. "Difficile est enim," says Cicero, "in philosophia pauca esse ei nota, cui non sint aut pleraque, aut omnia." It is difficult in philosophy, (the philosophy of trade as well as any other philosophy,) for him to know well a few things by whom all or most things are not known. We divide knowledge into departments for convenience and call them by separate names, as if they were distinct; not remembering that there is but one great science, nature,—auxiliary, explanatory of which are all the facts we discover by experience; and then think, in the weak pride of human nature, that we create. There is no scientific knowledge, no nice moral distinctions which would not help the merchant in his calling. He often feels a want and perplexity, which, by good rights, he should attribute to a want of knowledge rather than to ill luck. He makes mis-

takes, miscalculations; is defrauded and ruined, from the absence of that, with which he thinks he has nothing to do—knowledge. He amasses a fortune, builds up a name, pulls down his small house and erects a palace, and wonders he is not happy, from the absence of that, too, with which he thinks he has nothing to do, except in a very general way—morals. In spite of the wrong notions that are prevalent in the world upon these subjects, men are forced into the acquisition of that, to which if they would add, by voluntary contributions and special effort, the employments of trade would assume the dignity of the learned professions, and stand out with much of the beauty and symmetry of the fine arts. If the code of honor among merchants were misplaced by the code of morals, founded upon the corner-stone of the religion of Jesus Christ, we might look to see the golden age of happiness, contentment, and order, instead of living in daily expectation of disaster, from some secret manœuvre, whose best excuse is not better than a plea of self-interest. If the relations of science and trade were better understood, and more readily acknowledged, we might look for a mercantile prosperity which should, in returning streams, like the just, equable, and beautiful order of nature, water the gardens of learning through the land, and repay to these fountains from which it had drawn its nourishment, encouragement, countenance, and support, until we should be able to realize a general intelligence in our people, broad and deep enough to support, beyond the shadow of a doubt, the pillars of the constitution. In such a state of things what progress might be hoped for the arts, which in their turn would repay fourfold! How would the comforts and the elegancies of life keep pace with a sense of the true and the beautiful excited in the minds of our people! Religion, education, trade—all would rejoice together, all having a high common object, the general good and happiness of the nation.

To endeavor to mark out the morals of trade, while the general principle of trade is denounced as a disease in our social condition, were a vain task indeed. Let us then consider what trade is; whether it is founded in necessity, in philosophy, or, in other words, in right reason.

The whole world may be called a perfect imperfection; that is, it is a system of wants, desires, and necessities,—imperfect, unsatisfied, as it regards the wishes of man, yet perfect and adapted to the design for which they were instituted by the divine mind. If this earth were heaven, a state of entire happiness, instead of being a place of discipline, trade would not, perhaps, be known in the system of things; but men would live in a pastoral state, by the side of streams and beneath the shade of spreading beach-trees, where the music of birds, the odor of flowers, and balmy airs would lull them to repose, filled with a sense of beauty, contentment, and peace. No such paradise is ours. We live in a state of labor. It is the order of our being, that if a man do not work neither shall he eat. In the division of labor, trade is one of the contrivances of man's ingenuity for bettering his condition. It is a department, a profession of human industry, and ought to subserve the greatest good of the greatest number. Does it do this? Would the world be better off, if every man united in his own person what are now distributed among classes of men, and which give to them their names or calling? All men are occupied either in producing, distributing, or consuming. The last is common to all. And although it would be a happy circumstance if the first two divisions embraced the race, yet the fact that there are consum-

ers, who are neither distributors nor producers, makes such a division necessary. Producers and distributors are again subdivided for mutual convenience, while the non-producing, non-distributing consumers admit of no further distinction, except in degree of consumption.

Trade is the general name of distribution, and may be united with producing. All farmers, mechanics, artists, teachers, are the producers; while all traders, carriers, agents, are the distributors of wealth, together with the learned professions of law and medicine, who guide and assist in carrying on this great business—the profession of preachers belonging to the producing class, that of teacher. How trade can be dispensed with, or what are the arguments of those who are loud in denouncing it, it is difficult to discover. If the mechanic is improved in his art by giving his attention solely to it, enabling him, by exchange, to command the products of other arts, we see not why the trader is not also improved in his art by an undivided attention to it. The producer wishes to exchange his wheat, his hay, his cotton, for various necessaries for his family. Having been occupied in his vocation, he is perhaps ignorant of the texture, soundness, and general value of the various articles needed, and therefore he goes to a person who has made it his study or practice to inform himself upon such points, who makes his purchases for him. In this way he avoids risk: is aided in point of time, convenience, and money; for which aid he pays, by allowing him who acts for him a higher price than he would pay, were he to buy of the original producers of the articles he is in need of. If one may justly pay a lawyer for an opinion respecting the goodness of a title to land; a physician for information respecting diet and exercise, why not also recompense the merchant for his opinion and time? We must notice the truism “that time is money,” which the denouncers of trade seem to have forgotten. Your grocer, at the corner, keeps on hand, at the risk of fire, waste, and damage, goods which, were you to seek them in the places where they were produced, would employ all your time and strength. Is he not to be paid for doing you this service? You are a physician, perhaps, and in his turn he pays you five dollars for the visit of ten minutes; which also is just, as he pays you this, not for that small modicum of your time, but for holding yourself in readiness to attend him; for the expenses of your education; for your library and instruments. In paying you, reference is had to all your relations to time and all your affairs; and he asks the same regard from you in paying him.

Trade then is as necessary as the professions: it is a profession itself, an art; something that is learned; that requires practice, skill, and judgment. It admits of degrees of success, according to the amount of knowledge, industry, and attention bestowed upon it; and, being founded in the wants of society, may have its laws or morals.

When our hearts are pained by the gross immoralities that prevail in large mercantile and manufacturing towns; when we witness the squalid want and disease that hang upon the skirts of a city; the opportunities that are offered, in the general bustle and hurry, for empiricism and deception in all shapes, we feel disposed to doubt if God ever intended men should herd together in such large masses, and, without producing, live by the distribution and exchange of the labor of the husbandman and mechanic. On the other hand, too, we picture in imagination the simplicity and security of rural life; the health and purity of country habits. From amid

the coal-smoke of a city, its noisy cart-wheels, and the tramping of many feet, we turn our minds to that cottage, where our parents perhaps yet live, with its green, velvet fields, its well-known trees, the very shape of whose branches we recollect, its ancient walks, and unpretending, happy appearance. Let not the counting-room or the shop want such dreams and pictures; let them be cherished as sacred; and hugged close to the heart. They will keep alive in us the sympathies of humanity, and purify and freshen those affections which are well-nigh lost or smothered in the jostlings of the crowd and the strife of competition.

Nevertheless, such thoughts contain no argument against trade. The evils incident to cities, the suffering, sickness, and vice, that excite our regret, are the result of the misuse of great privileges; not necessary consequences. It is a law of nature that we must pay for all we have; and suffer for all our faults. A man, living alone in a valley, without intercourse with any human being, could not be guilty of dishonesty, of murder—of any vice that belongs to society; but for this exemption from temptation he would pay dearly by the want of that progress, sympathy, and mutual aid which are the great blessings of the social condition. The opportunities for individual improvement are increased, the more numerous men congregate together. A greater number of examples is furnished, from which to form an opinion upon a given subject; the objects of science, literature, and art, can be conducted upon a larger scale by the contributions of many individuals. The lawyer has his mind full of information from the variety of questions discussed about him. The physician meets the tendency to disease in cities with a sagacity and experimental knowledge he could never have acquired in a narrower sphere, and the clergyman may be lifted to the occasion and speak with an eloquence proportioned to the danger that surrounds our virtue.

All those arts and inventions for convenience, economy, and health, here find their spur and origin, which taking their rise from the necessities of men congregated together, are spread through the towns and villages of the country, where they never could have originated because never absolutely needful. The facilities of speedy intercourse between cities furnish a highway to the farmer for the transportation of himself and his harvest, whither he would go; who, were it not for the energy of trade, might at this very hour be travelling by the side of his ox-team in the dust or mud of the turnpike. The city—the offspring of trade—is the court where a judgment is put upon the value of every article by actual comparison with others of the same kind. Not only is mind compared with mind, but cloth with cloth, wheat with wheat, and machinery with machinery. Here is made a decision in a day or hour, which a long experience only could arrive at by actual personal trial. These are some of the advantages which accrue to the world from what are called the unnatural herding of men together in cities. These can furnish an offset against those evils which, after all, are so many privileges of humanity. From this crime, vice, and poverty about us, can be traced those institutions which make glad the heart of the philanthropist. Truly are we “made perfect by suffering.” What a field for the practice of benevolence and charity! How truly here can it be learned that “it is more blessed to give than receive!”

We shall contend then for the general morality of trade, for these reasons. It is a divine institution. It is the necessary employment of men in a highly social state, which could not exist in any other way. For if all

were producers, they would necessarily be scattered so widely as to be deprived of the advantages we have mentioned. And having established this point as a foundation work, we propose to consider trade in its more particular features, and discover, if possible, what are the principles that ought to govern it.

ART. V.—SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED MERCHANTS.

NUMBER III.

LIFE AND CHARACTER OF THE LATE NICHOLAS BROWN.

It should ever make the heart sorrowful, to see the good among our race passing away from earth; and thrice so when the conviction forces itself upon us, that we may hardly hope their places will be filled by others so pure and noble. The young may go down to the grave, leaving a spotless name gemmed with many virtues, and beyond the narrow circle of a few friends and mourning relatives, none will know nor sorrow for their going; and there may be many old men, with silver hair, who in their well-spanned, upright lives, passed quietly and within narrow limits, have done little else than good to all their fellows:—these, too, will be mourned, though perchance not by many, save those they knew and blessed while living; and yet when these—the young or old—depart, society is much the loser. But when one is taken from us, whose youth reached back to the birth of our republic, whose early years were spent amid the revolutionary struggles of our fathers, whose experience measured our whole being as a nation, and whose memory thronged with the recollections of a period, of which every year leaves fewer living witnesses; and, when added to all this, an old man is cut down, whose life since boyhood has been one of activity and usefulness, whose public services and noble benefactions have spread widely his reputation and his name; then ought all to regret his departure, for the whole community sustains a loss, it need not shame to mourn. Such men as these are rare, and soon will pass away forever; and one of them, Nicholas Brown of Providence, Rhode Island, has just now gone to another world, and slumbers with the dead of ages. He was a merchant—upright and honorable—possessing an adventurous spirit, guided by a judgment that seldom erred. He loved the employment he had chosen, and ardently pursued it during half a century, toiling steadily on, and firmly encountering the dark changes that mark the commercial history of our country during that long period. Fortune smiled upon his labors, and dealt gently by the good ships and rich merchandise he sent forth upon the sea; and there are few men by whom the well-earned wealth of a long life has been applied so liberally, and for such wise and good purposes, as by him whose death we now record. We applaud the exertions of no man, however adventurous and persevering, whose sole object is the acquisition of riches, that he may hoard them up in the miser's chest. We think such men are oftener a curse than a blessing to the society in which they live; for their gold enables them to act the oppressor, when, without it, they would be powerless: but he who, like the subject of this sketch, toils for wealth, that with it he may glad the hearts of his fellow-men, and rear up benevolent

institutions to cheer the lives of those whom God afflicts with disease and suffering, deserves to be remembered in gratitude, long after the marble upon his tomb shall have crumbled into dust. Every age can claim a few such men, and right glad are we to know that not the least of these are merchants. We feel a pride as we con over their names and reflect that for many generations, that class of mankind to whose interests we have dedicated this work, have well maintained their station among those who are remembered as the noblest benefactors of our race. They have redeemed the name of the merchant from the reproach it once bore, of worshipping nought save the mammon of gold; they have proved him capable of gathering in wealth on the one hand, and widely and liberally dispensing it on the other; to them we owe many of our most useful and enlightened institutions, and to them we are indebted for much that now sheds a moral and intellectual light over the face of society. And were we called upon to mention one of the present age, who has gone onward upon the earth, spreading about him the blessings we have here mentioned, few could be named who have done more than the man whose life, in its most prominent outlines, we now propose briefly to trace.

Nicholas Brown was a native of New England, and was born on the fourth of April, 1760, at Providence, in the state of Rhode Island. His father was a merchant of considerable eminence, and through life bore the name of an honorable and good man. He was in affluent circumstances, and to this was his son indebted for an education more liberal and finished, than usually falls to the lot of the merchant to acquire. At the age of thirteen he entered Rhode Island College, since named, in honor of himself, Brown University, from whence he graduated before reaching the age of eighteen. But two or three of his classmates, then fifteen in number, are now living: save these few, all have been gathered to their fathers. Towards this institution of learning, he ever evinced the warmest veneration and regard; and during half a century of his life, he was the main pillar of its prosperity. For fifty years after completing his studies within its walls, he was officially and intimately associated with the councils that sustained its rising fame; and most generously did he pour forth his gold for the advancement of its interests. During a period of twenty-nine years he was its treasurer: in 1791, he was elected a member of its Board of Trustees; and from 1825 until his death, he was a member of its Board of Fellows. At different periods of his life, he erected, solely at his own expense, "Hope College," and "Manning Hall," two edifices attached to the University, the latter of which he named in honor of Dr. Manning, who was the president of the institution during the time he pursued his studies there; and whose memory he ever cherished with the utmost respect and admiration. He gave at one time five thousand dollars for the establishment of a professorship; at another, ten thousand dollars towards the erection of Rhode Island Hall, and the president's mansion house, and when the fund of twenty-five thousand dollars was raised for the benefit of the library and of the chemical and philosophical departments, he bestowed towards it the like munificent donation. And it has been estimated, that including his bequest to this University, the whole amount to which it stands debtor to his bounty, falls little, if any, short of one hundred thousand dollars. Under the auspices of such a man, no one need wonder that this temple of learning now ranks deservedly high among its sister institutions in our land; and it affords us deep gratification to know, that ere

death made cold the heart and dark the brain of him whose name it bears, he saw it careering onward in the highest prosperity and usefulness.

But let us return to the earlier periods of his life. When twenty-two his father died, from whom he inherited a handsome fortune ; and had he been like many young men thus situated, whom we are frequently pained to see wasting their time and energies, and all the advantages so lavished upon them, in idle, enervating pleasures ; he, too, would have squandered his patrimony mid the gay round of the world's enjoyments, leaving behind him a name remembered only when read upon his tombstone. He possessed all the elements necessary to pass a life of easy happiness. A liberal education had prepared his mind to enjoy literary pursuits, the conversation of the learned, and the society of the rich and fashionable. Wealth unsought and unearned had descended upon him, placing all these enjoyments within his reach, and inviting him to taste the pleasures that clustered so temptingly around. To resist all these combined attractions, required the exercise of much self-denial, personal control, and a high and honorable ambition. These he possessed, and the romance of life, at that season of youth when the whole world is clad in fancy's brightest colors, was exchanged for the silent counting-room, and the crowded wharf. He became a merchant in the most ample and comprehensive sense of that term ; and in connection with the late Thomas P. Ives, who had married his only sister, commenced his commercial career. Possessing a capital of sufficient magnitude to embark heavily in foreign trade, it was quickly engrossed in wide-spread maritime operations, extending to almost every clime ; and in the diversified risks to which it was exposed, affording ample opportunities to test the strength and sagacity of the mind by which it was controlled. To every emergency he was found fully equal, nor quailed he in those dark hours of anxiety, to which the merchant who trusts his all on the bosom of the deep, is more than any other man liable to experience. Nor were the winds and waves, nor the tempests that dance so wildly upon the sea, his only or worst enemies. Wars troubled the ocean, and armed ships swept its surface ; and the vessel of the peaceful trader was seized and condemned. The French revolution, carrying the destructive policy of restrictive measures in its train, hurled its stormy elements through the commercial world, burying the fortunes and crushing the prospects of hundreds in their course ; and many years later came the struggle between the infant navy of our own country and the colossal maritime power of Great Britain, spreading disasters to the commerce of American merchants throughout every clime and on every sea : and through both these whirlwind periods, firm as rock, stood the mercantile reputation of Brown and Ives ; the mind of its senior partner growing more calm and active, and calling new resources to its aid, as the elements gathered more dark and threatening around the commercial fortunes of his house. That he was honorable in his dealings, and forgot not the probity and integrity of the man, in the gain-loving spirit of the trader, we need hardly affirm ; and this indeed is evidenced in nothing so strongly, as in his long-prospered life ; for seldom do we see the career of half a century flourish, without interruption, upon the earnings of dishonesty and fraud. Added to this honesty of purpose too, which pervaded, and as it were, sanctified every business transaction in which he engaged, was an element of success which we fear is regarded by many as an object of too little importance to repay the toil with which it is acquired, though we

assure all such, that nothing is more essential to enable the merchant to secure a fortunate result to his maritime undertakings :—we mean the possession of an accurate and varied knowledge of the wants and resources of his own, and those of other nations to which his trade extended. Of this information he possessed an amount, which in magnitude and usefulness few in his age had acquired ; and this, combined with that knowledge of the commercial marine enjoyed both by our own and the European world, in which no man was his superior, enabled him to conduct his far-stretching mercantile operations, with a prospect of ultimate success amounting almost to certainty.

Until the death of his partner, in 1836, Mr. Brown continued actively and unremittingly engaged in the employment which had so deeply engrossed his energies for more than forty years, and to which he seemed bound more by habits of industry, an enterprising spirit, and a love of that excitement with which the mind of the adventurous merchant is so much filled, than by any desire to enlarge his already ample fortune. After that event, he engaged less ardently in the busy concerns of life, though until a short time previous to his death, he was accustomed to the daily transaction of business at his counting-room, and was in the constant habit of mingling in the affairs of that active commercial world to which he had become wedded by the ties of half a century. On the 27th of October last, after suffering a considerable period with the dropsy, he died, in the seventy-third year of his age. Of the many who are daily leaving this for another world, there are few whose names will be so warmly and reverently cherished, as the name of this man. Few have lived so long a life, and passed to the tomb less tainted with the vices of the world ; and few, very few there are, who have done less injury and more good unto their fellow men. In public life, he ever pursued a consistent and honorable course. With his politics we have nothing to do :—they were of the old whig school ;—such as were entertained by Washington and Hamilton ; and for these he will not by us be upbraided or censured. It is enough for us to know, that he adhered to this political creed with the sincerity and truthfulness of an upright and honest man. For this,—and it is no common virtue,—he deserves our admiration. For many years he occupied a seat in the legislative councils of his native State, and at one time held the office of first Senator. The duties of these stations he discharged with dignity and honor, not so much swerved by the tyrannical dictates of party spirit, as many others who professed to yield less obedience to its power. The last political act of his existence was performed at Harrisburg. He was a member of the convention that met there to nominate a candidate for the presidency of our Union. He cast his vote for the departed Harrison ; he saw him elevated to a seat a monarch might envy ; he saw him wear his robes of state for a brief season, and then sink into a grave, lowly as the tomb of the mendicant ;—humble as the one soon to be occupied by himself.

In private life the character of Mr. Brown was pure and unexceptionable. Over his temper and passions he exercised an almost perfect control, and nature had endowed him with a kind heart and generous impulses. He was married twice :—to his first wife in 1791. In 1798 she died, and in 1801 he married his second wife, who died in 1836. He has left two sons and five grandchildren. To his family he was ever fondly attached, and few men in domestic life were loved more tenderly. He was gene-

rous and charitable, too, and delighted in making glad the hearts of the poor; and from the beggar who met him in the street and asked alms, he turned not coldly away. Of his public charities we hardly need speak;—they will remain to consecrate his memory, long after this brief notice of his life shall have been cast aside and forgotten. Nor were his benefactions confined to that noble institution we have before mentioned, and which bears his name: the broadest views of the most generous philanthropist, could not have extended them more widely. His gold was freely bestowed to aid the spread of the gospel in heathen lands; and he gave too without ostentation, as becometh the Christian and the good man. Without that parade of godliness which ever detracts so much from the true value of the most liberal bounty, he often assisted the church at home, with heavy contributions; and by the calm and steady influence which the man who passes a long life wisely and well may at all times exercise, aided by the energies of a mind that loved the promotion of good works, he united his exertions with those of others, in advancing the cause of morality and religion, wherever his fortune or personal efforts could accomplish those objects. As he drew nearer the grave, the love he had ever borne his race seemed to grow more strongly upon him, and all the kinder feelings of his nature were manifested with no less warmth than in the prime of manhood. With those whom disease had stricken in mind or body, he had always sympathized; and that while standing on the borders of another world, he forgot not to provide for the afflicted among his fellows, most impressively appears in the following bequest extracted from one of the codicils annexed to his last Will and Testament.

“And whereas it has long been deeply impressed on my mind, that an Insane or Lunatic Hospital, or Retreat for the Insane, should be established upon a firm and permanent basis, under an act of the Legislature, where that unhappy portion of our fellow citizens, who are by the visitation of Providence deprived of their reason, may find a safe retreat and be provided with whatever may be most conducive to their comfort, and to their restoration to a sound state of mind: therefore, for the purpose of aiding an object so desirable, and in the hope that such an establishment may soon be commenced, I do hereby set apart and give, devise and bequeath, the sum of Thirty Thousand Dollars towards the erection of an Insane or Lunatic Hospital, or Retreat for the Insane, or by whatever other name it may be called, to be located in Providence or its vicinity; and I do hereby order and direct my said executors, to pay the said sum of thirty thousand dollars in the promotion and advancement of an institution for that object, trusting, and fully confiding in my executors, that they will carefully examine, and be satisfied that the establishment is placed on a firm and legal basis; and that the payment of the above amount be made at such times and in such sums, as will best promote the desired object, and be least prejudicial to the settlement of my own estates; hoping that my sons and other friends will co-operate in the humane and benevolent design, that the benefits of the Institution may soon be realized.”

