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ART. I.—THE COMMERCE OF SYRIA.

SYRIA, the central country of the old world, is the earliest on record where manufactures and commerce flourished. The most ancient of histories and historical poems, those of Moses and of Homer, can carry us back to no time when Syria was not occupied by well-built, strong, industrious manufacturing and trading towns, with civilized inhabitants, enjoying more or less of personal freedom, under petty kings, and cultivating a greater or less portion of the territory in their immediate environs. The obscure tradition of the Jews that the ark of Noah was built at Joppa, a Syrian port, shows how early they supposed navigation to have flourished in this land; and we have no account of any sea-trade earlier than that of Zidon, another Syrian port, called by Moses 'a haven of ships,' and by Homer, a city 'of many arts,' and described as a trafficker with Greece, not yet emerged from barbarism, in such small wares and trinkets as we now send to the aborigines of our northwest coast, and the savages of Africa.

The fact of its having been the earliest historical seat of art, of trade, and of navigation, should interest a commercial people, like ourselves, in the mercantile condition of Syria, as also the prospect that the India trade with Europe, an object of the emulous contention of nations in all ages, may resume its long-forsaken Syrian channels; an event rendered probable by the recent successful navigation of the Euphrates by steam. The partial resuscitation, also, of the resources of Syria, under the energetic administration of Mahomet Ali's vicegerent, Ibrahim, has given immediate interest to the subject; while Dr. John Bowring's report on the commercial statistics of the country, in 1839, has pointed out those resources to occidental enterprise. From this report most of our statements are derived.

The late reversion of Syria into the imbecile hands of the Porte, while throwing it more entirely into the power of England, may also lull it again into the sleep of ages, to be waked, as heretofore, only by war or outrageous tyranny, to the display of those fitful energies which but plunge it deeper into the lethargy wherein the once vigorous and commanding East has so long and so hopelessly been sunk. The purpose may be, by reset-

ting the Jews in their ancient heritage, as a radiating nucleus of the highest order of civilization, to revive the agricultural, mechanical, and commercial industry of the country, and thus, by restoring the glories of the Solomonic age, cause Syria to hold once more, as it then did, the balance of the old world—or, to accomplish the far paltrier purposes of a more safe transit of despatches between Calcutta and London, and a temporary outlet for the over-production of the starving looms of England, instead of securing a permanent market among the teeming and thrifty population of a grateful and powerful ally. But the nations cannot forget the former baneful effects of British power in Syria, when, by checking the conquests of Napoleon here, it retarded for many generations the civilization of west Asia, so long and so ardently desired by the merchant, the philanthropist, and the Christian. Nor have recent events tended to increase the confidence of mankind in the liberality, magnanimity, or even true and far-sighted self-wisdom of the British foreign policy; so that our hopes for Syria from that quarter may well be small. Nevertheless, as will be seen, American commerce has yet some interests worth looking after on the Syrian coast.

THE LAND AND PEOPLE.

Including from mount Taurus to Stony Arabia, and from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, Syria has a singularly diversified territory, somewhat less than that of the state of Illinois. The best authorities, indeed, give to Syria 50,000 square miles, though the uncertain boundary line, along the edge of the Syrian desert, from the Euphrates to the southern end of the Dead Sea, renders all estimates precarious. Some, too, include, while others exclude, the important district of Adana, on the northwest corner. This delightful country, which the worst misgovernment for so many ages has not been able to destroy, has a soil, wherever it appears, still fat and fertile. Once the garden of the earth, it sustained, as far back as the time when the Hebrew king ruled over its whole extent, more than nine millions of human beings; and it is even yet capable of supporting twelve to fifteen millions, though bad government and war have reduced its population to one tenth of this number, so that now the best estimates make it to nourish but one and a half, or one and a quarter million of inhabitants.