This is a generous gift for a most noble purpose, and we trust no time will be lost in incorporating an institution equal in permanency and usefulness to the one contemplated by the departed donor. That it should bear his name upon its portals, to perpetuate the memory of its founder, is a matter of such bare and common justice, as well to him as to his descendants, and all those who love his name, that we need hardly say it

can be called by no other ; and ere long we hope to see "Brown's Retreat for the Insane," rearing its ample architecture in or near the city in which he was born, and loved to dwell. It is not long since, that those whom reason deserted, were treated with as much, nay more cruelty, than the worst of felons ; were chained like raving devils, and made to endure stripes, and starvation, and privations unknown to malefactors ;—as though the most effectual way to restore man's intellect to its majesty and strength, were to treat him like a beast of prey ;—as though, in fact, he had no intellect at all. We do not mean to say that in our own land they have endured such barbarous and unchristian usage ; though until some few years back, we believe more expense and care have been bestowed, and more anxiety manifested, to rid society of the wretched maniac by sequestering him from home and friends, and all the comforts that God's creatures possessed of sane mental faculties enjoy, than were expended in curing the disease that daily shattered his expiring intellect. But could the cells of some private mad-houses, that once disgraced old England, speak, they would tell tales of suffering and horror, endured by their inmates, more dreadful than any we have described, or can picture here. We thank heaven, though, that the cruelties which once cursed the miserable lunatic, rendering his recovery little short of a miracle, no longer exist : a humane, an enlightened system of treatment has been adopted and carried out, both in this and other lands ; and in our own opinion, the liberal bequest we have mentioned could not have been so well bestowed, as for the truly wise and charitable purpose to which it will be appropriated.

From what we have here written of Mr. Brown, no one will doubt that he was a religious and good man. His views of Christianity were broad and comprehensive, and we cannot more clearly and strongly express the opinion he entertained of responsibility to his Maker, than by presenting the following extract from the will we have before mentioned :

"Be it remembered, that whereas I, Nicholas Brown, of the city of Providence, of the county of Providence, in the state of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, merchant, have heretofore made and published my last will and testament, bearing date on the thirtieth day of May, in the year of our Lord 1825, in and by which I made large devises and bequests, and invested extensive trusts and powers severally in my then honored and affectionate wife, Mary Brown ; in my kind and beloved daughter, Ann Brown Francis, then the wife of John B. Francis, Esquire, and in my highly esteemed friend, partner, and brother, Thomas P. Ives, Esq. : and whereas the all-wise Dispenser of events has seen fit, in his infinite wisdom, to remove by death my said wife, daughter, and brother, and has also seen fit mercifully to extend the period of my own earthly existence far beyond what I had reason to expect, thereby affording to me time and opportunity for carrying into effect many of the benevolent plans and designs which formerly I had in view : in order, therefore, to provide for what remains yet to be performed, and under a deep sense of the high account I shall soon be called to render to Him who bestows earthly good and immortal joy, I do hereby revoke and annul my said will under the date aforesaid, and proceed to make, publish, and declare, this as my last will and testament."

We have remarked that Mr. Brown was a Christian man ; but he was no sectarian : nor did he ever make any public declaration of the faith he

worshipped. No man read the scriptures more devoutly, and few attended more steadily in God's temple on the sabbath; and none were more ready than he to discover and trace the hand and the providence of his Maker in all the works of his creation. Through the varied changes of a prolonged life, he maintained a spotless reputation, an honored name: his heart was pure and kind, his sentiments noble: by nearly all who knew him he was loved and revered; and none could say he oppressed the poor, or inflicted wrong upon his fellow-men. His career is closed—he is gathered to his fathers—his body is in the grave—his spirit in a better world.

ART. VI.—FAMILIAR SCENES IN THE LIFE OF A CLERK.

So much of a man's character in after life depends on what kind of an employer he had when young, that it is worthy of being much more seriously considered by parents and young men than it is. How often do we see men, in whom we can trace the effect of this kind of education, and see the exact resemblance of their former masters in the manners, thoughts, habits, and vices, which they have copied unaware! Happily we sometimes see virtues, too, and can trace their foundation to the same sources. This thought has been suggested by a knowledge of the character of the gentleman referred to in the following sketch, whose proper name I have changed, because I have no liberty to use it; and as he still lives, he might not be altogether pleased at being made conspicuous. This gentleman lived in an eastern seaport town, and was a grocer, doing a considerable business. He had a boy apprenticed to him, whose name was John,—certainly no great marvel in these days of so many Johns. Mr. Mason, for so we will call the grocer, carried his principles of honesty as far as any man I ever knew; I had almost said, as far as any man ever ought to do. He made it an invariable rule to tell the whole truth respecting his goods, even their defects. It was the custom then, as well as now, to compound and adulterate wines; and if any person asked him if a wine was pure, he told them no; and he did not stop there, for he told them what it really was. He was also perfectly candid in regard to his neighbors' goods, and I have seen him more than once lose the sale of a chest of tea, of which he was an excellent judge, and on which he would have made a profit of six or eight dollars in those days of high prices, in consequence of telling his customer that his neighbor had better. The effect of this course, after many years, was to gain him a reputation, and inspire such a confidence, that he could sell any sort of goods at higher prices than other people could, because purchasers, who did not depend entirely on their own judgment, knew they would not be deceived. But John, at the time, did not like it much; he thought it was going rather too far, and as he soon began to take a lead in the store, being a little disposed to mischief, he would sometimes annoy Mr. Mason by the most extravagant encomium in his hearing on goods that would not bear it. And sometimes he carried his impudence so far, as to assert, in his hearing, that his recommendations were on the opinion and judgment of Mr. Mason. They had a neighbor, a drygoods shop-keeper, who was a notorious liar; and he had indulged

the habit so long, that he had become careless, and sometimes committed himself most grossly. Him, in the recklessness of his fun, John would imitate and caricature in his palaver with customers. When a particular article was called for, John would say, "This is just like it, *only a great deal more so*;" and in spite of correction several times, he frequently indulged his frolicsomeness, and sometimes imposed on a customer. From the experience I have had as a clerk in a store, I am induced to think that much of what is called cheating, is the result of a bantering among the boys, to see who will perform the greatest feat, or show the longest tongue, or use most soft soap, as the slang phrase among them is. It was the practice of Mr. Mason in his store, as well as in his family, to show the effect of bad habits, by illustrating their consequences by example, as often as he had opportunity, rather than to administer correction himself. He was vigilant in caution; and if that was not attended to, the first opportunity was embraced to make an example, and John had laid himself open to the latter course.

One morning an enraged countryman came into the store with very angry looks; he had left a team in the street, and held a goad-stick in his hand. "Mr. Mason," said the angry countryman, "I bought a paper of nutmegs here in your store, and when I got home, they were more than half walnuts; and that's the young villain that I bought 'em of," pointing to John.

"John," said Mr. Mason, "did you sell the man walnuts for nutmegs?"

"No, sir," was the ready answer.

"You lie, you little villain," said the countryman, still more enraged at his assurance.

"The fact is, he does tell a great many lies," said Mr. Mason; "and I don't know what to do with him, unless I leave you to chastise him:" and with this license to his enraged feelings, the countryman made at John with his goad-stick, which compelled him to scamper up a flight of stairs; and he threw down the scuttle after him, that, in its fall, crushed the countryman's hat over his eyes, and nothing allayed his wrath. These scuttle-doors were, in those days, common in warehouses, at the heads of stairs, instead of casements built around them, as now; and John fastened it down, and kept the countryman from following him, not, however, without having got two or three licks of the goad-stick across his legs and thighs, as he went up the stairs.

Mr. Mason, who had just come into the store, withdrew to the counting-room, but with scarcely repressed laughter, determined to let things take their course; while the rest of us, and you will see that I was one of the number, were enjoying John's predicament with great glee. When, however, Mr. Mason saw that the countryman was foiled, and was still complaining of the abuse, while John was secure in his beleaguered position, he came out again, and told the countryman that, if he had been imposed upon, it should be made up to him, trouble and all.

John, who overheard what was said, now came to the hoist-away, and rubbing his thighs, at the same time said, "If the goose had taken the trouble to weigh his nutmegs, he would have found that I put in the walnuts gratis."

"Oh, you gave them to him, did you?"

"Yes, sir, I threw in a handful for the children to crack," said John, laughing at the same time.

"You were certainly very considerate," said Mr. Mason, turning away, and unable to repress a sympathy with John's mirth.

"Well, now, if that ain't a young scamp," said the countryman, his features relaxing into a grin, as he saw through the truth.

The fact was, John had thrown in the handful of walnuts unobserved, and enjoyed beforehand all the countryman's disappointment and rage when he should see them, but without anticipating the present consequence of it. Mr. Mason improved the opportunity to say, when the countryman was gone, "There was no great harm in the trick, John, but truth is always sacred, and trifling improper, and I hope you will hereafter think so too."

The moral was good, and as far as might be expected from a mind so young and buoyant as his, John did correct his habit of trifling with his customers and his word.

Mr. Mason always encouraged in his boys a spirit of trade in their own behalf, and on purpose that they might procure for themselves a reasonable amount of pocket-money, and thus be kept from temptation to be dishonest towards him; they were allowed the privilege of selling certain light articles for their own benefit; and an extensive grocery-store, in a small town, affords a better opportunity for that than in this city, where the separate dealers in each article are so much more by themselves. There were, also, in former times, many opportunities of adventures by sea, particularly to the West Indies, from ports where lumbering and fishing are carried on. These opportunities are grown less now, from the fact, that we then had access to every island in the Atlantic: and could the young adventurers in the New England states be consulted in the matter, I am persuaded that, one and all, they would condemn the policy that has surrendered the trade of so many of them.

The manner of sailing West India vessels formerly, was to give the captain so much wages, and so much privilege of freight; and the mate in the same manner. It was the plan of young adventurers, therefore, to commit their enterprises to the care of the captain or mate on half-profits; thus they paid no freight, if none was made; the captain lost nothing but his privilege of freight, if sales were bad; and so the risk was shared between them. Some of the largest fortunes ever made in New England by commerce, have begun in this way. The Hon. William Gray, who was for many years the richest man in Boston, was known to have made his first enterprise in this manner, which, with time and industry, swelled into rich argosies, covering every sea; and it was familiarly said, for twenty years, "No wind could blow that was not fair for him."

Our young friend, John, was of an adventurous turn, and a little speculative withal; but he was a poor, apprenticed boy, and had no money. As soon, however, as Mr. Mason had discovered what his turn was, and found that he was worthy of being encouraged, he made him a present of some boxes of fish, a keg of butter, and a box of tallow candles; and with these John commenced his career of commercial life, then only fourteen years old. With these for his capital, he pursued a regular course of adventure, and with varied success; sometimes making a loss, but never sinking his capital. When he had increased his capital a little, he divided his interest into several adventures, instead of seeking it all in one; and it was not more than a year and a half before John became a prosperous merchant, on a small scale. He entered into all the calculations of a merchant, and

took as lively an interest in the markets as if he had owned half a dozen ships, laden on his own account, instead of as many little adventures, worth, perhaps, twenty dollars each. He watched the ship-news with eagerness and constancy, and frequently used to say, that his vessels had been spoken so and so. He watched the weather and the gales, too, and was as much gratified on the safe arrival of an expected vessel, as if she had been an Indiaman. But Mr. Mason admonished him to be prudent; and he, therefore, made an open policy with Capt. W., a rich and retired ship-master, to undertake for him all his sea-risks, for the premium of five per cent; which was regularly paid, and the several risks as regularly endorsed on the policy as at any insurance office.

He contrived every means to save outlay; and, being expert with the pen and at figures, he would go to the West India captains' houses, and make up their accounts for them, at night, and in return, get his adventure carried free of charge of either freight or profits. Every thing went prosperously, and John was set down as a great merchant and a rich man. But, alas! his success ruined him. The time was coming when, like Dogberry, John would be compelled to say, that he, too, had had his losses.

He had accumulated some hundreds of dollars, and then, like many of a larger business, and at a later day, in common phrase, he launched out. His credit was good for what he would buy; and this facility induced him to gratify his spirit of enterprise to use it,—and perhaps his pride was a little flattered, too, by the distinction,—and he got in debt to double the amount of his capital. Oh! fatal mistake!

John's returns of all his adventures came home, costing the highest price, in that fatal summer, twenty-four years ago, which many in this city will recollect, when West India produce declined one half in value. Of course, John lost all his capital, and it was even doubtful if he could pay his debts; and, consequently, that he would fail in business, when no more than seventeen years old.

Then, for the first time, I saw that picture which I have since seen a thousand times repeated. Who has ever seen a man when his affairs are becoming desperate, and has forgotten the picture? He first grows cross and petulant; by degrees he is more and more uneasy, and walks to and fro in his office, with his head down and his hands in his pockets; he is less polite to his customers, and less communicative with his friends; he walks hurriedly in the street, and passes people without knowing it; reads the newspaper paragraph but half through, and heaves a sigh when he sits down to pore over his cash-book or his bill-book; he eats less, and eats in a hurry; his form shrinks, and his coat hangs loose upon him; his cheeks grow lank, and his eyes stick out; he envies the comfortable, plodding, pains-taking man, who has gone on, content with moderate gains, and never exposing himself to great vicissitudes. The case is desperate with him, and the tragedy must soon come to a close for good or ill.

John had every one of these symptoms, and felt every one of the pangs which the most sensitive mind ever feels. One after another, as "his vessels" arrived, he anxiously inquired, "Captain, what have you got for me?" "Molasses—sugar," was the constant reply; and every time he heard it, his pulse beat a stroke the less, until hope sunk to despondency.

Mr. Mason observed it all; and when he had permitted John to suffer the full penalty of his imprudence, one night, after a good day's work in

the store, he called him into the counting-room, and, on an examination of his affairs, it appeared that he would be deficient about seventy dollars to pay his debts. "Well, John," said he, "this is not the way that you have seen my business done;" and John looked guilty: "but you shall not fail; here are the seventy dollars; pay your debts; and remember never again 'to put all your eggs into one basket.'"

Never face beamed with a brighter glow of pleasure than John's at this moment. I shall never forget it. He became devoted to his master's business as if it had been his own, gained his entire confidence, and, although but an apprentice boy, without money and without friends, in return for his devotion, the day that he was twenty-one years old, he was made a partner in an extensive concern, with a large capital. Mr. Mason has often asserted, that the seventy dollars was the best investment he ever made; while John, alias Mr. —, always brings up the subject of his early bankruptcy whenever tempted to undertake large operations.

ART. VII.—THE COMPUTATION OF INTEREST.

THE value of any methods of computation simpler than those in use, as exact and more expeditious, must be too apparent to require any argument or discussion; and the excuse, (if any be needed,) for the tediousness of this article will be found in the practical utility of the methods attempted to be conveyed. It may be premised that some are already in possession of the knowledge of these means, but so many are ignorant of them, that we feel justified in offering them for the consideration of the readers of this magazine, especially to clerks and book-keepers, to whom they are of daily and constant value.

Besides the advantage of the saving of time and labor, there is another, and an important one, which urges us to this communication. It is, that the knowledge of these methods will present the labor of the clerk to him in a new aspect, it will tend to relieve his tasks of their mechanical character, and infuse a species of delight in the application of these processes. The experience of many will confirm us in the remark, that of all tasks of the clerk, none are performed with more unwillingness than those which we propose to simplify and relieve; and it may be added, when these methods have been fully understood, we have often witnessed the feelings of satisfaction and delight with which they have been applied. It must be apparent that where there has been frequent repetition of a process, it is desirable, if possible, to simplify it, that labor and time may not be unnecessarily expended for the future. The advantages to be derived from an habitual systematic attempt at simplification are more numerous than can at this time be stated; they are many and various; and rules formed and adopted, which are based upon a close investigation of any principles involved in mercantile transactions, will save much needless labor and perplexity. We should not be content, therefore, while we suppose ourselves in possession of useful knowledge, to retain it unshared with others: if it has been valuable to us, it may be to them also, and its usefulness to us is unaffected by its becoming common property.

It may be thought that the mind would become burdened and hindered

in its operations by the presence of many rules. This, however, is true only when the basis or principle of those rules is not thoroughly investigated and understood. The application of rules, on the contrary, is of extreme facility, when we are conversant with principles—it is immediate, almost instinctive, and the mind is rarely conscious of the existence of the rule. We do not aim, therefore, to state rules, but to illustrate and familiarize the mind with principles, introducing rules only as perceptible deductions from these principles. To exhibit the necessity of a clear conception of the principle, and the worthlessness of a mere and seemingly arbitrary rule; suppose it be stated that to ascertain the interest on any amount for 165 days at six per cent per annum, you should divide the principal by 40, and to the dividend add its one tenth—or divide one tenth of the principal by 4, and to that dividend add its one tenth—or again, divide one per cent of the principal by $\frac{4}{10}$, and to the dividend add its one tenth: it may really be questioned whether such a rule would prove any thing but a hindrance, and determine us to adhere to the tedious methods of our arithmetics; yet it will be seen that if the rule were well known, the process of computation would be very rapid, and it would be found mathematically exact. Now if every application of an extremely simple and apparent principle is to be denominated a rule, this is precisely the readiest rule which can be given for ascertaining the interest on any given sum for that time; and, also, (substituting for the word *principal*, the word *days*,) one of the methods of ascertaining the interest on 165 dollars for any given time.

What we propose to communicate is this, a simple and easy method for the computation of interest at six per cent, (and consequently at seven per cent,) far more speedy than any method in general use, yielding results with accuracy and a much greater rapidity than any books or tables of interest in existence—and also a method for the equation of payments, as simple and exact as that generally adopted, and far more expeditious. It may be stated that by this method amounts of interest are ascertained by the combination of only two or three simple quotients or products, and most frequently by the combination of only two; and the reader must perhaps submit to some tediousness and prolixity, as we aim at making these methods distinctly understood and generally applied. We shall endeavor to make application of the principle to varieties of instances, and to elucidate each application by examples numerous enough to commend the method to notice.

The ordinary method for the computation of interest is the solution of a problem in proportion. To ascertain the interest at six per cent per annum, we multiply the principal by the days, and divide the product by 6000—or we multiply the dollars of the principal, (viz. one per cent of the principal,) by the days and divide by 60. The true proportion which is solved by the usual process is this—

As 6000 : principal :: days : *Answer*.

or As 60 : 1 per ct. of principal :: days : *Ans*.

To solve any problem in proportion, we multiply the second term by the third, and divide the product by the first.—(The product of the multiplication of the second and third terms will also be the product of the multiplication of the first and fourth terms.) Therefore, if we multiply the interest on any sum for one year by any number of days, and divide by the days of the year, we shall obtain a correct result. The reason is obvious. This

has been our process: we have multiplied the interest for one year by a given number, (of days,) and the product is the interest for that given number of years, but, as we desire the answer for days, instead of years, we must divide that product by the number of days in the year. It is needful that we examine some of the properties of proportions, as they will afford us principles from which to construct rules—and it is worth the attention of the curious in such matters to observe the various transpositions of a correctly stated proportion. Every proportion admits of a variety of statements, and many rules arise from these statements. We have occasion to notice the following:

As 1st term : 2d term :: 3d term : 4th term, say as 2 : 4 :: 8 : 16
or, As 1st : 3d :: 2d : 4th

To obtain the 4th term, we may adopt either of these methods:

$$\begin{array}{ll} 2d \times 3d \div 1st = 4th & \text{Ex. } 4 \times 8 \div 2 = 16 \\ \text{or } 3d \times 2d \div 1st = 4th & \text{Ex. } 8 \times 4 \div 2 = 16 \\ \text{or } 3d \div 1st \times 2d = 4th & \text{Ex. } 8 \div 2 \times 4 = 16 \\ \text{or } 2d \div 1st \times 3d = 4th & \text{Ex. } 4 \div 2 \times 8 = 16 \end{array}$$

The first property to be noticed is, that the second and third terms may be transposed—as 6000 : prin. :: days : int.

or, as 6000 : days :: prin. : int.

It follows, that the interest of any amount for a given number of days will be the same if the dollars and days be transposed. Thus, if we had sought the interest of one cent for 500 years at 6 per cent, it would have been instantly found by transposition; the interest being the same as the interest of 500 cents, or 5 dollars, for one year, viz. 30 cents.

Examples.

The interest of \$6 for 190 days—the interest of \$190 for 6 days.

The interest of \$10 for 246 days—the interest of \$246 for 10 days.

The interest of \$18 for 320 days—the interest of \$320 for 18 days.

Examples may easily be multiplied, and the value of transposition will soon become very apparent. It is especially applicable to the computation of interest on small amounts for long times.

Similar fractional or decimal parts of the first two terms bear the same relation to each other as the original terms.

And, (the second and third terms being transposable,) if the first term and either of the others be divided by a common divisor, the proportion will remain unaffected. Now, if that common divisor be one of the terms of the proportion, we shall be enabled to reduce the proportion to its simplest statement—suppose the proportion usually solved,

As 60 : 1 per cent of principal :: days : Ans.

If either the number of dollars, (i. e. one per cent of the principal,) or the number of days be divided by 60, the remaining term may be multiplied by the dividend.

Required the interest of—

120 dollars for 81 days; multiply 81 by 2= 1.62 Ans.

840 dollars for 98 days; multiply 98 by 14=13.72 “

1500 dollars for 88 days; multiply 88 by 25=22.00 “

1860 dollars for 104 days; multiply 104 by 31=32.24 “

546 dollars for 240 days; multiply 546 by 4=21.84 “

As one sum in every 60 is divisible by 60, this method will apply in one

case in every thirty : and we may add, if either the dollars or the days be divisible by six, the remaining term may be multiplied by the dividend, and the answer obtained by striking off the right hand figure from the product. This is applicable especially to small sums or small times.

Example—Required the interest of—

12 dollars for 170 days ; multiply 170 by 2 (and strike off the right hand figure)=.34 cents.

1330 dollars for 18 days ; multiply 1330 by 3 (and strike off the right hand figure)=3.99.

24 dollars for 213 days ; multiply 213 by 4 (and strike off the right hand figure)=.85 $\frac{2}{10}$.

Examples may be multiplied till the rule is familiar.

If the second term be *multiplied* by any number, and the third term be divided by the same number, the proportion will be unaffected ; and, also, if the third term be *multiplied*, and the second term *divided*, the result will be the same.* This property is valuable when either the dollars or days be divisible by a decimal, the remaining term being multiplied by the same decimal.

Required the interest of—

1300 dollars for 173 days=17.300 dollars for 13 days.

500 dollars for 94 days= 9.400 dollars for 5 days.

2000 dollars for 28 days=28.000 dollars for 2 days.

1452 dollars for 310 days=14.520 dollars for 31 days.

The advantage of these changes will be made very apparent as we proceed.

It may be observed, that it is sometimes easier to compute the interest on two items than upon one. In this case, we may simplify our problem and expedite the result, by making two ; thus—required the interest on 1206 dollars for 233 days, (i. e. 1200 dollars for 233 days, and 6 dollars for 233 days, or 2330 dollars for 120 days, and 233 dollars for 6 days)—we estimate first the interest of 2330 dollars for 120 days, (as 120 is divisible by 60, we multiply 2330 by 2,) viz. 46.60 ; and add the interest of 233 dollars for 6 days, (as the days are divisible by 6, from 233 we strike off the right hand figure,) viz. 23 $\frac{3}{10}$ cts. ; and we have a product of 46.83 $\frac{3}{10}$.

Other applications, which will much facilitate our computations, will be suggested by a consideration of these properties of proportions.

We have said that the ordinary method of the computation of interest is the solution of a problem in proportion, and stated that this is the proportion : as 6000 : principal :: days : interest.

Or, as 60 : 1 per cent of principal :: days : interest.

The following statement will make this sufficiently evident :

As 6 per cent : 360 days :: 100 per cent : 6000 days.

Therefore the interest on any sum for 6000 days will be 100 per cent.

It follows, that 600 days will yield 10 per cent.

“ 60 days will yield 1 per cent.

“ 6 days will yield $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.

For example, the interest on—

14.650 dollars for 600 days will be \$1465.

1.624 dollars for 600 days will be \$162.40.

1.935 dollars for 60 days will be \$19.35.

* In fact, any two sums, yielding the same product as the multiplication of the second and third terms, may occupy the places of those terms.

14.789 dollars for 60 days will be \$147.89.

1420 dollars for 6 days will be \$142.

136.595 dollars for 6 days will be \$136.59 $\frac{1}{2}$.

If we add a cipher to the dollars of the principal, we shall have the interest for 600 days, expressed in dollars and cents. The dollars of the principal will express the interest, in dollars and cents, for 60 days; and if from the dollars of the principal we strike off the right hand figure, the remaining figures at the left will express the interest, in dollars and cents, for 6 days.

Now, aliquot parts of 600, 60, and 6 combined, and aliquot parts of those aliquot parts, will readily furnish us with any desired number of days. The interest for 1 day will be $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent, (6 days yielding $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.)

Example. \$360 \$540 \$840 \$1260 \$960 \$299

Ans. 6 cts 9 cts 14 cts 21 cts 16 cts 5 cts

The interest for 2 days will be $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$870 \$450 \$990 \$1530 \$90 \$1620

Ans. 29 cts 15 cts 33 cts 51 cts 3 cts 54 cts

The interest for 3 days will be $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$1460 \$820 \$580 \$80 \$3680 \$10581

Ans. .73 .41 .29 .04 1.84 5.29

The interest for 4 days will be $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{3}$.

Example. \$300 \$840 \$1860 \$90

Ans. 30—10=20 cts 84—28=56 cts 1.86—62=1.24 9—3=6 cts

The interest for 5 days will be $\frac{5}{6}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{6}$.

Example. \$540 \$180 \$2.460 \$840

Ans. 54—9=45 cts 18—3=15 cts 246—41=2.05 84—14=70 cts

In like manner, we may take aliquot parts of 60 days; thus—

The interest for 10 days is $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$960 for 10 days=1.60 *Ans.*

The interest for 12 days is $\frac{1}{5}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$1.550 for 12 days=3.10 *Ans.*

The interest for 15 days is $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$5.68 for 15 days=1.42 *Ans.*

The interest for 20 days is $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$1161 for 20 days=3.87 *Ans.*

The interest for 30 days is $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$24.698 for 30 days=123.49 *Ans.*

The interest for 40 days is $\frac{2}{3}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{3}$.

Example. \$1545 for 40 days=15.45—5.15=10.30 *Ans.*

The interest for 50 days is $\frac{5}{6}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{6}$.

Example. \$1866 for 50 days=18.66—3.11=15.55 *Ans.*

In the same manner we may take aliquot parts of 600 days; thus—

The interest for 75 days is $\frac{1}{8}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$1256 for 75 days, divide 125.60 by 8=15.70 *Ans.*

The interest for 3 months and 10 days, or 100 days, is $\frac{1}{6}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$159 for 100 days, divide 15.90 by 6=2.65 *Ans.*

The interest for 5 months, or 150 days, is $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$3264 for 150 days=81.60 *Ans.*

The interest for 6 months and 20 days, or 200 days, is $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$873 for 200 days=29.10 *Ans.*

The interest for 10 months, or 300 days, is $\frac{1}{2}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$9654 for 300 days=482.70 *Ans.*

And so on. Examples should be multiplied, and it will be seen that answers will be obtained instantly.

We would suggest, that much time may be saved, and liability to error prevented, by using the sums already written in the book or account, instead of transcribing them, in order to make our estimates; and further, when the answer is obtained, by placing it at once in its appropriate column: suppose it were required to ascertain the interest on \$1640 for 63 days; using the sum as already stated in the book or account, instead of transcribing it, and setting down the answer at once in its appropriate column—it would be needful to make but *two* figures, viz. 82, to arrive at our result.

We shall now proceed to some instances of the combination of the aliquot parts of 6, 60, and 600 days. It will occasionally need some reflection to decide upon the readiest combinations; but decisions having been once made will not be soon forgotten. We can only enumerate some of them, sufficient to illustrate their utility; and commend the subject to the study and attention of those who wish to attain proficiency.

We obtain the interest for—

- 7 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{6}$; i. e. 6 days and 1 day.
- 8 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{3}$; i. e. 6 days and 2 days.
- 9 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{2}$; i. e. 6 days and 3 days.
- 10 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 6; i. e. $\frac{1}{6}$ of 60 days.
- 11 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{10}$; i. e. 10 days and 1 day.
- 12 days, by multiplying $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. by 2; i. e. twice 6 days.
- 13 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 10 days and 3 days.
- 14 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 20 days, less 6 days.
- 15 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 4; i. e. $\frac{1}{4}$ of 60 days.
- 16 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 10 days and 6 days.
- 17 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 20 days less 3 days.
- 18 days, by multiplying $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. by 3; i. e. three times 6 days.
- 19 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{6}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct., or deducting from $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{2}$ of its $\frac{1}{10}$; i. e. 20 days less 1 day.
- 20 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 3; i. e. $\frac{1}{3}$ of 60 days.
- 21 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{2}$ of its $\frac{1}{10}$; i. e. 20 days and 1 day.
- 22 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{10}$; i. e. 20 days and 2 days.
- 23 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 20 days and 3 days.
- 24 days, by multiplying $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. by 4; i. e. four times 6 days.
- 25 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{4}$; i. e. 20 days and 5 days.

26 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. ; i. e. 20 days and 6 days.

27 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{10}$; i. e. 30 days less 3 days.

28 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 p. ct. ; i. e. 30 days less 2 days.

29 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{3}$ of its $\frac{1}{10}$; i. e. 30 days less 1 day.

30 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 2.

There are other methods for ascertaining the interest for any number of days, less than thirty, which are sometimes preferable to these ; the preference arises from the peculiar applicability of the methods to the amounts to be estimated. For instance, to ascertain the interest for 17 days ; we may—

From the interest for 20 days, deduct the interest for 3 days ;

Or, to the interest for 15 days, add the interest for 2 days ;

Or, from the interest for 18 days, deduct the interest for one day ;

Or, to the interest for 12 days, add the interest for 5 days.

It may be thought that the portions of time and labor which are saved by the selection of a method peculiarly applicable to the problem, and by the other processes we have suggested, will be inconsiderable : however true this is, when they are separately considered, they will be found to make a large aggregate ; nor can we estimate the probable value of the time which has been thus redeemed.

We shall now proceed to instance the advantage of some of the combinations of the aliquot parts, in obtaining interest for a greater number of days than 30. We have already shown how rapidly results can be obtained for tens of days, from 10 days to 60 days.

For 70 days, add to 1 per cent. its $\frac{1}{6}$.

80 days, add to 1 per cent. its $\frac{1}{3}$.

90 days, add to 1 per cent. its $\frac{1}{2}$.

To enumerate all the combinations, would swell this article to a tedious length, and deprive the reader of the pleasure and advantage of making his own combinations. The following will suffice :

For 57 ds. ; 1 per ct. less $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 60 ds. less 3 ds.

54 ds. ; 1 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 60 ds. less 6 ds.

48 ds. ; 1 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{3}$, i. e., 60 ds. less 12 ds.

88 ds. ; $\frac{1}{6}$ of 10 pr. ct. less twice $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 pr. ct., i. e., 100 ds. less 12 ds.

94 ds. ; $\frac{1}{6}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 100 ds. less 6 ds.

108 ds. ; 2 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 120 ds. less 12 ds.

114 ds. ; 2 per ct. less $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 120 ds. less 6 ds.

132 ds. ; 2 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 120 ds. and 12 ds.

135 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 150 ds. less 15 ds.

144 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 150 ds. less 6 ds.

162 ds. ; 3 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 180 ds. less 18 ds.

165 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 150 ds. and 15 ds.

168 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. and three times $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 150 ds. and 18 ds.

175 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{6}$, i. e., 150 ds. and 25 ds.

182 ds. ; $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per ct. less three times $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 200 ds. less 18 ds. ; or 3 per ct. and $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 180 ds. and 2 ds.

185 ds. ; $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 200 ds. less 15 ds.

190 ds. ; $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{2}$ of its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 200 ds. less 10 ds.

192 ds. ; 3 per ct. and twice $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 180 ds. and 12 ds.

For 194 ds. ; $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 200 ds. less 6 ds.
 195 ds. ; $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{4}$ of its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 200 ds. less 5 ds.
 198 ds. ; 3 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{10}$, i. e., 180 ds. and 18 ds. ; or, $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10
 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{100}$, i. e., 200 ds. less 2 ds.

These combinations may be multiplied, and examples solved, till the mind is familiarized with them ; and we repeat, that though it may occasionally require some reflection to decide upon the readiest combinations, yet decisions having been once formed will not be soon forgotten. And it will be found that, in most cases, results are produced by the combination of only two simple *products*, or *quotients*, obtained by a multiplication or division, by numbers not exceeding 10, and frequently without obliging us to make any figures, but those of the answer. It should be distinctly remembered that the principal, as already stated in the book or account, expresses the interest for 6 days, for 60 days, and 600 days, and that the labor and time of transcribing it may always be saved ; and that results, when obtained, may be placed at once in the column appropriated to them. These combinations, in connection with rules deduced from a knowledge of the few properties of proportions stated, will enable us to compute interest at six per cent, with remarkable expedition and accuracy. For our probability of a correct result is in exactly reverse ratio to the necessary length of our calculation ; the shorter the process, the less the liability to error. The rapidity of calculation by these methods is almost incredible ; we have known from ten to seventeen problems to be solved in one minute.

The legal interest of this state is seven per cent, but these methods apply only to six per cent, and it is customary to add to each item its one sixth ; but if we were computing the interest on an account current, at seven per cent, the addition to each item of its one sixth would not be necessary ; the interest may be estimated at six per cent, and to the balance of this interest its one sixth may be added. Liability to error is lessened by this process, and frequently as much time will be saved as was necessary to make the original estimates. The French manner of computing interest illustrates the advantage of this method ; the number of francs is multiplied by the days, and the products placed in columns allotted to that purpose, one on each side of the account : the balance of the totals of these products is divided, and thus many divisions are prevented. This method may be adopted in estimating interest at any rate per annum ; in estimating bank discounts ; equitable interest at six per cent ; and in bringing the assets and liabilities of a mercantile establishment to a cash value at the close of the year.

It is usage with many to estimate the interest by calendar months and days ; in this case we can multiply one per cent of the principal by half the number of months, and compute the days by the methods here given.

If we estimate by days, a time table may be found useful, constructed to show the number of days from any day in one month to the same day in any other month, the difference between the days to be added or deducted, as the case may require. But if a table of this kind be not used, much time may be saved by adding to, or deducting from, the number of days for the previous time, the difference between that time and the next following.

In the next number of this Magazine, we shall show the application of these methods to the Equation of Payments, and explain the principle from which rules may be constructed for the speedy equalization of terms of credit.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.

FOREIGN ATTACHMENT—INSURANCE.

Superior Court, Connecticut, Sept., 1841, at Hartford. Jones v. Ætna Insurance Company.

This was an action of *scire facias*, brought to recover the amount of a judgment obtained by the present plaintiff, residing in Montreal, in Lower Canada, against Francis Baby, formerly a resident of Lower Canada, but now of Albany, in the state of New York, at the November term of the county court, 1838, for this county, for the sum of one thousand one hundred and seventy-four dollars and ninety-five cents damages, and thirteen dollars and sixty-eight cents costs of suit. The plaintiff sought to recover the amount of the aforesaid judgment of the Ætna Insurance Company by process of foreign attachment, on the ground that, at the time of the commencement of the former suit, said company was indebted to said Baby. It appeared in evidence, that said company had become indebted upon a policy of insurance, effected upon property belonging to the wife of said Baby; and that previously to the marriage of said Baby, the property belonging to his wife was settled upon her in such a manner as to be beyond the reach or disposition of her husband. It appeared also, that Mr. Baby had acted as the agent of his wife in the management of her property. The great question in this case was, whether the indebtedness of said company to Mrs. Baby upon a policy of insurance effected upon property, which, by the laws of Canada, had been secured to the wife, and placed beyond the reach or control of the husband, could, by process of foreign attachment in this state, be made liable to pay the debt of Mr. Baby to the present plaintiff.

The court instructed the jury, that the laws of Canada, in relation to the property of the wife residing there, having been proved, were binding here, in the present case, and that, consequently, upon the evidence admitted, the indebtedness of said insurance company to Mrs. Baby could not be made liable to pay the debt of her husband to the present plaintiff. The jury thereupon, without leaving their seats, returned a verdict for the defendants.

BILLS AND NOTES.*

1. Notice of protest sent by mail directed to the town where the party resides is sufficient, although there be several post-offices in the same town, unless it appear that the holder knew that it should be directed in a different manner; or now by statute, unless the party, when affixing his signature to a bill or note, specifies thereon the post-office to which notice must be addressed.—*Downer v. Remer*, 21 Wendell, 10.

2. Where there are three consecutive endorsers to a promissory note, the release by the plaintiff of the first endorser, is a bar to an action against the second and third endorsers.—*Newcomb v. Raynor*, 21 Wendell, 108.

3. Where a bank receives and discounts negotiable paper, places the proceeds to the credit of the holder, and charges over against him and cancels other notes upon which are responsible parties, but which are over-due and lie under protest, such cancellation is equivalent to paying value at the time, and precludes all defence existing as between the original parties.—*Bank of Salina v. Babcock*, 21 Wendell, 499.

4. A guaranty of a debt in the form of an endorsement of a promissory note is obligatory upon the guarantor; and, in case of non-payment by the debtor, the guarantor is liable for the whole amount of the debt, and not merely for the sum received by him, with the interest thereof.—*Oakley v. Boorman*, 21 Wendell, 588.

* Selections from 21 and 22 Wendell's (New York) Reports.

5. An action does not lie against a notary for the omission of notice of protest to an endorser, where the holder may resort to other grounds for fixing the endorser independent of the notice, and wilfully or negligently omits to avail himself of such facts.—*Franklin v. Smith*, 21 Wendell, 724.

6. A bank receiving for collection a bill of exchange drawn here, upon a person residing in another state, is liable for any neglect of duty occurring in its collection, whether arising from the default of its officers here, its correspondents abroad, or of agents employed by such correspondents.—*S. & M. Allen v. The Merchants' Bank*, 22 Wendell, 215.

7. This liability may be varied, however, either by express contract or by implication, arising from general usage in respect to such paper; it is competent, therefore, for the bank to show an express contract, varying the terms of its liability, or, in the absence of a judicial determination upon the point, to show that by the usage and custom of the place, a bank thus receiving foreign paper is liable only for its safe transmission to some competent agent, and is not responsible for the acts or omissions of such agent, or of any subordinates employed by him.—*Ib.*

8. The inquiry, however, in such case, is not as to the opinion of merchants, however general, as to the law of the case, but as to the usage and practice in respect to such transactions, or the general understanding of merchants as to the nature of the contract evidenced by their acts, so as to enable the court to give the contract a correct interpretation.—*Ib.*

9. Where a debt was lost by the omission of a notary to give notice of the non-acceptance of a bill presented before maturity, it was held not to excuse a bank which had received the same for collection, that, by the law merchant of the place where the bill was presented, notice of non-acceptance was deemed unnecessary; but that, on the contrary, as the *lex loci contractus* governed in a case like it, it was the duty of the bank to have given the necessary instructions to its correspondents.—*Ib.*

10. The omission to give notice of non-acceptance happening through the default of a commissioned public officer, a notary does not vary the rights of the parties: *pro hac vice*, he acted merely as the agent of his employers, and not in his official capacity.—*Ib.*

ACCORD AND SATISFACTION.

1. The acceptance of the note of a third person from one of the members of a firm, endorsed by him, together with the payment of the balance of the account against the firm in cash, is an accord and satisfaction of the demand against the firm; there being no agreement that such note was received merely as collateral security.—*Frisbie v. Larned*, 21 Wendell, 450.

2. So a judgment confessed by one of the partners for the debt of the firm, is a satisfaction.—*Ib.*

ASSUMPSIT.

1. Where goods are sold to be paid for by a note or bill, payable at a future day, which is not delivered according to the terms of sale, the vendor may sue immediately for a breach of the special agreement, and recover, as damages, the whole value of the goods, allowing a rebate of interest during the stipulated credit; he cannot, however, maintain assumpsit on the common counts until the credit has expired.—*Hanna v. Mills*, 21 Wendell, 90.

2. Where goods are to be paid for in a note or bill, the vendor cannot recover on the common count for goods sold and delivered, until the credit has expired; but he may proceed immediately for a breach of the special agreement.—*Yale v. Coddington*, 21 Wendell, 175.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Works of Francis Bacon, Lord Chancellor of England. A new Edition, with the Life of the Author.* By BASIL MONTAGUE, ESQ. In three volumes, royal octavo. pp. 455, 589, 584. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

The complete works of Lord Bacon, who, by the consent of most men, is admitted to have been one of the master minds of the world, as here presented to us, are of inestimable value. We confess that we have been long surprised, that our publishers have not before issued more of the works of the great standard authors of England, whose efforts belong alike to all countries and to all ages, and we are gratified to perceive that they are making up for that neglect in the great number of valuable works of this character, that have only recently begun to be published. The efforts of so distinguished a philosopher as Bacon, who, by his intellectual powers, brought order and symmetry and beauty from out of the chaos which disfigured his age, should be found in the library of every scholar, and we had almost said, of every man. His profound, all-grasping, and analytical powers, his rich stores of learning, the treasures of his imagination which scattered flowers along the broad and deep track of his argument, and his strong common sense, must cause his works to be read with equal advantage by the man of learning and the man of the world. We may affirm, indeed, that every line of his numerous essays and treatises is weighty with thought, and rich as solid gold. The form in which the volumes are issued is in every way worthy of the subject, and the enterprise of the publishers in their execution will be rewarded by the growing taste which seems to be spreading through the country for really valuable and substantial reading.

- 2.—*The Works of Lord Bolingbroke, with a Life, prepared expressly for this Edition. Containing additional information relative to his personal and public character; selected from the best authorities.* In four volumes. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

Here is another very valuable contribution to the adopted literature of the United States. The works of Lord Bolingbroke, for philosophical beauty and elegance of style, have long ranked among the classics of our language. Embracing a great variety of topics, literary and political, they evince a mind enriched with scholarly acquisitions, and in most cases clear in the perception of truth. Although some of the subjects which they discuss have passed away, yet there are many dissertations which lie at the foundation of general principles, and that will forever involve the dearest interests of man. As such, they deserve to be studied profoundly. Among the prominent characteristics of this author, is the calm and elevated tone of his productions. His "Reflections upon Exile," fall upon our ear like the gentle melody of the Æolian harp, while his "remarks on the history of England," evince a compass of knowledge and an extent of reflection which will always entitle them to admiration. As one of the rapidly increasing readers of the country, we rejoice that the volumes are issued, and we thank the publishers for presenting them to the public in this elegant form. They are prefaced by an exquisite engraving of Lord Bolingbroke, whose beautiful countenance denoted his character.