Mountains towering, in some instances, to the height of ten thousand feet, temper and vary the climate, and with their terraced sides, and the deep valleys and sultry plains at their foot, offer, within the compass of a few miles, the productions of every clime;—for Syria will produce the sugar cane, cotton, banana, and palm-tree of the tropics, as well as the vine, fig, olive, pomegranate, peach, apple, and cereal grains of its own more temperate latitudes. But in consequence of the hard terms on which government leases the open plains as its property, its arbitrary impressment of laborers and soldiers, and the consequent want of cultivators and operators, and the uncertainty, through wars and exactions, of reaping the results of any improvements or investments, the acknowledged resources of the country are undeveloped, new enterprises are unheard of, and a great portion of the soil, even of the richest plains, lies untilled and unproductive. On the north, east, and south, are some of the finest grazing districts in the world, and a population admirably calculated for pastoral employments; while the pleasant swelling hills support the vine and a

variety of fruit trees, and the plains of the interior produce abundant crops of wheat, millet, sesamum, barley, tobacco, and a profusion of delicious vegetables. This productive tongue of land, too, is admirably placed, as it were, between two broad seas, the 'watery waste' of the Mediterranean on the one hand, and the no less unproductive ocean of sand on the other; and the shores, so to speak, of both have had, like all populous shores, and still have, numerous rich seaports, wherein the traffic of the eastern and western world has been, and still is in part, transacted.

Though a subject of oppressive despotism, the versatile Syrian is, as he has been from time immemorial, an intelligent manufacturer, an enterprising merchant, fond of all kinds of trade, an ingenious artist, docile and fertile in expedients, a ready sailor, and an eager lover of all the magnificence commerce encourages, and all the luxuries it brings in its train. Could a stable and just government be assured to the country, it would very soon accumulate an abundance of valuable products, as well as capital, to pay for large importations which it would seek with avidity from abroad. The idea that indolence and shiftlessness are inseparable from the Syrian climate, is incorrect; the contrary is evident both from the past history of its Canaanitish, Jewish, Greek, Arab, and Christian population, and from the fact that energy and activity now prevail wherever the reward of exertion is assured, notwithstanding the habits engendered by long ages of discouragement to enterprise in every direction. With all his burdens on his back, the laborer even now is as comfortable, and of far better and nobler personal appearance than the cramped and poisoned victims of the loom and the furnace in "merry England." The peasantry are healthy, well-formed, and good-looking, especially the women; and the children manifest an aptness, sprightliness, intelligence, tact, and versatility of the highest promise, and beyond that of the same age in the darker and heavier atmosphere of colder climates.

The Moslem and non-Christian population forms about three fourths of the whole, but the Christian portion is the most intelligent and enterprising, though its influence and progress is very much hindered by the inveterate hatred of its warring sects—preventing coöperation and a healthy public opinion, besides giving rise to antagonist manœuvres which must necessarily paralyze all parties. Since the perfect tolerance, and indiscriminating, impartial treatment of all religions by the government of Ibrahim, the Christian population has gained much influence; while the ignorant pride of the Turk and the Moslem has received many wholesome lessons as to European superiority, which his self-conceit had for ages refused to acknowledge. European influence being now nearly paramount, Christian enterprise of all kinds will have a freer field than ever. Indeed, about all the enterprise of the country is shared between the Christians, Jews, and Armenians.

In consequence of the inexactness characteristic of the orientals, especially of the Turks, most of their statistics are but more or less probable estimates, from data more or less distinct and accurate. The following are the estimates of the amount and distribution of the Syrian population, according to the British consul-general, Col. Campbell,—viz. Moslems 977 to 997,000; Ansairiyeh (Nusairiyeh Bedawin) 22,000; Metawileh and Yrzidis, 17,000; Druzes, 48,000; Romanists and Maronites, 260,000; Christians of the Greek rite, 345,000; Jews, 175,000; total, 1,864,000, or 1,844,000. According to the American missionary, Rev. Mr. Thomp-

son, the Moslems, including the wandering tribes, are 565,000; the Antioch or Orthodox Greeks, 240,000; Maronite Papists, say 180,000—possibly, 200,000; Druzes, 100,000; Jews, 30,000, [probably in Palestine, alone;] Metawileh, 25,000; Ansairiyeh and Ismaeliyeh, 200,000; Armenians and other sects, 20,000; total, excluding the Adana district, 1,400,000.