- 3.—*The Vicar of Wakefield, a Tale.* By OLIVER GOLDSMITH. 8vo. pp. 284. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

We heartily thank the publishers for presenting us with so beautiful an edition of our favorite author. The numerous engraved illustrations were executed in England, and are, of course, very beautiful. The remark of Hazlitt, "that every thing in him (Goldsmith) is spontaneous, unstudied, unaffected, yet elegant, harmonious, graceful, and nearly faultless," is worthy of all acceptance.

- 4.—*American Antiquities, and Researches into the Origin and History of the Red Race.* By ALEXANDER W. BRADFORD. 8vo. pp. 435. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1841.

The antiquities of America have long been the subject of profound interest, which has been much increased since the recent explorations of Messrs. Stephens and Catherwood. A mystery as yet hangs over the early condition of the continent, which the investigations of the curious have not as yet cleared up. In the monuments which are scattered over its surface, from the rude barrows and fortifications upon the southern shores of Lake Erie, increasing as they do in magnitude and beauty as we advance along the Gulf of Mexico, we have the most substantial evidences of the character of the people by whom they were constructed. The present volume is designed to exhibit the nature of these remains, and to trace the analogy between them and monuments in other parts of the world. It is elaborate, well digested, and the clear expositions of the author are well fortified by marginal references. In that part of the work which treats of the red race, the conclusion of the author is that they are a primitive branch of the human family, and assimilated to the Etrurians, Egyptians, Mongols, Chinese, and Hindoos, and have derived their origin from Asia, advancing through the Indian Archipelago.

- 5.—*Autobiography, Reminiscences, and Letters of John Trumbull, from 1756 to 1841.* 8vo. pp. 439. New York and London: Wiley and Putnam. 1841.

The life of Colonel Trumbull, in its various vicissitudes, abounds with much of romantic incident. A distinguished officer in the war of the revolution, an eminent historical painter, and a polished gentleman, his course, now advanced to a green old age, has been distinguished with all those alternations of happiness and despondency that seemed to spring as much from his sensitive nature as from the variety of his fortunes. A son of one of the most respectable governors of Connecticut, of the same name, and receiving his education in Harvard, he is soon found in London, where he is arrested as a spy, and is associated with circumstances of the deepest interest, and with many of the most distinguished men of Europe. Returning, he practises his favorite art, and completes the beautiful efforts which now adorn the walls of the Capitol; and we find him, in his advanced years, giving the result of his experience to the world. The volume consists mainly of narrative, conveyed in an elegant and racy style, characteristic of the man. Its criticisms on works of art evince an extreme delicacy of taste, and the book itself is adorned with many finished crayon productions of his pencil. We doubt not that it will receive the ample commendation which its intrinsic literary merits, as well as the beautiful form of its publication, richly deserve.

- 6.—*The Four Gospels, with a Commentary.* By A. A. LIVERMORE. Vol. 1: Matthew. 12mo. pp. 346. Boston: J. Munroe. 1841.

In a field of criticism, where sectarianism has spoiled nearly every tree and flower, this new product of a generous soil deserves our notice as the nearest approach to an unsectarian work. We feel certain it will meet the wants of all who call themselves liberal Christians, as a family expositor, a reference-book in the study of the Gospel, a companion in the Sunday school, and an aid to daily devotion. It is learned, yet not dry; rational, yet not cold; fervent, yet not fanatical; tasteful, yet not one line for mere taste. Its charm is, that it wholly escapes from the tedious technicality, the wearisome disquisitions about points of no concern, the continual endeavor to explain what is perfectly plain already, which have made commentaries in general a dismal swamp to the people at large. Mr. L. is concise, practical, reasonable, full of generous and holy feeling. His first volume having met in a few months with so extensive a sale as to authorize a stereotype edition, we commend its simplicity, earnestness, purity of morals, and practical piety, to a popularity like that which has already rewarded the like labors of Mr. Barnes.

- 7.—*Scandinavia, Ancient and Modern; being a History of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway: comprehending a Description of these Countries; an Account of the Mythology, Government, Laws, Manners, and Institutions of the Early Inhabitants; and of the Present State of Society, Literature, Arts, and Commerce; with Illustrations of their Natural History.* By ANDREW CRICHTON, LL.D., and HENRY WHEATON, LL.D. 2 vols. 18mo. pp. 373, 403. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The history of these three kingdoms of Northern Europe is intimately connected with that of our father-land. During those barbarous ages, when war was considered the only pursuit worthy of noble minds, the coasts of England were long ravaged, and the country finally conquered by the fierce and lawless invaders from the north. This circumstance, and others connected with the history of these nations, as their supposed early discovery of America, &c., cannot fail of commending these excellent volumes to the American reader. Our countryman, Dr. Wheaton, occupied a high official station for several years at the court of Denmark; and during his residence there, engaged with much zeal in historical investigations relating to the antiquities, character, laws, &c., of the early inhabitants. His "History of the Northmen" is admitted to be one of the best on that subject. His learned coadjutor in this work is no less distinguished, as a profound scholar and able writer. The volumes are accompanied by a valuable map, and illustrated with a variety of engravings, and constitute the 136th and 137th numbers of the Family Library.

- 8.—*Incidents of a Whaling Voyage. To which are added, Observations on Scenery, Manners and Customs, and Missionary Stations of the Sandwich Islands: accompanied by numerous lithographic prints.* By FRANCIS ALLYN OLMSTED. 12mo. pp. 360. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

It is rather unfortunate for the reputation of this work that it should have been preceded but a short time by young Dana's "Two Years before the Mast," a book of similar character, but executed in a style to which "Incidents of a Whaling Voyage" has no pretension. The similarity in the subjects of the two works, and in the character and position of the writers—both being youths fresh from college, and the sons of distinguished literary men—induces at once a comparison, which is unfavorable to the "Incidents." This, however, may be partly accounted for by the superior advantages enjoyed by the author of "Two Years before the Mast." Young Dana, for two years, led the life of a sailor; messed in the fore-castle, and was an actor in the scenes he describes. On the contrary, young Olmsted was nothing but a passenger; and could know only from description the pleasures of standing watch in a stormy night, or reefing topsails in a gale of wind, or any other of the practical details of a seaman's life. The two works afford an excellent illustration of the difference between experience and mere observation. The "Incidents" are, however, very far from being devoid of merit. Although faulty in arrangement, rather crude in style, and somewhat meager in detail, they are both amusing and instructive, and will be read with pleasure by a very numerous class. The title alone will recommend it to the great numbers of our citizens who are directly or indirectly interested in the exertions of our hardy and adventurous whalers.

- 9.—*The Mignonette; or, The Graces of the Mind.* 24mo. pp. 192. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

Like every thing from the Appletons, this little volume is beautifully printed on fine paper, with handsome type, and neatly bound. But that is not all; the contents are in harmony with its external beauty. In preparing it, the editor's aim appears to have been to render it subservient to the promotion of the social and devout affections; and, by admitting into it pieces distinguished not only by poetic excellence, but by incitement to virtue, render it an agreeable vehicle for conveying to the reader the purest morals and the holiest truths. It is adorned with several exquisite engravings, and enriched with intellectual gems which will be found to express "the graces of the mind."

10.—*Fragments from German Prose Writers.* Translated by SARAH AUSTIN, with biographical sketches of the authors. New York: Appleton & Co. 1841.

This book, published in Broadway but printed at the Cambridge University press, is an exquisite specimen of finished mechanical execution, and worthy of the noble thoughts it bears from the old world to the new. It is the most helter-skelter collection of fine things that can be imagined. Goëthe, Kant, Schlegel, Richter, Humboldt, and Heine, have had their finest jewels, as it were, shaken up in a hat, and drawn out as the lot fell. The only thing to regret is, that such utter disorder prevails throughout this exhibition. We have to pass without a pause from grave to gay, from lively to severe, from the wildest dreams of fancy to the soberest counsels of age. Those who think Germany the home of wild imagination, may well read the "Letter of an Old Married Woman to a Sensitive Young Lady," and admire the sententious wisdom of Franklin. Mrs. Austin has placed the English world under a fresh obligation to that graceful and faithful pen, which, more than any other, has made German literature a familiar and delightful field of meditation. Her translations are always adapted to the different styles of her different authors; free, vigorous, and sometimes eloquent.

11.—*Theodore, or the Sceptic's Conversion, translated from the German of De Wette.* By JAMES F. CLARKE. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 311, 422. Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1841.

This is a translation; but with none of the cramped, inverted, pedantic style which generally stamps such job-work. It has the raciness and grace of an original work, so fully has the translator caught the spirit and sympathized with the tone of one of the greatest men now upon the stage. The history of a young theologian is pursued with deepening interest through all the mazes of German philosophy, theology, taste, and love; till the reflecting reader finds himself, with comparatively little toil, familiar with the great subjects which agitate the most philosophical people upon earth. We mean, that with wonderful impartiality this portrait of an inquisitive mind takes in the whole field of religious thought in Germany; and presents to us a comprehensive and moderate view of the philosophical doctrines which, after a thorough handling in the country of their birth, are beginning to be talked of vaguely on this side of the Atlantic. Whoever desires fresh views of all things in heaven above and the earth beneath, set forth in eloquent conversation, and woven together by a pleasant strain of narrative, will do well to study the history of Theodore, the converted sceptic.

12.—*Historical Collections of the State of New York; containing a Collection of the most Interesting Facts, Traditions, Biographical Sketches, Anecdotes, &c., relating to its History and Antiquities; with Geographical Descriptions of every Township in the State. Illustrated by 230 Engravings.* By JOHN BARBER, author of "Connecticut and Massachusetts Historical Collections;" and HENRY HOWE, author of the "Memoirs of Eminent American Mechanics." 8vo. pp. 608. New York: S. Tuttle. 1841.

The copious title-page furnishes a very good outline of the contents of this substantially executed volume. It is evidently the result of the most untiring industry and research; indeed, we are informed in the preface, that the compilers unitedly spent more than two years of close and laborious application. They visited every part of our wide-spread territory; and, besides travelling thousands of miles in the public conveyances, journeyed many hundreds on foot. A large portion of the numerous engravings were copied from drawings taken on the spot by one of the compilers. It is admirably adapted to popular reading; and altogether, forms a most valuable and interesting collection of information, well calculated to impart a more particular knowledge of the "Empire State" than is elsewhere to be found. It is a monument of research and industry, that deserves the patronage of her citizens generally.

- 13.—*The Amenities of Literature.* By J. D'ISRAELI, Esq. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 405, 461. New York : J. & H. Langley.

This delightful republication of the British press has, we observe, been received with an enthusiastic welcome by our contemporaries of the press generally ; and, although the well-earned reputation of the author would have almost insured this, the work itself, like all his previous productions, is so intrinsically valuable, that it must tend to increase both the importance of the series and the lasting fame of the writer. Our restricted limits prevent even an attempt at analytical criticism ; and, indeed, were it otherwise, the task would assuredly be rather that of the eulogist than the censor. All that we expressed in our recent notice of the previous work by this author, "*The Miscellanies of Literature*," is strictly applicable to that now before us. To the student and scholar, as well as every person of literary taste, these writings of D'Israeli must prove of indispensable value ; and we cannot but express our regret at the intimation, that the volumes before us are the last we are to expect from the same gifted and delightful pen. We refer, with pleasure, to the elegant style in which the Messrs. Langley have had the work produced.

- 14.—*Democracy.* By GEORGE SYDNEY CAMP. Vol. 138 of Harpers' Family Library. 1841.

There can be no doubt that we need to be better informed as to the principles from which our free institutions are derived, and on which they rest. We have some vague notions that our democratic government is better than any other ; but how few are there who have gone back to the primary principles that make it the only right government, or have any clear and correct notions of its theory ! But all this is necessary, in order that we may be able to defend our republican institutions on their true and proper grounds, and know how to value them as we ought. The treatise which has suggested these remarks, is written for this object—to furnish us with this information. The reasoning is masterly throughout, and it is a production that will be read with unmingled satisfaction by every intelligent citizen of this free country.

- 15.—*The Seaman's Friend.* By R. H. DANA, Jr., author of "*Two Years before the Mast*." 12mo. pp. 223. Boston : Charles C. Little and James Brown. New York : Dayton & Saxton. 1841.

This useful treatise, of a very popular writer, is dedicated "to all sea-faring persons, and especially to those commencing the sea life ; to owners and insurers of vessels ; to judges and practitioners in maritime law ; and to all persons interested in acquainting themselves with the laws, customs, and duties of seamen." Mr. Dana's education and experience, legal and nautical, eminently fitted him for the preparation of such a work ; and he has, in our judgment, accomplished the undertaking in a manner well calculated to render it extremely useful to the large class of persons named in the dedication. The volume embraces a practical treatise on seamanship ; the customs and usages of the merchant service ; a dictionary of sea terms ; and laws relating to the practical duties of master and mariners.

- 16.—*Evenings with the Chronicles, or Uncle Rupert's Tales of Chivalry.* By R. M. EVANS. pp. 184. New York : Appleton & Co. 1841.

We have seldom seen any thing from the English press prettier than this. It is an encouraging evidence of the progress of both printing and engraving among us ; and a far better token of regard to another's taste than any of the common offerings of friendship with which this season abounds. We only regret that the subjects of the narrative were not better selected. We more than doubt the good taste of dealing so much in war and bloodshed : we believe that the same times would furnish abundant tales breathing the noblest moral tone, like some of Taylor's "*Records of a Good Man's Life*." Still, the book is a gem.

- 17.—*Lives of Eminent British Lawyers.* By HENRY ROSCOE, Esq., Barrister at Law. In two volumes. 12mo. pp. 278, 240. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

In these two volumes we have a series of clear and concise, yet brief, biographical accounts of some of the most distinguished jurists of the bar of Great Britain. One of the best traits of the book, is the condensation of the style. While the material circumstances that marked the progress of the eminent men, whose lives are here portrayed, are preserved, the author has judiciously excluded all those topics and illustrations which might have grown out of the respective subjects, but which did not fall within his plan. His aim appears to have been to preserve, in a compressed and accurate form, the lineaments of those great men, who, in the legal profession, filled a very large space in former ages, and he has succeeded in his design. We are here presented with authentic and well-colored portraits of Sir Edward Coke, with all his harshness and vigor, of Sir Matthew Hale, with his mild consistency and learning, the savage cruelty of a Jeffreys, the classical elegance of Lord Mansfield, the well stored and polished acquisitions of Sir William Blackstone, the tiger-like power of Lord Thurlow, the elegant attainments of Sir William Jones, and the eloquence of Lord Erskine, besides the intellectual and moral features of many other lawyers scarcely less distinguished. From the plan of the work, and the mode in which it is executed, we cordially commend it as one of solid and permanent value.

- 18.—*Rambles and Reveries.* By HENRY T. TUCKERMAN, author of "The Italian Sketch Book," and "Isabel or Sicily." 1 vol. 12mo. pp. 436. New York: James P. Giffing. 1841.

The general character of this work is indicated by the motto on the title-page:

Duke. I would divide my days

"Twixt books and journeys.

Leo. 'Twere well. To wander and to muse at will,

Redeems our life from more than half its ill.

The author embodies in these pages the results of his acquaintance with "books and journeys." More than a third of the volume is devoted to sketches and tales, the scenes of which are chiefly laid in Italy or Sicily. Among them, notwithstanding our familiarity with southern Europe, are several novel delineations. "The Cholera in Sicily," "San Marino," "Turin," and "Modena," are papers which contain many striking anecdotes and interesting descriptions. Among the tales, those entitled "Love in a Lazzaret," and the "Thespian Syren," have been much commended. The second division of the work is occupied with "Thoughts on the Poets." These essays were so well received as they appeared from time to time in the Southern Literary Messenger, that the author was induced to collect them in this form. The third part of "Rambles and Reveries" consists of nine papers, on such quaint and pleasing themes as "Eye Language," "Art and Artists," "Pet Notions," "The Weather," &c. Altogether the volume forms an agreeable miscellany, and those who are partial to the author's fugitive writings, have now an opportunity to possess a selection from them in a more durable form.

- 19.—*The Sabbath School, as it should Be.* By WILLIAM A. ALCOTT. New York: Jonathan Leavitt. 12mo. pp. 1841.

In this beautifully printed volume, the author describes what he conceives to be the object of Sabbath Schools—the duties of church members relative to them—their organization and conduct—the method of Sabbath School teaching—methods of bible study—and the duties of superintendents, teachers, and ministers, in relation to them. He is in favor of teaching the natural laws of God, and answers with force and clearness the objections to these, as being secular; and he further considers the teaching of doctrines in the Sabbath School as entirely unnecessary.

- 20.—*The Glory and Shame of England.* By C. EDWARDS LESTER. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 253, 293. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We were much struck by the title of these volumes, and had a great curiosity to read them. We have read them; and a work more full of interest, and that of the most stirring kind, we do not remember to have seen for some time. Mr. Lester has sketched, with a masterly hand, the *Shame of England*, as exhibited in her iniquitous domestic and foreign policy, and reckless disregard of the sufferings of her subjects, pauperized, famished, and driven to despair, by her insane and most iniquitous corn laws, and her oppressive taxations of every kind. If Americans would know how to appreciate the blessings they enjoy, let them read these volumes. There is in them a great variety of other matter that is exceedingly interesting, in relation to the most distinguished political, literary, and philanthropic characters of England, her commerce, public works, &c. &c. The author's style is chaste, animated, and eloquent; and with so many things to recommend his book, it will be most extensively read.

- 21.—*The True Catholic Churchman, in his Life and in his Death.* *The Sermons and Poetical Remains of the Rev. Benjamin Davis Winslow, A. M., Assistant to the Rector of St. Mary's Church, Burlington, New Jersey. To which is prefixed the sermon preached on the Sunday after his decease. With notes and additional memoranda.* By the Rt. Rev. GEORGE WASHINGTON DOANE, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of the Diocese, and Rector of St. Mary's Church. Svo. pp. 317. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1841.

The work above named, as its title imports, contains the sermons, poetic efforts, and reminiscences of a consistent and pure-hearted young man, who died in the twenty-fifth year of his age, while engaged in the service of the Christian ministry. His intellectual efforts, as here preserved, indicate a contemplative mind, deeply imbued with the theology to which he was attached, and colored with a delicate and beautiful imagination, that was disciplined by a refined taste and sound judgment.

- 22.—*Rollo Learning to Talk—Rollo Learning to Read in Easy Stories—Rollo at Play, or Safe Amusements—Rollo at Work, &c.—Rollo at School—Rollo's Vacation—Rollo's Museum—Rollo's Travels—Rollo's Correspondence.* 9 vols. 18mo. Philadelphia: Hogan & Thompson. 1841.

This series of juvenile classics, well known to the trade, and to the juvenile public as the "Rollo Books," deserve a general notice at our hands. We prefer them to all works of the kind, even to Edgeworth and Opie. They are founded on republican society; they ground every thing upon moral obligation; they give unusually exact views of science and natural law; they correct imaginative extravagance by just ideas of life; they teach mutual respect—honor for labor and self-dependence; they employ language in its true sense; they exhibit beautifully the right relations between father and child; they inculcate practical self-government, and sustain their interest throughout without any mental excitement.

- 23.—*The Gem: A Christmas and New Year's Present for 1842.* Philadelphia: Published by H. F. Anners.

This work reminds one rather too sensibly of the day of small beginnings in these periodical kaleidoscopes. Nothing about the book is more than respectable; and nothing sinks much below this. Some of the pieces are reprints, very many are anonymous, and all meet the ordinary expectations of this kind of literature. Few eminent names are inscribed on its pages, and, excepting the "Wedding Day," by Mrs. Hughes, it has nothing it would grieve us to forget or gladden us to meet once more. The engravings and mechanical execution are nowise remarkable, though passably good.

24.—*The Gift : A Christmas and New Year's Present for 1842.* Philadelphia : Carey & Hart.

This is one of the most exquisite things ever got up in this country, and may be called a prize specimen of itself, so much does it eclipse all previous efforts. The engravings are admirable, consisting of copies of American paintings, chiefly Sully's. The first face which meets you, "The Country Girl," unlike the titled stupidities which decorate English Annuals, is of rare loveliness, and grows upon you as you study it. The humorous ones, particularly the boy on the sled, are full of life. The tales and poetry are not alone good as coming from distinguished authors ; they seem, by universal consent, to have wrought them out of peculiarly happy moments, moments of rare inspiration. It is unpleasant to particularize when all are good, but Miss Leslie's "People that did not take Boarders," is alone enough to give a high character to the work : and the lamented Lucy Hooper, in singing her last note here, has not failed to sing the sweetest. No one can examine this Annual and not see that the arts have reached a great degree of perfection among us, and deserve the regard and encouragement of the public.

25.—*The Rose of Sharon : a Religious Souvenir for 1842.* Edited by Miss SARAH C. EDGARTON. 12mo. pp. 302. Boston : A. Tompkins.

This beautiful annual is, we presume, designed to represent the religious literature of the Universalists, as we notice the names of some of the most distinguished preachers of that denomination of Christians among the contributors, besides laymen and ladies attached to the same communion. It is not, however, sectarian in its character, but breathes throughout the spirit of our holy religion, inciting to virtue and virtuous deeds, which will endure when sects and sectarianism are lost in the pure catholicism of "the spirit land." The pieces will, on the whole, compare with those to be found in similar works, and where all are so respectable, it would, perhaps, be invidious to particularize. The pictorial embellishments are vastly superior to those contained in the former volumes of the same annual.

26.—*Biography and Poetical Remains of the late Margaret Miller Davidson.* By WASHINGTON IRVING. 2d Edition, 12mo. Philadelphia : Lea & Blanchard. 1841.

This is one of the most fascinating books of recent publication. Its subject was no ordinary character ; but one of those rarely gifted creatures, who appear once in an age, to show what impulses and aspirations belong to our common nature, as well as to teach the responsibility of education, and the influence of a pure sympathy upon the young. Margaret M. Davidson inherited from her mother, herself no common woman, a very poetical and ardent temperament, with all the susceptibilities of early genius. Nothing could be more beautiful than the intercourse between this mother and daughter, unless it be the spontaneous beauty of all the daughter's perceptions of nature and religion. The pen of Irving never had a fitter subject, and he has done it and himself immortal honor. The poetical remains are simple, but exquisitely musical and flowing. She wrote poetry because her thoughts must find expression, and could do it in no other way. And yet her poetry seems but a faint index of her uncommon genius : which under the alternations of feeble health and intense sickness, prosecuted severe studies, revelled in the natural world, and lived purely the spirit's life.

27.—*The Child's Gem for 1842.* Edited by a lady. New York : S. Colman.

The nature and objects of the present volume, which completes the second series of the Child's Gem, are sufficiently explained by the title under which it is published. It will answer the delightful purpose of making the heart cheerful, while, at the same time, it is improved. The engravings are very pretty.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

RAY'S LIFE-PRESERVING BOAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE :—

SIR :—I take a deep interest in every measure which promises increased facility to navigation and commerce ; because I view them as powerful agents among the instrumentalities by which this opaque world is destined to be renovated.

I felt a special interest in the account given, in an early number of the magazine, of Francis' life-preserving boat. But I was struck with one very serious objection, viz. : its want of capacity to contain a ship's crew and a large number of passengers, with the stores and provisions necessary for a sea voyage. Nothing short of such accommodation can afford to the prudent voyager's mind any thing like perfect security from a watery grave. The principle upon which Francis' life-preserving boat is constructed, forbids all idea of its susceptibility of meeting this grand desideratum.

I, however, feel disposed to submit a project for the inspection and consideration of the commercial world, designed to supply the above defect, which I think is not only plausible, but also highly practicable ; and its adoption, or something tantamount, imperiously demanded by the business and spirit of the age in which we now live.

Let the upper story of all sea-going vessels be constructed of iron, made water-proof, and independent of the balance of the vessel, but confined to it by some ten or twelve strong iron bolts, each bolt commanded by a lever, which, in case of necessity, at a moment's warning, can be jerked out, so as to free said upper story from the balance of the vessel ; which upper story, being itself made sea-worthy, shall prosecute the voyage by the aid of jury-masts and rigging laid in for such event.

Let there be two iron partitions running across the aforesaid life-preserving part of the ship. This will make three large rooms ; the middle portion for the stores, which should at all times be kept there in readiness ; the other two rooms, one for passengers, the other for the sailors and crew. The state rooms to be constructed of thin light plank, inside of the iron hull ; the hatchway openings to be closed at a moment's warning, with water-proof shutters.

The steam-engine, and all that appertains thereto, to occupy the lower portion of the ship, and not to interfere in any way with the said life-preserving portion of the vessel.

The masts and rigging present a seeming difficulty ; but none so formidable but they can be overcome.

The masts can be set in strong iron sockets, which shall extend to the floor of the life-preserving portion of the ship ; and a joint can be made in each mast, just above the upper deck, by which the masts can be discharged in a moment, if required. And it is evident that the masts would be too heavy for the life-preserving portion of the ship, when used separate from the balance of the vessel. All the rope attachments can be made with hooks, so constructed as to free the vessel of them at a single effort.

If it should be deemed best for the masts to extend down to the timbers in the hold, there can be no difficulty in so arranging them as to not interfere with the life-preserving rooms.

When a vessel so constructed shall founder at sea, all hands, snugly shipped in the *life-preserver*, can sail off with a fair prospect of reaching their destined haven, leaving the sinking hulk to *measure by herself* the countless fathoms of madame ocean.

As an indemnity against loss of life by burning, I would suggest that several large trap-doors can be so fixed in the ship's bottom, as to fill and sink her in one minute, if the fire cannot be otherwise extinguished, and thus save all on board from a fiery death.

If my life-preserver be deemed liable to capsize, the self-righting principle of Francis' boat can be carried out upon mine, on an enlarged scale.

Permit me to suggest, that a light steam-engine can be carried in the life-preserver, to be used, if occasion require; the force to be communicated to the water by *Smith's screw-auger propellers*, as they are called in England.

I now (as I before have done) enter the lists with Mr. Smith, and contest with him the honor of the screw-auger invention, in application to navigation, so far as theory is concerned.

In September, 1836, I filed a caveat in the patent office at Washington, describing the *screw-auger application of the force to the water*, as better than that of the paddle-wheel, for sea-going vessels.

In the spring, or summer of 1837, I published my views in a Cincinnati newspaper, and advertised for pecuniary aid to make an experiment, offering to the capitalist one half of the profits arising from the invention. But I met with poor success,—cold silence!

I can, with a clear conscience, say that I did not filch the invention from Mr. Smith, or any other person; and I wish it distinctly understood that I do not charge *him* with having borrowed the invention from me. For I am well aware that it is quite possible, in the nature of things, that the same invention should have been original and simultaneous *with him and myself*, without a loan or borrow in the case either side. But I have a desire that Mr. Smith should furnish the world with a certified copy of the first document, *embracing the screw-auger propellers*, filed by him in the patent office of his country. Should this article reach him, I indulge the hope that he will comply with my request.

Before I close this article, I wish to clear up one objection to my life-preserving boat, which may, and probably will, suggest itself to the reader's mind. It is a well known fact, that a vessel sinking at sea will take down with it, by its *suck* or *vortex*, small boats; but I apprehend that my life-preserving boat covers too much surface, and will be too *buoyant*, to follow the sinking vessel very far, if at all.

There is now one other remark which I would make: my life-preserver can be completely ventilated by the air-pump.

Let us now suppose a vessel plying between the ports of New York and Liverpool, having the above security for life and valuable baggage. Do you not suppose that the high estimate which we make of life would prompt such as have occasion to cross the Atlantic, to prefer a passage in her to another vessel?

Yours, very respectfully,

Clinton, Kentucky, 1841.

STEPHEN RAY.

COQUET LIGHT AND BUOYS FOR THAT ROADSTEAD, NORTHUMBERLAND.

TRINITY HOUSE, LONDON, September 3, 1841.

Notice is hereby given that in fulfilment of the intention expressed in an advertisement from this house, dated 10th ultimo, a bright fixed light of great power will be exhibited for the first time on the evening of Friday, the 1st of October next, and which will be visible seaward from N. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. to S. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. by compass. A light of inferior power will also be shown landward in all other directions. The buoys for the anchorage within the island, referred to in the same advertisement, have now been placed in the undermentioned situations, and with the following marks and bearings, viz.:

A Red Beacon Buoy, marked "N. E. Coquet," in 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms water:
The south end of Morwick trees in line with the House on Amble Point, bearing - - - - - W. by N.
A slate roofed House at Bondicar in line with Hauxley Point, - - - S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.
Coquet Light House, - - - - - S. S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.
A Red and White Buoy, painted in circles, marked "N. W. Coquet," in 2 fathoms:
The southernmost of two clumps of Trees on the south land, its apparent width on Bondicar Point, bearing - - - - - S. W. by W.
The west end of a long Wood in line with the east end of the Sand Hills next west of Alemouth, - - - - - N. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.

- North-east Coquet Buoy, - - - - - E. N. E.
 Coquet Light House, - - - - - S. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.
 A Red Buoy, marked "S. W. Coquet," in 3 fathoms:
 The east end of Shillbottle Trees, in line with the tower of Warkworth Castle, bearing - - - - - N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W
 A cluster of Trees inland, apparently midway between two houses at Bondicar, one having a red tiled, and the other a slated roof, - S. W.
 Hauxley Point Buoy, - - - - - S. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.
 A Black Buoy, marked "Sand Spit," in 9 feet, upon the extremity of a Reef running from the main land towards the Island:
 The west end of Warkworth Castle in line with Amble Point, - N. W.
 Bondicar Point in line with the southernmost of two clumps of trees to the southward, - - - - - S. W. by S.
 Hauxley Point Buoy, - - - - - S. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.
 A Black Beacon Buoy, marked "Hauxley Point," in $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms, on the extremity of this dangerous reef:
 A Farm House, having a lofty chimney on its west end, in line with the House on Amble Point, - - - - - N. N. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W.
 Earsdon Windmill in line with a slate roofed House at Bondicar, - W. by S. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.
 Coquet Light House, - - - - - N. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.
 A Black and White Chequered Buoy, marked "Pan Bush," in 2 fathoms, on the S. E. part of the shoal so called:
 The south part of Morwick Trees in line with the north end of Glos-ter Hill, - - - - - W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N.
 A red tiled House within the Sand Hills, its apparent width open north of Radcliffe Colliery chimney, bearing - - - - - S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.
 Coquet Light House, - - - - - S. S. E.
 North-east Coquet Buoy, - - - - - S. E. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

Mariners are to observe that the safest approach to this anchorage is north of the Island, between the N. E. Coquet and Pan Bush Buoys, there being but 8 feet-water in the south entrance, viz.: between the S. W. Coquet and the Sand Spit Buoys.

N. B.—The above bearings are magnetic; and the depths of water those of low water spring tides.

By order.

J. HERBERT, Secretary

COMPARATIVE NAVAL FORCE OF ENGLAND, FRANCE AND AMERICA.

The following table, says the London Times, of the comparative force of England, France, and America, is not very accurate with regard to France, but may be relied on for the strength of America:

	Foreign tonnage.	Number of Merchant Vessels.	Number of Seamen.	Vessels of war of all descriptions.
England,	3,347,400	27,895	181,642	765
France,	647,000	5,391	35,000	350
United States,	2,000,000	16,666	108,000	68

Hence the mercantile interests of the United States have far less protection in proportion to their extent than those of any other maritime country. Not only is the American navy deficient in numerous and well appointed vessels, but the very materials of a navy are wanting. The arsenals are most inadequately stored; the modern improvements in naval architecture have not been introduced into the dockyards, for no ships of the line have been constructed since the war. Only three steamers have been built for the navy. Of the sixty-eight vessels mentioned in the foregoing table, thirty-six only (including, as it would seem, the revenue cutters) are in commission. Of eleven ships of the line, only one is in commission, and that is not in the American seas. The navy list contains seventeen frigates, of which five are in commission; and twenty-one sloops, of which fourteen are in commission. Such is the total deficiency of a home squadron, that the only vessel of war, above the size of a revenue cutter, which has been seen for many years in any of the great harbors, is the schooner Experiment,—a wretched craft, which could only cruise along the coast in summer weather; and sometime ago, a report having reached Philadelphia, that the packet ship Susquehannah had been captured by pirates off the capes of Delaware, the only ship which could be sent out to her relief was a revenue cutter carrying four guns.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.
COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1840.*

The annual report from the secretary of the treasury, with the annual statement of the commerce and navigation of the United States for the year ending 30th of September, 1840, was not published until towards the close of September, 1841. This delay was occasioned by the late date at which some of the returns of imports and exports for the fourth quarter of the last statistical year were received at the treasury department, thus rendering it impossible to complete the commercial statements in season to be reported to congress before adjournment. The document occupies 320 pages octavo, embracing 17 general, summary, and condensed statements, viz :—

1.—A general statement of the quantity and value of merchandise imported. 2.—A summary statement of the same. 3.—A general statement of the quantity and value of foreign merchandise exported. 4.—A summary statement of the same. 5.—A general statement of the quantity and value of domestic produce exported. 6.—A summary statement of the same. 7.—A general statement of the quantity of American and foreign tonnage entered into the United States. 8.—A general statement of the quantity of American and foreign tonnage cleared from the United States. 9.—A statement exhibiting the aggregate number of each description of foreign vessels, with their tonnage and seamen, that entered into and cleared from the United States. 10.—A statistical view of the commerce and navigation of the United States. 11.—A statement of the number and tonnage of vessels which entered each district from foreign countries. 12.—A statement of the number and tonnage of vessels which cleared from each district for foreign countries. 13.—A statement of the commerce and navigation of each state and territory. 14.—Abstract of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States. Connected with No. 14 is a general statement, (marked A or 15) exhibiting a comparison of the tonnage of the United States, from the 30th of September, 1839, to the 30th of September, 1840. 16.—Exhibits the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each state and territory of the United States. 17.—Exhibits a comparative view of the aggregate amount of registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States, from 1815, inclusive.

The tables which follow are derived from this document, and embrace a summary and condensed view of the whole subject. It will be seen from the statements thus presented that the imports during the year have amounted to \$107,141,519; of which there was imported in American vessels \$92,802,352, and in foreign vessels \$14,339,167. The exports during the year have amounted to \$132,085,946; of which \$113,895,634 were of domestic, and \$18,190,312 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, \$92,030,898 were exported in American vessels, and \$21,864,736 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$13,591,359 were exported in American vessels, and \$4,598,953 in foreign vessels. 1,576,946 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,647,009 tons cleared from, the ports of the United States; 712,363 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 706,486 tons cleared, during the same period.

The registered tonnage is stated at 899,764 $\frac{7}{5}$; the enrolled and licensed tonnage at 1,176,694 $\frac{4}{5}$; and fishing vessels at 104,304 $\frac{3}{5}$; making a total of 2,180,764 $\frac{1}{5}$.

Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to 2,076,459 $\frac{2}{3}$ —there were employed in the whale fishery 136,926 $\frac{2}{3}$ tons.

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the year, was—registered, 56,121 $\frac{2}{5}$; enrolled, 62,187 $\frac{7}{5}$; making 118,309 $\frac{3}{5}$ tons.

* The commercial year of 1840 commences on the 1st day of October, 1839, and ends on the 30th day of September, 1840.

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES INTO THE U. S., IN 1840.
A Table showing the value of merchandise imported from each country; distinguishing between that imported in foreign or American vessels, and that admitted free or paying ad valorem or specific duties.

WHENCE IMPORTED.	VALUE (IN DOLLARS) IMPORTED FROM EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of Duty.	Paying duties ad val.	Do. specific duties.	Total.	In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Russia,	559080	623073	1390274	2572427	2393666	178761
Prussia,	22340	33522	3442	59304	59304
Sweden and Norway,.....	2482	1767	1213664	1217913	567848	650065
Swedish West Indies,.....	56452	49	1044	57545	57545
Denmark,.....	1787	2572	3142	7501	2780	4721
Danish West Indies,.....	186153	37618	745406	969177	954987	14190
Hanse Towns,.....	924493	1412184	184816	2521493	308852	2212641
Holland,.....	511672	108356	454726	1074754	713362	361392
Dutch East Indies,.....	602068	91297	124532	817897	764259	53638
Dutch West Indies,.....	255845	111	140523	396479	381018	15461
Dutch Guiana,.....	6917	30849	37766	30997	6769
Belgium,.....	81553	145358	47956	274867	226425	48442
England,.....	10448133	17576245	5089755	33114133	29119626	3994507
Scotland,.....	181956	88155	255106	525217	113620	411597
Ireland,.....	48713	9730	39906	98349	6832	91517
Gibraltar,.....	10978	2679	18910	32567	32567
Malta,.....	23662	33	4776	28471	28471
Cape of Good Hope,.....	31079	1245	32324	32324
British East Indies,.....	1111681	739375	101405	1952461	1904206	48255
British West Indies,.....	849585	10702	187878	1048165	704552	343613
British Guiana,.....	10482	418	73	10973	10973
British Honduras,.....	153027	5266	60	158353	83161	75192
British American colonies,.....	1390948	94671	522148	2007767	1431264	576503
Australia,.....	21783	100358	122141	92308	29833
France,.....	11594376	3643589	2334911	17572876	15548775	2024101
French West Indies,.....	189633	2743	142875	335251	266905	68346
Spain,.....	1206798	36095	441772	1684665	1533240	151425
Teneriffe and oth. Canar's	92619	12	57891	150522	132063	18459
Manilla and Philippine is.	164873	89403	195975	450251	450251
Cuba,.....	3557967	220473	6057037	9835477	9233644	601833
Other Spanish W. I.....	154051	1424	1743257	1898732	1853811	44921
Portugal and Madeira,....	16809	828	514771	535408	516637	15771
Fayal and other Azores,...	8485	70	29583	38138	35138
Cape de Verd islands,....	28456	892	29348	29348
Italy and Sicily,.....	1342421	257285	207019	1806725	1589807	216918
Ionian islands and Greece	43027	5138	48165	48165
Trieste,.....	324820	16787	31758	373365	205413	167952
Turkey,.....	535711	24123	3642	563476	537637	25839
Morocco,.....	62138	62138	52138	10000
Hayti,.....	1194008	48677	10139	1252824	1208585	44239
Texas,.....	75338	3126	225383	303847	301017	2830
Mexico,.....	4148379	10841	15781	4175001	3576624	598377
Gen. Repub. of America,...	116349	69246	3426	189021	179495	9526
New Grenada,.....	215312	1513	557	217382	49005	168377
Venezuela,.....	1026554	290909	37703	1355166	1254165	101001
Brazil,.....	4646185	2381	278730	4927296	4052890	874406
Cisplatine Republic,.....	475853	3587	14962	494402	489130	5272
Argentine Republic,.....	288194	40	5328	293562	293562
Chili and Peru,.....	2038818	6880	9646	2055354	2055354
Republic of Ecuador,.....	23570	5115	28685	28685
China,.....	5570131	1058121	12577	6640829	6640829
Asia, generally,.....	161606	120267	2579	284452	266729	17723
Africa, generally,.....	370959	232	1346	372537	331545	40992
South Seas,.....	13602	140	20	13762	13762
Sandwich islands,.....	16293	16293	16293
Uncertain places,.....	1525	1525	1525
TOTAL,.....	57196204	26998981	22946334	107141519	92802352	14339167

FREE GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Table showing the value of goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, in American and foreign vessels, free of duty, in 1840.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Articles imported for the use of the United States,.....	\$10,941	\$7,058	\$17,999
Articles specially imp. for philosophical societies, &c.			
Philosophical apparatus,.....	2,671	3,175	5,846
Books, maps, and charts,.....	38,059	4,701	42,760
Statuary, busts, casts, &c.....	3,111	106	3,217
Paintings, drawings, etchings, and engravings,.....	5,955	2,565	8,520
Specimens of botany,.....	4,900	221	5,121
Anatomical preparations,.....	931	123	1,054
Antimony, regulus of,.....	11,105	274	11,379
Spelter, or zinc,.....	67,239	17,986	85,225
Burr stones, unwrought,.....	40,603	4,065	44,668
Brimstone and sulphur,.....	52,139	13,612	65,751
Bark of the cork tree,.....	6,806	2,216	9,022
Clay, unwrought,.....	2,089	4,984	7,073
Rags of any kind of cloth,.....	467,524	97,165	564,689
Undressed furs,.....	404,872	17,938	422,810
Hides and skins, undressed,.....	2,567,777	188,437	2,756,214
Plaster of Paris,.....	16,963	118,993	135,956
Barilla,.....	92,383	19,224	111,607
Wood, dye,.....	416,309	60,001	476,310
Unmanufactured mahogany, and other,.....	258,743	48,902	307,645
Animals for breed,.....	18,654	8,118	26,772
All other,.....	142,438	3,073	145,511
Pewter, old,.....	168	168
Tin, in pigs and bars,.....	187,180	13,035	200,215
In plates and sheets,.....	850,984	28,094	879,078
Brass, in pigs and bars,.....	73	73
Old,.....	1,516	86	1,602
Copper, in pigs and bars,.....	1,100,614	50	1,100,664
In sheets, suited to the sheathing of ships,.....	285,923	125,644	411,567
Old, fit only to be remanufactured,.....	49,773	20,632	70,405
Bullion—gold,.....	252,441	20,686	273,127
Silver,.....	469,371	63	469,434
Specie—gold,.....	1,957,598	854,432	2,812,030
Silver,.....	4,310,826	1,017,396	5,328,222
Teas, from India, China, &c.....	5,414,758	2,831	5,417,589
Coffee,.....	7,221,176	1,325,046	8,546,222
Cocoa,.....	150,992	10,397	161,389
Fruits—almonds, currants, prunes, figs, raisins, &c.....	1,074,530	146,138	1,220,668
All other,.....	175,847	8,374	184,221
Spices—mace, nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, pepper, &c.	751,062	107,897	558,939
Camphor,.....	62,294	262	62,556
Silks—lace veils, shawls, shades, &c.....	172,380	137,478	309,858
Other manufactures of,.....	7,349,421	629,679	7,979,100
Silk and worsted, manufactures of,.....	1,534,430	195,362	1,729,792
Camlets of goat's hair,.....	5,976	1,264	7,240
Worsted stuff goods,.....	2,084,475	302,863	2,387,338
Linsens, bleached and unbleached,.....	3,888,572	290,548	4,179,120
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps,.....	185,881	143,173	329,054
Sheeting, brown and white,.....	230,475	30,698	261,173
Bolting cloth,.....	73,478	1,056	74,534
Wool, not exceeding eight cents per pound,.....	627,767	47,242	675,009
Quicksilver,.....	34,682	19,733	54,415
Opium,.....	38,503	2,371	40,874
Crude saltpetre,.....	366,263	366,263
All other articles,.....	4,814,886	1,034,230	5,849,116
TOTAL,.....	50,056,454	7,139,750	57,196,204

MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM, IMPORTED IN 1840.