The condition of the laboring classes is supposed to be, compared with those of England, easy and good. They feed on mutton (at 3 piastres per oke, or about $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound) several times a week, bread daily, sometimes rice pillans, and always pillans of bulgur (i. e. wheat husked and bruised, or half ground, after being moistened or dried;) these pillans are made either with butter, olive or sesam oil; leben, (yaghoort or ricotto or sweet curds,) cheese, eggs, olives, various dried fruits, and an abundance of vegetables, beet-roots, turnips, and radishes preserved in brine or vinegar, and cucumbers and capsicums in vinegar, for winter use. Their clothing is not very coarse; the fine climate permits them to wear light cotton and other similar apparel, and in the short winter they are generally well covered. Their lodging is good; generally each family has a separate house, or a set of rooms in the paternal house; in the towns and villages, a house. The prices of lodging vary according to locality; lodging generally in Syria, for all classes, is cheap comparatively with most other countries. The working classes rarely lay by enough to enable them to pass the decline of life without laboring; and it is alien to the ideas of the population generally, to trust to any thing beyond the aid of Providence for the future. Field-labor is paid, near Beirut, 25 to 33 cents (5 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ piastres) per day; artisans, masons, and carpenters get 14 to 15 piastres (70 to 75 cents.) The annual cost to a laborer for clothing is 15 to 20 dollars; for food, 35 to 40; lodging, in town, 10 to 20; and in the country, 5 to 10 dollars. The habitation generally consists of two rooms. Laborers at Aleppo and Damascus get 25 to 35 cents a day; a man servant, feeding himself, 3 to 5 dollars a month; shoemakers, 45 to 50 cents per day; blacksmiths and stonecutters, 50 to 60; carpenters 45 to 60; masons, 40 to 60. The low degree of civilization the Syrian has attained may be judged of by the fact that "all productive labor, all usefully employed capital, is regarded as belonging to something mean and secondary."

Mercantile probity is at rather a low ebb, as might be expected where business fluctuations are so common, and where alternate rapacity and imbecility have so long been the habits of government. The consequent precarious tenure of property must give rise to a thousand tricks and subterfuges. From the lack of credit, however, large gambling operations are not common, but the frauds are mostly of the petty kind. Justice is paid for, not as with us, by fees, but by bribes from both parties. Under the rule of Ibrahim Pacha, however, a set of courts was engrafted upon the Ottoman system, whose decisions were very satisfactory; and as they have been so beneficial, they may have been retained by the Porte since it regained Syria, and still be the law of the land.

CURRENCY, ETC.—REVENUE—EXPENDITURE.

Accounts are kept in piastres, whose value Mahomet Ali fixes at 20 to the dollar; and their current value is the same, say five to the English shilling sterling: he is also aiming to reduce all the other coins of the country, which are numerous, to a permanent value based on their real weight and

quality. By this standard the *gold coins* are worth as follows:—*Fundukli*, date of 1143 and 1171, 45 piastres; of 1187 and 1203, 37 p.; of 1223, 36 p.;— $\frac{1}{4}$ Fundukli, or *Rubia*, of 1223, 9 p.;—*Stambouli*, or Constantinople, of date from 1143 to 1147 inclusive, 32 p.; of date from and after 1148, 28 p.; from 1171 till 1194, $31\frac{1}{2}$ p.; from 1195 to 1203, $27\frac{1}{2}$ p.; of date 1223, $26\frac{1}{2}$ p.;—*Full Mahmoudia*, up to 14th year of coinage, 65 p.; and *Half Mahmoudia* $32\frac{1}{2}$ p.; and *Quarter Mahmoudia*, $16\frac{1}{4}$ p.;—*Adli*, of 1223, from 1st to 17th year, 18 p.; and from and after the 18th year, 16 p.;—*Old Gazi*, 1st to 17th year, from 1223, $21\frac{3}{8}$ p.;—*New Gazi*, or Mamduchi, 20 p.;—*Cairini*, all coined in Egypt, of 1143, 1st to 5th year, 32 p.; 6th year and after, 28 p.; of 1171, 26 p.; of 1187 to 1223, 24 p.;—*Old and New Kairich*, also coined in Egypt, $9\frac{1}{4}$ p.;—*New money of Egypt*, size of an English sovereign, 20 carats fine, $102\frac{1}{2}$ piastres.