A Statement of the value of goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, paying duties ad valorem, in American and foreign vessels, in 1840.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Manufactures of wool—			
Cloths and cassimeres,.....	\$4,338,788	\$357,741	\$4,696,529
Merino shawls,.....	119,156	7,453	126,609
Blankets, not above seventy-five cents each,.....	226,081	13,676	239,757
Above seventy-five cents each,.....	242,969	87,691	330,660
Hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings,.....	412,413	94,039	506,452
Other manufactures of wool,.....	214,116	7,769	221,885
Woollen yarn,.....	402	405	807
Worsted yarn,.....	88,249	15,682	103,931
Manufactures of cotton—			
Dyed, printed, or colored,.....	3,427,149	466,545	3,893,694
White,.....	843,462	73,639	917,101
Twist, yarn, and thread,.....	379,113	7,982	387,095
Hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings,.....	293,413	498,665	792,078
Nankeens, direct from China,.....	1,100	2	1,102
Other manufactures of cotton,.....	398,544	114,870	513,414
Manufactures of silks from India, China, &c.			
Piece goods,.....	903,597	59,844	963,441
Sewing silk,.....	23,089	23,089
Other manufactures of silk,.....	225	225
Silk, sewing, from other places,.....	236,120	15,155	251,275
Lace, thread, and cotton,.....	237,445	230,980	468,425
Flaxen goods—linens, dyed and colored, checks, &c... Other manufactures of flax,.....	89,863 305,664	23,799 16,020	113,662 321,684
Hempen goods—sail duck,..... Other manufactures of hemp,.....	562,646 58,181	53,077 13,813	615,723 71,994
Hats and bonnets—			
Leghorn, chip, straw, or grass flats, &c.....	404,738	33,262	438,000
Fur, wool, and leather,.....	6,801	628	7,429
Manufactures of iron and steel—			
Sidearms,.....	14,560	1,636	16,196
Firearms, not specified,.....	97,873	20,716	118,589
Drawing knives,.....	6,242	28	6,270
Cutting knives,.....	6,297	1,007	7,304
Hatchets, axes, and adzes,.....	4,949	966	5,915
Socket chisels,.....	9,893	45	9,938
Steelyards and scalebeams,.....	6,791	257	7,048
Vices,.....	7,904	516	8,420
Sickles and reaping hooks,.....	5,643	5,643
Scythes,.....	29,095	7,800	36,895
Spades and shovels,.....	12,584	1,089	13,673
Squares of iron or steel,.....	2,905	136	3,041
Wood screws,.....	130,996	990	131,986
Other articles,.....	2,035,206	169,105	2,204,311
Manufactures of—			
Copper,.....	54,089	6,349	60,438
Brass,.....	196,412	51,267	247,679
Tin,.....	26,084	2,690	28,774
Pewter,.....	23,489	1,142	24,631
Lead,.....	901	901
Wood—cabinet ware,..... Other manufactures of,.....	44,294 103,131	41,981 45,346	86,275 148,477
Leather,.....	442,689	30,402	473,091
Marble,.....	16,300	2,987	19,287
Gold and silver, precious stones, set or otherwise,...	122,668	78,922	201,590
Watches, and parts of,.....	350,523	70,436	420,959

MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Manufactures of glass-ware—cut and not specified,.....	\$41,430	\$22,195	\$63,625
Plain and other,.....	60,341	66,986	127,327
Other manufactures of glass not specified,.....	62,570	107,325	169,895
Wares—China and porcelain,.....	174,948	12,868	187,816
Earthen and stone,.....	1,704,870	117,545	1,822,415
Plated, not specified,.....	80,549	23,350	103,899
Gilt,.....	18,029	5,467	23,496
Japanned,.....	38,150	527	38,677
Saddlery—common tinned and japanned,.....	83,586	324	83,910
Plated, brass, and polished steel,.....	114,369	2,721	117,090
Coach and harness furniture,.....	4,764	4,764
Carriages, and parts of,.....	3,643	250	3,893
Slates of all kinds,.....	53,561	17,183	70,744
Quills prepared,.....	17,178	4,239	21,417
Black lead pencils,.....	2,398	1,401	3,799
Paper hangings,.....	74,069	2,452	76,521
Hair cloth and hair seating,.....	40,370	19,185	59,555
Brushes of all kinds,.....	32,626	6,136	38,762
Copper bottoms, cut round and turned on the edge,....	8,659	150	8,809
Silvered or plated wire,.....	1,899	1,188	3,087
Raw silk,.....	179,557	54,678	234,235
Indigo,.....	1,099,198	22,503	1,121,701
Wool manufactured, exceeding eight cents per lb.....	132,566	38,501	171,067
Articles not enumerated, at 5 per cent.....	68,178	8,546	76,724
Do. do. 10 do.	1,013	168	1,181
Do. do. 12 do.	2,490	358	2,848
Do. do. 12½ do.	173,840	57,620	231,460
Do. do. 15 do.	791,273	183,048	974,321
Do. do. 20 do.	268	93	361
Do. do. 25 do.	467,419	106,097	573,516
Do. do. 30 do.	20,678	13,535	34,213
Do. do. 35 do.	2,144	10	2,154
Do. do. 40 do.	663	663
Do. do. 50 do.	197,808	53,836	251,644
TOTAL,.....	23,319,946	3,679,035	26,998,981

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Statement of the value of goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, paying specific duties, in American and foreign vessels, in 1840.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Flannels,.....	\$55,692	\$11,998	\$67,690
Bockings and baizes,.....	50,699	326	51,025
Carpeting—Brussels, Wilton, and treble ingrained,.....	238,612	7,456	246,068
Other ingrained and Venetian,.....	92,124	309	92,433
Floor-cloth, patent, printed, or painted,.....	13,388	6,506	19,894
Oil-cloth furniture,.....	2,262	11,492	13,754
Cotton bagging,.....	124,136	186,075	310,211
Wines—Madeira,.....	349,694	1,744	351,438
Sherry,.....	136,890	2,112	139,002
Red, of France,.....	159,077	280,722	439,799
Other, of France,.....	41,108	72,986	114,094
French, in bottles,.....	379,492	120,431	499,923
Sicily,.....	103,032	13,097	116,129
Red, of Spain and Austria,.....	16,294	21,128	37,422

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE
Wines—other, of Spain, Austria, and Mediterranean,...	\$230,069	\$15,369	\$245,438
Of other countries, in casks,.....	217,604	11,658	229,262
Of other countries, in bottles,.....	23,507	13,162	36,669
Spirits from grain,.....	260,746	159,323	420,069
other materials,.....	719,181	453,314	1,172,495
Molasses,.....	2,904,251	6,540	2,910,791
Vinegar,.....	5,574	9,040	14,614
Beer, ale, and porter, in casks,.....	6,739	5,305	12,044
in bottles,.....	92,549	30,892	123,441
Oil—Foreign fishing—spermaceti,.....	13,837	13,837
whale and other fish,.....	14,165	31	14,196
Olive.....	77,626	8,286	85,912
Castor.....	2,980	6	2,986
Linseed,.....	93,854	79,976	173,830
Rapeseed,.....	87	87
Teas from other places than China.....	9,399	22	9,421
Chocolate,.....	806	488	1,294
Sugar—brown,.....	4,653,030	89,462	4,742,492
White, clayed or powdered.....	822,817	15,641	838,458
Loaf,.....	58	4	62
Candy,.....	45	5	50
Other, refined,.....	18	45	63
Syrup of sugar cane.....	3	3
Cayenne pepper,.....	1	1
Candles—wax and spermaceti,.....	174	152	326
Tallow,.....	8,649	25	8,674
Cheese,.....	12,317	10,912	23,229
Soap,.....	7,582	6,277	13,859
Tallow,.....	48,784	1,761	50,545
Lard,.....	7	7
Beef and pork,.....	5,709	6,723	12,432
Bacon,.....	2,215	11,872	14,087
Butter,.....	2,564	1,199	3,763
Saltpetre.....	22,588	1,584	24,172
Vitriol—oil of,.....	706	41	747
Salts—Epsom,.....	29	15	44
Glauber,.....	97	1	98
Tobacco, manufactured—snuff,.....	185	26	211
Cigars,.....	828,562	40,872	869,434
Other than snuff and cigars,.....	18	170	188
Cotton,.....	233,583	2,594	236,177
Gunpowder,.....	1,200	3,321	4,521
Bristles,.....	85,778	8,547	94,325
Glue,.....	1,085	54	1,139
Ochre—dry,.....	19,196	15,244	34,440
In oil,.....	3,086	313	3,399
Lead, red and white,.....	28,423	12,620	41,043
Whiting and Paris white,.....	131	886	1,017
Litharge,.....	373	5	378
Sugar of lead,.....	7,541	3,844	11,385
Lead—pig, bar, and sheet,.....	18,035	76	18,111
Shot,.....	145	19	164
Pipes,.....	44	44
Old and scrap,.....	999	137	1,136
Cordage—cables and tarred,.....	89,472	32	89,504
Untarred and yarn,.....	12,398	1,036	13,434
Twine, packthread, &c.....	29,638	12,335	41,973
Corks,.....	35,161	21,025	56,186

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Copper—rods and bolts,.....	\$571	\$500	\$1,071
Nails and spikes,.....	361		361
Fire arms—muskets,.....	32,948	1,252	34,200
Rifles,.....	892	84	976
Wire—cap or bonnet,.....	2,239	23	2,262
Iron and steel wire—not above No. 14.....	9,880	5	9,885
Above No. 14.....	5,811		5,811
Iron—tacks, brads, and sprigs, not exc'ding 16 oz. per M.	678	30	708
Exceeding 16 oz. per M.	166		166
Nails.....	61,915	562	62,477
Spikes.....	5,032		5,032
Cables and chains, or parts thereof,.....	75,512	14,131	89,643
Mill saws,.....	1,614	260	1,874
Anchors.....	7,013	1,863	8,876
Anvils.....	22,845	358	23,203
Blacksmith's hammers and sledges,.....	1,720	202	1,922
Castings—vessels of,.....	11,074	3,598	14,672
All other.....	84,874	15,950	100,824
Round, as brazier's rods, of 3-16 to 8-16 inch diam'r,	46,269	1,513	47,782
Nail or spike rods,.....	24		24
Sheet and hoop,.....	234,875	934	235,809
Band iron, scroll iron, or casement rods, slit or ham'd,	339	624	963
In pigs,.....	83,303	31,259	114,562
Old and scrap,.....	11,120	4,629	15,749
Bar—manufactured by rolling,.....	1,534,386	173,263	1,707,649
manufactured otherwise,.....	1,024,986	664,845	1,689,831
Steel,.....	459,040	69,676	528,716
Hemp,.....	602,057	84,720	686,777
Alum,.....	7	2	9
Copperas,.....	73		73
Wheat Flour,.....	124	306	430
Salt,.....	779,099	236,327	1,015,426
Coal,.....	287,694	99,544	387,238
Wheat,.....	602	37	639
Oats,.....	693	144	837
Potatoes,.....	6,084	10,606	16,690
Paper—folio and quarto post,.....	13,682	1,427	15,109
Foolscap, drawing, and writing,.....	39,001	1,619	40,620
Printing, copper-plate, and stainers',.....	436		436
Sheathing, binders', wrapping, and box boards,	668	203	871
All other,.....	11,683	1,550	13,233
Books—printed previous to 1775,.....	5,582	273	5,855
Printed in other languages than English, Latin,			
and Greek,.....	53,329	23,826	77,155
Printed in Greek and Latin—bound,.....	1,664	660	2,324
unbound,.....	1,535	553	2,088
All other—bound,.....	30,195	7,397	37,592
unbound,.....	70,449	15,301	85,750
Apothecaries' vials and bottles, not exceeding the ca- pacity of 6 oz. each,.....	496	63	559
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 16 oz. each,	245	121	366
Perfumery and fancy vials and bottles, not exceeding the capacity of 4 oz. each,.....	368	522	890
Exceeding 4 but not exceeding 16 oz. each,	300	381	681
Demijohns,.....	12,083	12,989	25,072
Glass bottles, black, not above 1 quart,.....	67,151	49,725	116,876
Exceeding one quart,.....		1,392	1,392
Window glass, not exceeding 8 inches by 10,.....	2,647	4,064	6,711

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Window glass, exceeding 8 by 10, and not exceeding 10 by 12 inches,.....	\$5,212	\$5,065	\$10,277
Exceeding 10 by 12 inches,.....	18,747	21,011	39,758
Fish, dried or smoked,.....	5,782	13,573	19,355
Salmon,.....	34,048	44,184	78,232
Mackerel,.....	60,936	53,654	114,590
All other,.....	19,463	29,516	48,979
Shoes and slippers, silk,.....	1,826	32	1,858
Prunella, nankeen, &c. &c.....	152	116	268
Leather, kid, and morocco, &c.....	25,339	7,038	32,377
Children's,.....	326	263	589
Boots and bootees,.....	28,494	7,947	36,441
Playing cards,.....	4	1	5
Felts or hat bodies,.....	269	269
TOTAL,.....	19,425,952	3,520,382	22,946,334

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Table, showing the value of goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, in 1840.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	VALUE (IN DOLLARS) EXPORTED TO EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of Duty.	Paying Duties ad val.	Paying Specific Duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.
Russia,.....	\$111,524	\$32,715	\$790,386	\$934,625	\$934,519	\$106
Prussia,.....	42,375	740	43,115	43,115
Sweden and Norway,...	34,581	4,000	76,553	115,134	7,031	108,103
Swedish West Indies,...	613	410	2,587	3,610	3,610
Denmark,.....	14,932	2,936	17,868	17,868
Danish West Indies,....	88,831	61,442	30,245	180,518	180,228	290
Holland,.....	423,530	37,001	50,515	511,046	396,644	114,402
Dutch East Indies,.....	184,216	1,904	16,432	202,552	194,175	8,377
Dutch West Indies,.....	32,742	5,843	4,331	42,916	40,602	2,314
Hanse Towns, &c.....	646,697	80,840	102,959	830,496	162,495	668,001
Belgium,.....	322,339	8,812	155,275	486,426	353,296	133,130
England,.....	3,948,655	908,762	239,465	5,096,882	2,735,004	2,361,878
Scotland,.....	530	19,270	8,504	28,304	11,234	17,070
Gibraltar,.....	173,569	51,121	32,420	257,110	253,660	3,450
Malta,.....	29,381	16,005	45,386	45,386
British East Indies,.....	347,209	75	4,507	351,791	351,791
Mauritius,.....	153	153	153
Cape of Good Hope,.....	197	197	197
British West Indies,....	19,065	10,892	28,043	58,000	21,017	36,983
Brit. N. Amer. colonies,	98,747	11,100	94,188	204,035	67,492	136,543
Honduras,.....	19,242	36,308	2,821	58,371	43,159	15,212
British Guiana,.....	18	520	538	538
Australia,.....	5,516	506	6,022	3,939	2,083
French Atlantic ports,..	2,537,766	98,840	61,419	2,698,025	2,156,031	541,994
French Mediterr. ports,	178,905	2,470	42,827	224,202	83,432	140,770
French West Indies,....	12,401	6,550	11,705	30,656	25,098	5,558
French Guiana,.....	100	100	100
Spanish Atlantic ports,	3,296	2,543	5,839	4,649	1,190
Spanish Mediterr. ports,	1,370	1,665	3,035	3,035
Cuba,.....	524,653	350,966	103,425	979,044	972,555	6,489
Other Spanish W. I....	27,313	185	1,710	29,208	28,431	777

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	VALUE (IN DOLLARS) EXPORTED TO EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of Duty.	Paying Duties ad val.	Paying Specific Duties.	Total.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.
Teneriffe & oth. Canar's	\$9,672	\$1,175	\$732	\$11,579	\$11,579
Manilla & Philippine is.	30,000	927	30,927	30,927
Portugal,.....	5,724	5,724	5,724
Madeira,.....	22,392	466	22,858	22,858
Cape de Verds,.....	463	2,346	2,809	2,582	\$227
Fayal and other Azores,	2,720	216	2,687	5,623	5,623
Italy,.....	163,525	4,954	114,868	283,347	267,760	15,587
Sicily,.....	20,921	13,002	33,923	33,923
Trieste, & oth. Austrian
Adriatic ports,.....	135,814	7,865	52,585	196,264	174,271	21,993
Turkey, Levant, & Eg't	151,446	1,012	4,415	156,873	156,873
Hayti,.....	53,371	23,921	4,557	81,849	67,327	14,522
Texas,.....	65,854	141,182	74,163	281,199	277,128	4,071
Mexico,.....	573,417	862,117	109,869	1,545,403	1,463,833	81,570
C'l. Repub. of America,	35,312	38,380	13,593	87,285	87,285
New Grenada,.....	41,302	29,242	6,785	77,329	15,897	61,432
Venezuela,.....	134,902	76,929	17,774	229,605	222,387	7,218
Brazil,.....	203,105	106,298	51,308	360,711	360,711
Argentine Republic,.....	61,234	15,129	12,769	89,132	89,132
Cisplatine Republic,.....	44,987	14,848	7,793	67,628	67,628
Chili,.....	120,192	144,003	92,380	356,575	356,575
China,.....	500,030	6,109	34,641	540,780	540,780
Asia, generally,.....	128,960	613	8,519	138,092	138,092
Africa, generally,.....	7,432	26,921	8,695	43,048	33,374	9,674
South Seas and Pacific,	23,547	26,294	15,359	65,200	65,200
West Indies, generally,	2,289	225	2,514	2,501	13
S. America, generally,...	15,776	12,515	28,291	28,291
N. W. Coast of Ame'ca,	540	540	540
TOTAL,.....	12,384,503	3,271,728	2,534,081	18,190,312	13,591,359	4,598,953
Entitled to drawback,.....	2,875,255	2,299,487	5,174,742	3,906,261	1,268,481
Not entitled to drawb'k,	12,384,503	396,473	234,594	13,015,570	9,685,098	3,330,472

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A summary statement of the quantity and value of goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, in 1840.

I.—FREE OF DUTY.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	Quantity.	Value.
Brimstone and sulphur,.....	\$464
Bark of the cork tree,....	2,000
Rags of any kind of cloth,.....	210
Undressed furs of all kinds,.....	53,962
Hides, raw,.....	406,234
Barilla,.....	2,431
Wood, dye,.....	564,707
Unmanufactured mahogany and other,.....	64,176
Animals, other than for breed,.....	200
Tin, in pigs and bars,.....	16,168
In plates and sheets,.....	15,236
Copper, in pigs and bars,.....	32,390
In plates suited to the sheathing of ships,.....	37,652
Old, fit only to be remanufactured,.....	7,952

ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	Quantity.	Value.
Bullion, silver,.....		\$47,689
Specie, gold,.....		1,468,300
Silver,.....		4,665,952
Teas, originally imported from China,.....pounds	3,120,692	1,358,044
Coffee,.....	do. 8,698,334	930,398
Cocoa,.....	do. 1,613,202	146,901
Fruits, almonds,.....	do. 87,333	13,236
Currants,.....	do. 19,495	2,466
Prunes,.....	do. 23,747	2,585
Figs,.....	do. 85,521	2,910
Raisins, Muscatel,.....	do. 630,728	47,283
Other,.....	do. 87,204	3,641
Spices, mace,.....	do. 2,892	3,337
Nutmegs,.....	do. 2,528	2,398
Cinnamon,.....	do. 14,703	19,835
Cloves,.....	do. 43,589	9,834
Black pepper,.....	do. 2,869,540	216,430
Pimento,.....	do. 1,096,719	57,348
Cassia,.....	do. 142,063	17,842
Ginger,.....	do. 5,874	401
Camphor,.....	do. 38,918	39,490
Silks, other than India—lace veils, shawls, shades, &c.....		25,550
Other manufactures of,.....		292,270
Manufactures of silk and worsted,.....		24,994
Camlets of goats' or camels' hair,.....		54,134
Worsted stuff goods,.....		351,685
Linens, bleached and unbleached,.....		22,833
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps,.....		139,366
Sheeting, brown and white,.....		3,050
Bolting cloth,.....		10,902
Quicksilver,.....		12,658
Opium,.....		14,040
Crude saltpetre,.....		1,172,919
All other articles,.....		
TOTAL DOLLARS,.....		12,384,503

The whole of the above amount is of course stated as not entitled to drawback.

II.—FOREIGN MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM, EXPORTED IN 1840.

Of the merchandise paying duties ad valorem, we find the value stated in the tables at \$3,271,728; out of which the amount of \$2,875,255 was entitled to drawback, and \$396,473 is the amount not entitled to drawback.

III.—FOREIGN MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, EXPORTED IN 1840.

Of the merchandise paying specific duties, we find the total value stated at \$2,534,081; out of which the amount of \$2,298,653 is declared entitled to drawback, while that of \$235,428 is not entitled to drawback.