By this standard the *Silver Coins* are actually worth as follows:—the *Real Sham*, coined by Sultan Mustafa, $10\frac{1}{2}$ p.; by Abdoolhamid, $10\frac{1}{2}$ p.; the *Juzluk*, $12\frac{1}{4}$ p.; *Ikilik*, 10 p.; *Beshlik*, 16 p.; *Abou Turrah* and *Mis Beshlik*, and *New Beshlik*, 5 p.; *Nakishli*, 3 piastres.

The value of moneys, according to Mahomet Ali's firman, proclaimed at Damascus, on the 18th of April, 1838, is—

		Piastres. Paras.			Piastres. Paras.
Old Gahadi	60	23	White Rubia Zarifa	3	3
New Gahadi	50	33	Red Rubia Zarifa	2	28
Old Fundukli	43	10	Old Gazi	20	5
Old Selimi Fundukli	36	12	Mamduchi or New Gazi	17	10
New Fundukli of 4 Tubi	34	9	Old Jussefi	174	4
Selimi from Constanti- nople	25	13	New Jussefi	173	11
Old Mahbub of Egypt } Mastafanè }	24	1	Old Beshlik	16	22
Egyptian Mahbub, } old Mahmoudi }	20	24	Juzluk	11	23
Old Adli	17	16	Beshlik, with crescent } of 5 }	2	24
New Adli	15	28	Altimishlik	3	1
			Iklik	9	39

At these rates coins are ordered to be received and paid as legal tenders.

Besides these, there are gold coins of different value:—three struck by Mahmoud, Sultan, viz. the Old Double Gazi, 40 piastres; Half New Gazi, 10 p.; Quarter New Gazi, 5 p.—Four struck by Mahomet Ali, viz. Egyptian gold coin, 20 p.; half gold coin, 10 p.; quarter gold coin, 5 p.; small gold coin, Roubia, 4 p.; small gold coin, Roubia, 3 piastres.

The *commercial usages* in Syria, as to the purchases and sales of goods, are for the most part as in European commercial places. Purchases and sales are effected between merchants, through brokers, either for cash or on credit. The credits are usually of two, three, and four months, but the accounts are never balanced before double the expiration of the time granted; the debts are discharged by weekly protracted payments. The brokers are of two classes; those authorized by government, for public sales, and those who transact private business. Most purchases for export are paid for in ready money. Nowhere is there a regular exchange open with Europe; nearly the whole returns to England are in specie. In questions between a European and a native on a matter of for-

eign trade, the French Code de Commerce is usually referred to as the best authority. In commercial transactions between nations, the decision rests wholly with the Divan.

Weights and measures, &c.—A miskal of gold, of 24 carats, is worth 13 shillings in England, and weighs $1\frac{1}{2}$ drams of 24 carats.—100 drams of silver pure, is worth, in England, £2 16s.—A kintal of England, of 112 lbs., weighs, in Syria, $41\frac{1}{2}$ okes.—100 English yards are 130 pikes, country measure.

The *Oke*—400 drams— $2\frac{4}{5}$ lbs. English, or 40 okes—1 cwt.; and 800 okes—1 ton.—640 okes—252 galls. liquid measure.—The *Rottolo*—720 drams—5 lbs. English.—100 *Habbies* of Yafa—39 quarters.— $\frac{1}{2}$ *Pikes*—1 yard.—The Syrian *Cantar* is 180 okes of Constantinople—504 lbs. English.

Exchange on London, in 1840, was 100 piastres to the pound sterling; on France, 4 piastres to the franc.

Revenue, &c.—In 1839 the revenue was about 83,500,000 piastres, say \$4,175,000; while the expenditure exceeded this sum by 50,000,000 piastres, say \$2,500,000; of which the army (14 regiments of infantry, 10 of cavalry, 48,000 regulars, 12,000 irregulars) cost \$5,566,000, and the civil list \$372,650. Besides this there are very considerable expenses of barracks, hospitals, fortifications, &c., which carry up the expenditure to 130,000,000 piastres.