RECAPITULATION OF THE FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

	Entitled to Drawback.	Not entitled to Drawback.	Total Value.
Total value of mer'dise paying specific duties,...	\$2,298,653	\$235,428	\$2,534,081
“ “ paying ad val. duties,...	2,875,255	396,473	3,271,728
“ “ free of duty,.....		12,384,503	12,384,503
Total value of foreign merchandise,.....	5,173,908	13,016,404	18,190,312

DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Table, showing the total value of goods, wares, etc., of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported to each country in 1840, in American and foreign vessels.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	Total Value to each Country.
Russia and Prussia,.....	\$241,146	\$37,063	\$278,209
Sweden and Norway,.....	100,321	334,771	435,092
Swedish West Indies,.....	94,836	3,874	98,710
Denmark,.....	34,590	41,593	76,183
Danish West Indies,.....	892,337	26,594	918,931
Holland,.....	2,544,481	800,783	3,345,264
Dutch East Indies,.....	126,583	6,168	132,751
Dutch West Indies,.....	232,737	26,701	259,438
Dutch Guiana,.....	52,118		52,118
Belgium,.....	1,414,065	420,164	1,834,229
Hanse Towns,.....	980,430	2,387,533	3,367,963
England,.....	41,904,969	10,046,809	51,951,778
Scotland,.....	1,108,977	913,659	2,022,636
Ireland,.....	217,762		217,762
Gibraltar and Malta,.....	609,917	48,037	657,954
British Guiana,.....	111,839	7,057	118,896
British East Indies,.....	280,404		280,404
British West Indies,.....	2,531,067	376,517	2,907,584
Cape of Good Hope,.....	27,372	8,444	35,816
Mauritius,.....		8,319	8,319
Australia,.....	51,199	33,648	84,847
British American colonies,.....	4,124,157	1,771,809	5,895,966
Honduras,.....	100,974	31,121	132,095
France on the Atlantic,.....	15,857,582	1,876,161	17,733,743
France on the Mediterranean,.....	979,414	199,414	1,178,833
French West Indies,.....	454,120	29,475	483,595
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	110,722	27,113	137,835
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	106,147	109,437	215,584
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,.....	11,816		11,816
Manilla, and the Philippine islands,.....	90,589		90,589
Cuba, and other Spanish West Indies,.....	5,357,407	744,484	6,101,891
Portugal and Madeira,.....	191,150		191,160
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	10,471		10,471
Cape de Verd islands,.....	81,926	685	82,611
Italy and Sicily,.....	785,932	707,123	1,493,055
Trieste, and other Austrian ports on the Adriatic,...	1,170,769	419,587	1,590,356
Turkey, Levant, &c.....	119,745		119,745
China,.....	469,186		469,186
Hayti,.....	875,416	69,949	945,365
Texas,.....	914,445	22,627	937,072
Mexico,.....	908,666	61,272	969,938
Central Republic of America,.....	130,661		130,661
Venezuela and Brazil,.....	2,636,157	63,973	2,700,130
Cisplatine Republic and Chili,.....	1,454,356		1,454,356
Argentine Republic and New Granada,.....	302,507	35,559	338,066
West Indies, generally,.....	305,589	71,126	376,715
South America, generally,.....	96,042		96,042
Europe, generally,.....	43,968	20,008	63,976
Asia, generally,.....	170,734		170,734
Africa, generally,.....	435,141	76,074	511,215
South Seas,.....	177,229		177,229
Northwest Coast of America,.....	720		720
TOTAL,.....	92,030,898	21,864,736	113,895,634

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.
 Summary statement of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, in 1840.

THE SEA.			
Fisheries—			
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,.....		\$541,058	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,).....		179,106	
Whale and other fish oil,.....		1,404,984	
Spermaceti oil,.....		430,490	
Whalebone,.....		210,379	
Spermaceti candles,.....		332,353	
			\$3,198,370
THE FOREST.			
Skins and furs,.....		1,237,789	
Ginseng,.....		22,728	
Products of wood—			
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,.....	\$1,801,049		
Other lumber,.....	270,933		
Masts and spars,.....	29,049		
Oak bark, and other dye,.....	229,510		
All manufactures of wood,.....	596,305		
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,.....	602,529		
Ashes, pot and pearl,.....	533,193		
		4,062,568	5,323,085
AGRICULTURE.			
Product of animals—			
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,.....	623,373		
Butter and cheese,.....	210,749		
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,.....	1,894,894		
Horses and mules,.....	246,320		
Sheep,.....	30,698		
Vegetable food—			
Wheat,.....	1,635,483		
Flour,.....	10,143,615		
Indian corn,.....	338,333		
Indian meal,.....	705,183		
Rye meal,.....	170,931		
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse,.....	113,393		
Biscuit, or shipbread,.....	428,988		
Potatoes,.....	54,524		
Apples,.....	54,131		
Rice,.....	1,942,076		
		15,587,657	18,593,691
Tobacco,.....			9,883,957
Cotton,.....			63,870,307
All other agricultural products—			
Flaxseed,.....		120,000	
Hops,.....		11,235	
Brown sugar,.....		45,940	
Indigo,.....		209	
			177,384
MANUFACTURES.			
Soap, and tallow candles,.....		451,995	
Leather, boots and shoes,.....		214,360	
Household furniture,.....		295,844	

DOMESTIC EXPORTS, ETC.—Continued.

Coaches and other carriages,.....		\$74,416	
Hats,.....		103,398	
Saddlery,.....		59,517	
Wax,.....		59,685	
Spirits from grain, beer, ale, and porter,.....		128,330	
Snuff and tobacco,.....		813,671	
Lead,.....		39,687	
Linseed oil, and spirits of turpentine,.....		63,348	
Cordage,.....		43,510	
Iron—pig, bar, and nails,.....		147,397	
Castings,.....		115,664	
All manufactures of,.....		841,394	
Spirits from molasses,.....		283,707	
Sugar, refined,.....		1,214,658	
Chocolate,.....		2,048	
Gunpowder,.....		117,347	
Copper and brass,.....		86,954	
Medicinal drugs,.....		122,387	
			\$5,279,317
Cotton piece goods—			
Printed and colored,.....	\$398,977		
White,.....	2,925,257		
Nankeens,.....	1,200		
Twist, yarn, and thread,.....	31,445		
All other manufactures of,.....	192,728		
		3,549,607	
Flax and hemp—			
Cloth and thread,.....		7,114	
Bags and all manufactures of,.....		1,128	
Wearing apparel,.....		152,055	
Combs and buttons,.....		40,299	
Brushes,.....		12,263	
Billiard tables and apparatus,.....		2,471	
Umbrellas and parasols,.....		9,654	
Leather and morocco skins not sold per pound,.....		19,557	
Printing presses and type,.....		17,105	
Fire engines and apparatus,.....		6,317	
Musical instruments,.....		12,199	
Books and maps,.....		29,632	
Paper and stationary,.....		76,957	
Paints and varnish,.....		34,631	
Vinegar,.....		6,401	
Earthen and stone ware,.....		10,959	
Manufactures of glass,.....		56,688	
Tin,.....		7,501	
Pewter and lead,.....		15,296	
Marble and stone,.....		35,794	
Gold and silver, and gold leaf,.....		1,965	
Gold and silver coin,.....		2,235,073	
Artificial flowers and jewelry,.....		9,479	
Molasses,.....		9,775	
Trunks,.....		6,607	
Brick and lime,.....		16,949	
Domestic salt,.....		42,246	
			6,425,722
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,.....		403,496	
Other articles,.....		740,305	
			1,143,801
			113,895,634

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

Statistical view of the commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of imports from, and exports to, each country in 1840.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.
Russia,.....	\$2,572,427	\$234,856	\$934,625	\$1,169,481
Prussia,.....	59,304	43,353	43,115	86,468
Sweden and Norway,.....	1,217,913	435,092	115,134	550,226
Swedish West Indies,.....	57,545	98,710	3,610	102,320
Denmark,.....	7,501	76,183	17,868	94,051
Danish West Indies,.....	969,177	918,931	180,518	1,099,449
Hanse Towns,.....	2,521,493	3,367,963	830,496	4,198,459
Holland,.....	1,074,754	3,345,264	511,046	3,856,310
Dutch East Indies,.....	817,897	132,751	202,552	335,303
Dutch West Indies,.....	396,479	259,438	42,916	302,354
Dutch Guiana,.....	37,766	52,118	52,118
Belgium,.....	274,867	1,834,229	486,426	2,320,655
England,.....	33,114,133	51,951,778	5,096,882	57,048,660
Scotland,.....	525,217	2,022,636	28,304	2,050,940
Ireland,.....	98,349	217,762	217,762
Gibraltar,.....	32,567	643,344	257,110	900,454
Malta,.....	28,471	14,610	45,386	59,996
Mauritius,.....	8,319	153	8,472
Cape of Good Hope,.....	32,324	35,816	197	36,013
British East Indies,.....	1,952,461	280,404	351,791	632,195
British West Indies,.....	1,048,165	2,907,584	58,000	2,965,584
British Honduras,.....	158,353	132,095	58,371	190,466
British Guiana,.....	10,973	118,896	538	119,434
British American colonies,.....	2,007,767	5,889,215	204,035	6,093,250
Australia,.....	122,141	84,847	6,022	90,869
British African ports,.....
France,.....	17,572,876	18,919,327	2,922,227	21,841,554
French West Indies,.....	335,251	483,595	30,656	514,251
French Guiana,.....	100	100
Bourbon,.....
Hayti,.....	1,252,824	945,365	81,849	1,027,214
Spain,.....	1,684,665	353,419	8,874	362,293
Teneriffe and other Canaries,.....	150,522	11,816	11,579	23,395
Manilla and Philippine islands,.....	450,251	90,589	30,927	121,516
Cuba,.....	9,835,477	5,331,471	979,044	6,310,515
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	1,898,732	770,420	29,208	799,628
Portugal,.....	222,884	97,341	5,724	103,065
Madeira,.....	309,524	93,819	22,858	116,677
Fayal and the other Azores,.....	38,138	10,471	5,623	16,094
Cape de Verd islands,.....	29,348	82,611	2,809	85,420
Italy,.....	1,157,200	1,189,838	283,347	1,473,185
Sicily,.....	649,525	303,217	33,923	337,140
Ionian islands,.....	43,027
Greece,.....	5,138
Trieste,.....	373,365	1,590,356	196,264	1,786,620
Turkey,.....	563,476	119,745	156,873	276,618
Morocco,.....	62,138
Texas,.....	303,847	937,072	281,199	1,218,271
Mexico,.....	4,175,001	969,938	1,545,403	2,515,341
Venezuela,.....	1,355,166	554,267	229,605	783,872
New Grenada,.....	217,382	57,922	77,329	135,251
Central America,.....	189,021	130,661	87,285	217,946

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.
Brazil,	\$4,927,296	\$2,145,863	360,711	\$2,506,574
Argentine Republic,.....	293,562	280,144	89,132	369,276
Cisplatine Republic,.....	494,402	82,102	67,628	149,730
Chili,	1,616,859	1,372,254	356,575	1,728,829
Peru,.....	438,495			
Republic of Ecuador,.....	28,685			
South America, generally,.....		96,042	28,291	124,333
China,.....	6,640,829	469,186	540,780	1,009,966
Europe, generally,.....		63,976		63,976
Asia, generally,.....	284,452	170,734	138,092	308,826
Africa, generally,.....	372,537	511,215	43,048	554,263
Arabia,.....				
West Indies, generally,.....		376,715	2,514	379,229
South Seas,.....	13,762	177,229	65,200	242,429
Sandwich islands,.....	16,293			
Atlantic Ocean,.....				
Northwest Coast of America,.....		720	540	1,260
Uncertain places,	1,525			
TOTAL,.....	107,141,519	113,895,634	18,190,312	132,085,946

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

Statistical view of the navigation of the United States, exhibiting the tonnage of American and foreign vessels arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country in 1840.

COUNTRIES.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the Uni. States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the Uni. States.
Russia,	15,724	6,018	2,820	477
Prussia,	536	506		1,577
Sweden and Norway,.....	7,145	1,118	10,899	5,936
Swedish West Indies,.....	1,655	2,203		139
Denmark,		324	286	1,352
Danish West Indies,.....	28,375	27,700	1,412	1,197
Hanse Towns,.....	12,717	17,849	38,177	42,324
Holland,.....	15,133	31,747	3,986	11,929
Dutch East Indies,.....	2,364	1,828	370	485
Dutch West Indies,.....	7,820	3,790	893	1,153
Dutch Guiana,.....	6,214	5,729		
Belgium,.....	9,435	19,507	582	7,667
England,.....	368,772	388,512	128,001	129,213
Scotland,.....	8,729	10,799	12,865	10,433
Ireland,.....	965	2,732	11,922	351
Gibraltar,.....	2,155	11,312		877
Malta,	145	449		
Mauritius,	257		510	
Cape of Good Hope,.....	922	650		160
British East Indies,.....	9,715	5,742		
British West Indies,.....	54,899	78,224	29,294	13,364
British Honduras,.....	3,943	5,048	1,353	1,708

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

COUNTRIES	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the Uni. States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the Uni. States.
British Guiana,.....	1,298	6,349	5,288	1,233
British American colonies,.....	373,149	357,073	387,947	401,805
Australia,.....	1,868	1,368		232
British African ports,.....	143	312	205	
France,.....	113,907	153,128	25,892	25,409
French West Indies,.....	13,757	25,612	5,303	1,255
French Guiana,.....	3,177	1,925		
Bourbon,.....				242
Hayti,.....	21,193	20,663	967	2,818
Spain,.....	35,447	8,166	2,792	2,419
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,.....	2,642	713	473	368
Manilla, and the Philippine islands,.....	3,570	809		
Cuba,.....	174,920	192,548	14,776	15,679
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	40,822	22,559	713	952
Portugal,.....	14,039	3,851	2,365	587
Madeira,.....	2,470	3,963		
Fayal, and the other Azores,.....	1,211	1,089		
Cape de Verd islands,.....	384	2,262		946
Italy,.....	8,363	8,071	1,436	2,602
Sicily,.....	17,622	1,006	4,578	3,176
Ionian islands,.....				
Greece,.....				
Trieste,.....	3,025	11,828	1,842	6,081
Turkey,.....	5,443	2,187	800	
Morocco,.....	145	121		
Texas,.....	36,152	41,177	961	530
Mexico,.....	14,733	13,348	3,709	3,025
Venezuela,.....	13,605	9,386	1,173	920
New Grenada,.....	1,622	1,000	732	882
Central America,.....	446	721		
Brazil,.....	32,588	34,189	5,578	1,764
Argentine Republic,.....				
Cisplatine Republic,.....	6,680	8,197	161	230
Chili,.....	4,862	7,414		
Peru,.....	1,137	667		
Republic of Ecuador,.....				
South America, generally,.....		262		
China,.....	14,771	3,360		
Europe, generally,.....		196		
Asia, generally,.....	3,462	2,787		
Africa, generally,.....	6,156	7,133	771	900
Arabia,.....			320	320
West Indies, generally,.....		17,103		1,769
South Seas,.....	43,184	48,429		
Sandwich Islands,.....				
Atlantic Ocean,.....	878	4,096		
Northwest Coast of America,.....	308	100		
Uncertain places,.....	147	175	90	
TOTAL,.....	1,576,946	1,647,009	712,363	706,486

The crews of the above tonnage are thus stated in the tables:—American tonnage entered the United States, in 1840, 1,576,946 tons; crews—men, 70,011; boys, 2,993. Cleared, 1,647,009 tons; men, 75,445; boys, 3,003. Foreign tonnage, entered, 712,363 tons; men, 40,980; boys, 746. Cleared, 706,486 tons; men, 40,886; boys, 412.

COMMERCE OF EACH STATE, 1840.

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, commencing on the 1st day of Oct. 1839, and ending on the 30th day of Sept. 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.						Total of domestic and foreign produce.
	In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN PRODUCE.			
				In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	Total.	
Maine.....	\$504,183	\$124,579	\$628,762	\$959,903	\$50,007	\$1,009,910	\$12	\$8,347	\$8,359	\$1,018,269
New Hampshire.....	67,411	47,236	114,647	19,676	1,085	20,761	218	218	20,979
Vermont.....	404,617	404,617	305,150	305,150	305,150
Massachusetts.....	15,813,560	700,298	16,513,858	5,504,441	763,717	6,268,158	3,727,287	190,816	3,918,103	10,186,261
Rhode Island.....	274,534	274,534	203,006	203,006	3,983	3,983	206,989
Connecticut.....	270,411	6,661	277,072	518,066	144	518,210	518,210
New York.....	52,501,265	7,939,485	60,440,750	17,329,071	5,347,538	22,676,609	7,628,088	3,959,383	11,587,471	34,264,080
New Jersey.....	1,680	17,529	19,209	14,883	14,883	1,193	1,193	16,076
Pennsylvania.....	7,835,007	629,875	8,464,882	5,282,456	454,000	5,736,456	999,129	84,560	1,083,689	6,820,145
Delaware.....	802	802	37,001	37,001	37,001
Maryland.....	4,357,884	552,862	4,910,746	4,098,139	1,396,881	5,495,020	213,596	60,152	273,748	5,768,768
District of Columbia.....	76,637	43,215	119,852	643,950	107,479	751,429	926	1,568	2,494	753,923
Virginia.....	481,634	63,451	545,085	4,518,632	251,305	4,769,937	8,105	178	8,283	4,778,220
North Carolina.....	236,169	16,363	252,532	343,981	43,503	387,484	387,484
South Carolina.....	1,635,432	423,438	2,058,870	7,750,546	2,230,470	9,981,016	41,149	14,604	55,753	10,036,769
Georgia.....	357,203	134,225	491,428	3,979,912	2,883,047	6,862,959	6,862,959
Alabama.....	402,211	172,440	574,651	10,483,694	2,371,000	12,854,694	12,854,694
Mississippi.....
Louisiana.....	7,274,309	3,398,881	10,673,190	27,182,807	5,815,252	32,998,059	959,807	279,070	1,238,877	34,236,936
Ohio.....	2,426	2,489	4,915	864,164	127,790	991,954	991,954
Kentucky.....	2,241	2,241
Tennessee.....	28,938	28,938
Michigan.....	137,225	1,385	138,610	162,229	162,229	162,229
Florida.....	126,775	63,953	190,728	1,829,191	21,518	1,850,709	7,866	275	8,141	1,858,850
Missouri.....	10,600	10,600
Total.....	92,802,352	14,339,167	107,141,519	92,030,898	21,864,736	113,895,634	13,591,359	4,598,953	18,190,312	132,085,946

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Commercial Statistics.

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TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.
A Statement, exhibiting a condensed view of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1840.

DISTRICTS.	TONS AND 95THS.		
	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage of each district.
Passamaquoddy, Maine,.....	3,259 18	8,912 54	12,171 72
Machias, do.....	895 29	10,951 93	11,847 27
Frenchman's Bay, do.....	2,250 90	18,113 40	20,365 35
Penobscot, do.....	6,124 37	31,006 13	37,130 50
Belfast, do.....	8,751 68	29,466 62	38,218 35
Waldoboro', do.....	13,006 13	39,988 78	52,997 29
Wiscasset, do.....	4,792 70	8,676 86	13,469 61
Bath, do.....	32,692 07	21,343 54	64,035 61
Portland, do.....	36,808 25	19,327 08	56,135 28
Saco, do.....	1,291 79	2,066 65	3,358 49
Kennebunk, do.....	3,422 08	3,710 85	7,132 93
York, do.....	1,200 16	1,200 16
Portsmouth, New Hampshire,.....	17,666 38	9,709 26	27,375 64
Newburyport, Massachusetts,.....	14,591 73	9,373 34	23,965 12
Ipswich, do.....	3,739 65	3,739 65
Gloucester, do.....	2,301 82	14,770 45	17,072 32
Salem, do.....	22,619 58	14,401 26	37,020 84
Marblehead, do.....	2,918 83	9,559 65	12,478 53
Boston, do.....	149,186 03	71,057 31	220,243 34
Plymouth, do.....	12,479 30	15,025 08	27,504 38
Fall River, do.....	1,583 75	7,232 15	8,815 90
New Bedford, do.....	45,708 33	43,381 03	89,089 36
Barnstable, do.....	3,617 91	52,938 46	56,556 42
Edgartown, do.....	5,114 50	3,016 04	8,130 54
Nantucket, do.....	23,730 61	8,185 09	31,915 70
Providence, Rhode Island,.....	11,062 46	5,547 91	16,610 42
Bristol, do.....	8,893 58	6,996 52	15,890 15
Newport, do.....	5,529 07	5,395 11	10,924 18
Middletown, Connecticut,.....	942 28	13,288 61	14,230 89
New London, do.....	17,809 38	27,012 83	44,822 26
New Haven, do.....	4,454 19	7,046 60	11,500 79
Fairfield, do.....	428 43	15,965 90	16,394 38
Vermont, Vermont,.....	4,342 30	4,342 30
Champlain, New York,.....	1,477 39	1,477 39
Sackett's Harbor, do.....	3,637 28	3,637 28
Oswego, do.....	8,346 58	8,346 58
Niagara, do.....	230 89	230 89
Genesee, do.....	471 24	471 24
Oswegatchie, do.....	999 35	999 35
Buffalo Creek, do.....	4,916 00	4,916 00
Sag Harbor, do.....	7,821 71	12,583 86	20,405 62
New York, do.....	203,536 68	211,281 36	414,817 44
Cape Vincent, do.....	116 82	116 82
Perth Amboy, New Jersey,.....	672 29	17,171 21	17,843 50
Bridgetown, do.....	14,171 93	14,171 93
Camden, do.....	8,201 28	8,201 28
Newark, do.....	774 53	5,912 51	6,687 09
Burlington, do.....	3,851 94	3,851 94
Little Egg Harbor, do.....	4,795 74	4,795 74
Great Egg Harbor, do.....	16,364 40	16,364 40
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania,.....	52,268 46	51,675 71	103,944 22
Presque isle, do.....	3,369 05	3,369 05
Pittsburg, do.....	12,000 00	12,000 00
Wilmington, Delaware,.....	644 34	15,466 34	16,110 68

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

DISTRICTS	TONS AND 95THS.		
	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage of each district.
New Castle, Delaware.....		3,661 02	3,661 02
Baltimore, Maryland.....	34,768 01	41,254 11	76,022 12
Oxford, do.....	97 87	13,828 16	13,926 08
Vienna, do.....	606 52	14,927 75	15,534 32
Snow Hill, do.....		7,640 73	7,640 73
Annapolis, do.....		4,519 49	4,519 49
St. Mary's, do.....		2,691 06	2,691 06
Georgetown, District of Columbia.....	2,189 52	7,775 11	9,964 63
Alexandria, do.....	7,691 60	6,779 15	14,470 75
Norfolk, Virginia.....	7,400 02	11,679 88	19,079 90
Petersburg, do.....	1,784 32	2,194 17	3,978 49
Richmond, do.....	3,515 13	3,396 24	6,911 37
Yorktown, do.....		1,512 68	1,512 68
East River, do.....		5,550 11	5,550 11
Tappahannock, do.....	634 56	3,957 32	4,591 88
Folly Landing, do.....	49 13	4,653 79	4,702 92
Yeocomico, do.....		3,387 82	3,387 82
Cherry Stone, do.....	122 56	1,852 18	1,974 74
Wheeling, do.....		2,460 40	2,460 40
Wilmington, North Carolina.....	10,960 41	7,272 48	18,232 89
Newbern, do.....	2,357 84	1,420 40	3,778 29
Washington, do.....	2,588 30	2,813 46	5,401 76
Edenton, do.....			
Camden, do.....	674 03	7,454 03	7,728 08
Beaufort, do.....	117 92	1,856 41	1,974 38
Plymouth, do.....	961 83	1,355 41	2,317 29
Ocracoke, do.....	1,503 42	1,618 23	3,121 65
Charleston, South Carolina.....	15,794 49	13,456 03	29,250 52
Georgetown, do.....	1,649 58	2,766 18	4,415 76
Beaufort, do.....			
Savannah, Georgia.....	10,521 80	7,408 53	17,930 38
Sunbury, do.....			
Brunswick, do.....	661 07	833 84	1,494 91
Hardwick, do.....			
St. Mary's, do.....	1,489 32	1,265 03	2,754 35
Cuyahoga, Ohio.....		9,514 55	9,514 55
Sandusky, do.....		2,643 06	2,643 06
Cincinnati, do.....		12,052 27	12,052 27
Miami, do.....		2,232 09	2,232 09
Nashville, Tennessee.....		4,733 36	4,733 36
Louisville, Kentucky.....		1,591 86	1,591 86
St. Louis, Missouri.....		11,259 00	11,259 00
Detroit, Michigan.....		11,432 39	11,432 39
Michilimackinac, do.....		470 04	470 04
Mobile, Alabama.....	8,696 78	8,546 89	17,243 72
Pearl River, do.....			
New Orleans, Louisiana.....	49,075 74	77,537 01	126,612 75
Teche, do.....			
Pensacola, Florida.....	929 88	1,992 09	2,922 02
St. Augustine, do.....			
Appalachicola, do.....	1,291 67	2,762 54	4,054 26
St. Mark's, do.....			
Key West, do.....	1,977 55	1,497 25	3,474 80
Total.....	899,764 76	1,280,999 35	2,180,764 16

A statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, in 1840.

STATES.	CLASS OF VESSELS.						TOTAL TON'GE.
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Brigs.</i>	<i>Sch'rs.</i>	<i>Sloops.</i>	<i>Steamboats.</i>	<i>T'ls v'ls b'lt.</i>	<i>Tons 95ths.</i>
Maine.....	50	56	75	181	38,936 89
New Hampshire.....	4	2	6	2,721 87
Massachusetts.....	25	11	76	1	113	17,811 50
Rhode Island.....	2	2	1	1	6	1,589 19
Connecticut.....	6	16	27	49	4,130 08
New York.....	6	13	21	24	8	72	13,786 05
New Jersey.....	3	32	73	1	109	6,791 92
Pennsylvania.....	6	6	12	78	1	103	8,135 73
Delaware.....	5	3	1	9	757 58
Maryland.....	3	10	96	1	1	111	11,736 53
District of Columbia.	1	1	2	430 57
Virginia.....	8	3	1	12	925 11
North Carolina.....	1	20	3	24	1,295 65
South Carolina.....	1	1	2	306 03
Georgia.....	2	2	253 90
Ohio.....	5	3	25	33	4,021 66
Tennessee.....	1	1	381 55
Kentucky.....	5	5	1,090 53
Missouri.....	8	8	1,210 00
Alabama.....	2	2	148 49
Louisiana.....	5	2	5	12	1,196 87
Michigan.....	3	1	3	7	585 36
Florida.....	1	1	2	65 57
Total.....	97	109	378	224	63	871	118,309 23

A comparative view of the registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage of the United States from 1815 to 1840, inclusive.

YEARS.	TONS AND 95THS.		
	<i>Registered tonnage.</i>	<i>Enrolled & licensed.</i>	<i>Total tonnage.</i>
1815.....	854,294 74	513,833 04	1,368,127 78
1816.....	800,759 63	571,458 85	1,372,218 53
1817.....	809,724 70	590,186 66	1,399,911 41
1818.....	606,088 64	619,095 51	1,225,184 20
1819.....	612,930 44	647,821 17	1,260,751 61
1820.....	619,047 53	661,118 66	1,280,166 24
1821.....	619,896 40	679,062 30	1,298,958 70
1822.....	628,150 41	696,548 71	1,324,699 17
1823.....	639,920 76	696,644 87	1,336,565 68
1824.....	669,972 60	719,190 37	1,389,163 02
1825.....	700,787 08	722,323 69	1,423,110 77
1826.....	737,978 15	796,211 68	1,534,190 83
1827.....	747,170 44	873,437 34	1,620,607 78
1828.....	812,619 37	928,772 50	1,741,391 87
1829.....	650,142 88	610,654 88	1,260,797 81
1830.....	576,475 33	615,301 10	1,191,776 43
1831.....	620,451 92	647,394 32	1,267,846 29
1832.....	686,989 77	752,460 39	1,439,450 21
1833.....	750,026 72	856,123 22	1,606,149 94
1834.....	857,438 42	901,468 67	1,758,907 14
1835.....	885,821 60	939,118 49	1,824,940 14
1836.....	897,774 51	984,328 14	1,882,102 65
1837.....	810,447 29	1,086,238 40	1,896,685 69
1838.....	822,591 86	1,173,047 89	1,995,639 80
1839.....	834,244 54	1,262,234 27	2,096,478 81
1840.....	899,764 76	1,280,999 35	2,180,764 16

COMMERCIAL TIME-TABLE.

The subjoined calculations of time, (says the Savannah Georgian,) were made by an eminent practical accountant. We have seen several other tables, intended to expedite the business of the counting-house, but prefer the present form, because it combines conciseness and accuracy with simplicity of arrangement. Commercial gentlemen will find, at a glance, that it is admirably suited to facilitate the equation of payments, finding dates for casting interest, &c.

TIME-TABLE,

Showing the number of days from any day in one month to the same day in another month.

To ☞	Jan.	Feb.	Mar	Ap'l	May	Ju'e.	July	Aug	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
From January,.....	365	31	59	90	120	151	181	212	243	273	304	334
February,.....	334	365	28	59	89	120	150	181	212	242	273	303
March,.....	306	337	365	31	61	92	122	153	184	214	245	275
April,.....	275	306	334	365	30	61	91	122	153	183	214	244
May,.....	245	276	304	335	365	31	61	92	123	153	184	214
June,.....	214	245	273	304	334	365	30	61	92	122	153	183
July,.....	184	215	243	274	304	335	365	31	62	92	123	153
August,.....	153	184	212	243	273	304	334	365	31	61	92	122
September,.....	122	153	181	212	242	273	303	334	365	30	61	91
October,.....	92	123	151	182	212	243	273	304	335	365	31	61
November,.....	61	92	120	151	181	212	242	273	304	334	365	30
December,.....	31	62	90	121	151	182	212	243	274	304	335	365

EXPLANATION.—The months counted *from*, are arranged in the left hand vertical column—those counted *to*, are in the upper horizontal line,—the days between those periods are found in the angle of intersection, in the same way as in a common multiplication table. If the end of February be included *between* the two points of time, a day must be added *in leap years*.

Suppose it were required to know the number of days from the 4th of March to the 15th of August? In the horizontal line, marked March, and in the column under August, we find 153, which is the number of days from the 4th of March, (or any other day of March,) to the 4th (or same) day of August; but as we want the time to the 15th of August, 11 days (the difference between 4 and 15) must be *added* to 153, which shows that 164 is the number of days between the 4th of March and 15th of August.

Again, were the number of days required between the 10th of October and the 3d of June in the following year—opposite to October and under June, we find 243, which is the number of days from the 10th of October to the 10th of June; but as we sought the time to the 3d only, (which is 7 days earlier,) we must *deduct* 7 from 243, leaving 236, the number of days required: and so of others.—See *Foster's Commercial Summary for Merchants, Bankers, &c.*

INDIA SUGAR AND RUM.

The following is a comparative statement of the quantity of sugar and rum shipped from Calcutta in each of the four years, ending the 30th November last, viz :

	Maunds of Sugar.	Gallons of Rum.
1837.....	585,114	78,291
1838.....	643,770	139,364
1839.....	740,946	244,576
1840.....	1,409,773	951,519

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE TARIFF OF 1841.

By the Act of September 11, 1841, recently published, all articles of import which have been heretofore free of duty, or subject to less rates of duty than 20 per cent. ad valorem, are from and after the first day of October instant, subjected to a uniform rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem, with the exception of a long list of articles enumerated in the act, which continue to be free, or subject to the duties previously imposed. These articles are more specifically enumerated in the alphabetical list given below, as prepared at the custom house in Boston, and originally published in the Atlas of that city.

All articles not here enumerated, if by previous laws subject to higher duties than 20 per cent. ad valorem, continue to pay the same rates, until reduced by the operations of the act of 1833. French wines, however, until the second day of February next, will be charged with duty at the rates of 6 cents a gallon for red in casks, 10 cents for white in casks, and 22 cents a gallon for all French wines in bottles. Railroad iron is charged with duty at the rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem, with the exception of such as shall be imported under the act of July 14, 1832, prior to March 3, 1843, for any incorporated company whose railroad is already commenced, and which shall be necessary to complete the same.

ARTICLES PAYING A DUTY OF LESS THAN 20 PER CENT. AD VALOREM, CONTINUED AT THEIR PRESENT RATES.

Indigo, 15 per cent. duty; acid, muriatic, 12½ per cent.; acid, sulphuric, or oil of vitriol, 3 cents per lb.; acid, tartaric, 15 per cent.; alum, \$2 50 per cwt.; aquafortis, 12½ per cent.; blue vitriol, 4 cents per lb.; calomel, 15 per cent.; carbonate of soda, 15 per cent.; corrosive sublimate, 15 per cent.; combs, 15 per cent.; copperas, \$2 per cwt.; lead, nitrate of, 12½ per cent.; lead, red, ground in oil or dry, 5 cents per lb.; lead, white, ground in oil or dry, 5 cents per lb.; lead, sugar of, 5 cents per lb.; manganese, 15 per cent.; magnesia, sulphate of, 15 per cent.; potash, bichromate of, 12½ per cent.; potash, chromate of, 12½ per cent.; potash, prussiate of, 12½ per cent.; salts, glauber, 2 cents per lb.; salts, rochelle, 15 per cent.; sulphate of quinine, 15 per cent.; sublimate, corrosive, 15 per cent.; saltpetre, refined, 3 cents per lb.

ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY.

Alba canella; alcornoque; aloes; amber; ambergris; anatomical preparations; animals imported for breed; aniseeed; do., oil of; annatto; antimony; crude, do.; regulus of; antiquities, all collections of, especially imported by order and for the use of any society incorporated for philosophical or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or by order and for the use of any seminary of learning, school, or college; apparel, wearing, and other personal baggage in actual use; Arabic gum; argol; arrow root; articles, all, imported for the use of the United States; assafœtida; ava root.

Baggage, personal, in actual use; balsam, tolu; bamboos, in an unmanufactured state; barilla; bark of the cork tree, unmanufactured; bark, Peruvian; bars, brass in; bars, copper in; bars, tin in; beans, vanilla; berries, juniper; berries, used in dyeing; bohea tea (see teas); bole, Armenian; books, specially imported; bars, brass, old, fit only to be manufactured; Brazil wood; Braziletto; breed, animals imported for; brimstone or sulphur; bristles; bullion; Burgundy pitch; burr stones, unwrought; busts of marble, bronze or plaster and alabaster; do. or plaster of Paris, specially imported.

Cabinets of coin, specially imported, &c.; calaminaris lapis; camwood, cancia alba; cantharides; cascarilla; castanas; casts, specially imported; catsup; chalk; camomile flowers; charts, specially imported, &c.; clay, unwrought; cloth rags of any kind; cochineal; coculus indicus; colombo root; collections of antiquities, specially imported, &c.; coins, cabinets of, specially imported, &c.; coin, gold; coin, silver; copper, imported in any shape, for the use of the mint; copper in pigs and bars; copper in plates and sheets, or plates of which copper is the material of chief value, suited for the sheathing of vessels; copper, old, fit only to be remanufactured; coriander seed; cork tree, bark of, unmanufactured; cream of tartar; crude antimony; crude saltpetre; crude tartar; cummin seed.

Drawings and paintings, specially imported; dyeing, all vegetables and articles used

principally for and in composing dyes, and all other dyeing drugs, and materials for composing dyes, except alum, copperas, blue vitriol, bichromate of potash, prussiate of potash, nitrate of lead, aquafortis, tartaric acids, manganese, muriatic or sulphuric acids, the duties on which being retained, the articles will be found under their appropriate heads in the tables of ad valorem and specific duties; dye woods.

Elephant's teeth, and other animals; emery; engravings, specially imported; epaulets, of gold and silver, and wings; etchings, specially imported.

Flax, unmanufactured; flaxseed; flints and ground flints; flowers, camomile; foil, tin; furs of all kinds, undressed; fustic.

Gamboge; gems, specially imported; gold coin; gold, epaulets of; gum Arabic; gum senegal; gypsum, or plaster of Paris.

Harlem oil; hair pencils; hair unmanufactured; hartshorn; hemlock; henbane; hides, raw; horns, ox and other; horn, plates for; horns, other than tips; hyson tea.

Imperial tea; implements and tools of trade, of persons arriving in the United States; India rubber; indicus oculus; instruments, philosophical, specially imported, &c.; inventions, models of; ipecacuanha; iris or orris root; ivory unmanufactured.

Juniper berries; juniper, oil of.

Kelp; kermes.

Lastings; lac dye; horn, plates for; lapis calaminaris; linseed; logwood.

Machinery, models of; madder; madder root; manna; maps, specially imported, &c.; marrow and soap stuffs, and soap stocks; models, specially imported; mineralogy, specimens in; mint, copper in any shape imported for the use of; modellings, specially imported; models of inventions; modellings of machinery; mother of pearl; mohair; musk.

Natural history, specimens in; needles; Nicaragua wood; nuts and berries used in dyeing; nux vomica.

Oil of almonds; oil of aniseed; oil of harlem; oil of juniper; old brass, fit only to be remanufactured; old copper, do. do. do.; old pewter, do. do. do.; opium; oil of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of said fisheries; orris, or iris root; ox horns.

Palm oil; palm leaf; paintings, work of American artists abroad; paintings, specially imported; pastil, or wood; pearl, mother of; pencils, hair; personal baggage in actual use; persons arriving in the United States, tools or implements of trade of; Peruvian bark; pewter, old, fit only to be remanufactured; philosophical apparatus, specially imported, &c.; pigs, brass in; pigs, copper in; pitch, Burgundy; plants; plaster of Paris; plates or sheets, tin in; plates, horn, for lanterns; platina; preparations, anatomical; prunella, used for making buttons and shoes.

Quicksilver.

Rags of any kind of cloth; ratans, unmanufactured; raw skins, and undressed; red wood; reeds, unmanufactured; regulus of antimony; rhubarb; root, arrow; root, ava; root, colombo; root madder; root, orris, or iris; rotten stone; rubber, India.

Saffron; sage; saltpetre, crude; sandal wood, imported in a powerful state, in which it is used exclusively in dyeing; sarsaparilla; sculpture, specimens of, specially imported, &c.; seed, coriander; seed, cummin; seed, anise; senegal gum; senna; sheathing copper, suited for sheathing vessels; sheets, brass in; sheets, copper in; sheets, tin in; shellac; shells, tortoise; silver coin; silver, epaulets of; skins, raw; smaltz; soda ash; sou-chong tea (see tea); specimens in mineralogy; specimens in natural history; spelter; sponges; statues, specially imported, &c.; statuary, works of American artists abroad; statuary, specially imported; stone, polishing and rotten; stones, burr, unwrought; sulphur of brimstone; sumac.

Tapioca; tartar, cream of; do., crude; tamarinds; teas of all kinds, imported from China or other places; teeth, of elephants and of other animals; teutenegue; tin, in plates, sheets, pigs, or bars; tinfoil; tips; tolu, balsam; tools of trade of persons arriving in the United States; tortoise shell; trees; turmeric; turtle shell.

Undressed furs; United States, all articles imported for the use of; unmanufactured bark of the cork tree; do. flax; do. hair; do. ivory; do. ratans; reeds; unwrought burr stones; unwrought clay.

Valonia, or velania, or dye stuff; vanilla beans; vegetables, such as are used principally in dyeing and composing dyes; vomica nux.

Wearing apparel, and other personal baggage in actual use; woad, or pastel; woods, for dyeing, of all kinds; wood, Brazil; wood, log; wood, Nicaragua; wood, red; wood, sandal, in a powerful state, in which it is used exclusively in dyeing; wool, unmanufactured, the value whereof at the place of exportation shall not exceed 8 cents per lb., shall be imported free of duty; and if any wool, so imported, shall be fine wool, mixed with

dirt, or other material, and thus reduced in value to 8 cents per lb., or under, the appraisers shall appraise said wool at such price as in their opinion it would have cost had it not been so mixed, and a duty thereon shall be charged in conformity with such appraisal; and provided, that where wool of different qualities is imported, in the same package, and any part thereof is worth more than 8 cents a pound, valued as aforesaid, that part shall pay a duty of 20 per cent.

Zinc.

SILVER CURRENCY OF CUBA.

The Prince of Anglona, late governor-general, by an edict of February 18, 1840, ordered that the pesetas called Isabelline pesetas, should circulate at five for a dollar, instead of four, as before, and sueltas at one and a half reals. This disposition was approved by the home government, but it made no provision for the indemnification of the holders of the money.

The present governor, by the new edict, makes a similar change in the Sevillian pesetas, which, after the 4th of October, were to circulate at the rate of five for a dollar, instead of four, as heretofore, and the sueltas at ten for a dollar. The government, however, will make good the loss to holders, for which purpose a duty of one half per cent is to be laid on all imports and exports.

The silver currency of Havana will therefore consist henceforth of—

The <i>real de vellon</i> , or half real, of provincial coinage, worth	5 cents.
The half real with pillars (four-pence-half-penny).....	6 1/2 "
The <i>real nominal</i> , or provincial real	10 "
The pillared real, or the corresponding coinage of the Spanish American states, (ninepence).....	12 1/2 "
The Sevillian <i>peseta</i> (pistareen).....	20 "
The pillared peseta, or corresponding coin of Spanish America (quarter dollar)	25 "

This document announces that, in order to facilitate business transactions, a copper coinage will soon be introduced.

REGULATIONS FOR THE COMMERCE OF YUCATAN.

The ports licensed for foreign trade are Campeachy and Sisal. Vessels arriving from foreign ports pay a tonnage duty of \$1 50 per ton, of measurement according to their register. On the arrival of a vessel, the captain shall not land, or receive any one on board, until he has been visited by the health officer, and customhouse officer, to the latter of whom he shall show his manifests. If he is not visited in twenty-four hours after coming to anchor, he may land, bringing all his papers with him for inspection. Foreign vessels will be required to present triplicate manifests, containing the name of the vessel, its commander, its tonnage, names of crew, port whence she sailed, and day of departure; the number of bales, boxes, packages, and parcels, with the names of consignees, and general statement of contents; the day and hour of delivery of the manifests, endorsed by the officer, who shall forthwith proceed to seal the hatches. With the manifests he shall also present his clearance from the port whence he sailed. The captain shall also give in a list of all the trunks and packages of baggage of his passengers.

FAIRBANK'S PLATFORM SCALES.

We would call the attention of our merchants to this excellent article, advertised in the sheet appended to the present number of this magazine. An instrument of such known accuracy for weighing is an invaluable acquisition to every correct dealer.