Taking the revenue at £696,000 in 1836, the Aleppo district paid £152,000; that of Damascus, £210,000; of Tripoli, £78,000; of Yafa, 104,000; of Saida, 114,000; of Adana, 38,000; while Mt. Lebanon paid in all 58,750, of which about 27,000 went to its own Emir Beshir.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION, MARTS, ETC.

The commerce of Syria, internal, external, and of transit, would be vastly benefited and increased could a good road connect the chief sea-ports, Scanderoon and (Beirut, or) Beyroot, with the chief interior entrepôts, Aleppo and Damascus, and both these latter with the Euphrates and with each other. Army wagons and artillery were passed by Ibrahim between Aleppo and Scanderoon by way of experiment. But the usual conveyance is by camels, mules, and horses. The chief caravan routes are from Egypt, through Gaza and Nabalus to Damascus; from Damascus south, through Hawran, east of the Jordan, and along the edge of the desert and of the Red Sea to Mecca; and from Damascus and Aleppo, east, to Anna or Hit, on the Euphrates, and so to Bagdad.

The roads are bad, especially in the rainy season, and are seldom or never repaired; of course wheel-carriages cannot be employed. Mules or camels are hired at 60 to 75 cents a day, and their ultimate cost is the same, as the heavier load of the camel makes up for the quicker pace of the mule. The English houses in Syria say, that if facilities were given to communication, a very wide field would be opened to commercial enterprise.

From Damascus, carriage costs, per 500 lbs., to Beirut, four to five Spanish dollars; through Homs and Hamah, to Aleppo, $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 dollars; to Bagdad, $17\frac{1}{2}$ to 20 dollars, and much less were the route secured against the Bedawin.

The expense of carriage is enormous on heavy and cheap goods; and if the Euphrates steam navigation succeeds, the facility, security, and

economy of the trade with Mosul, Bagdad, and Persia, through these places, would be much and speedily increased. The journey to and from Scanderoon is by camels 7 to 8, and by mules 5 to 6, in winter; and 5 to 9 with camels, and 4 to 5 with mules, in summer; the caravans, and those to Latakia, vary from 10 to 100 mules or camels. There are muleteers who are continually employed on these two roads, and always abundance of opportunities of transport; but during Ibrahim's government, when, as often happened, mules, muleteers, camels, and camel-drivers were impressed for government service, disastrous interruption of conveyance was experienced. The quarantines also, internal and external, were a useless and enormous nuisance. Whether these two hindrances to trade will be abated by the Porte, or succeeded by worse, now Syria has reverted to the sultan, remains to be seen. The communication with Mosul, Diarbekir, Bagdad, &c., is not so frequent, but is carried on in the same manner, with this exception, that the caravans are generally accompanied by the merchants who load them.

The communication of Aleppo with Europe is by posts sent to Beirut to meet the steamer from England, once a month, and by Tartars to Constantinople about once every six weeks; but there is no regularity in their time of starting. The post goes to Constantinople in 7 days in winter, and in 5 days in summer; the postage is about 4d. sterling for a single letter. The Tartar goes to Constantinople in 12 days, in good weather, and in bad weather he is frequently 20 days on his journey; the postage by him for a single letter is about 9d. He carries money at the rate of one half per cent for gold, and one third for silver. There are two opportunities per month, by horse post, for the conveyance of money to Beirut—one is in the hands of the British merchants, and its rates of carriage are three eighths per cent for gold, and one eighth for silver.

Imposts.—Goods from Aleppo to Mosul pay a transit duty of five dollars per mule or camel load, at Bir, when they cross the Euphrates, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on the invoice, at Mosul; but copper, iron, lead, soap, pepper, and pimento pay but two dollars and a half at Bir, and five dollars at Mosul, per load. At Arfa, Merdin, and Diarbekir is an import duty of 5 per cent on the value. Imports pay a duty at the port of landing of 3 per cent, nominally, on a low valuation, making it in most cases, say $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The Porte and Ibrahim's government laid duties on goods passing between their countries, respectively, but since the Porte has recovered Syria, these arrangements have probably been changed.

TRADE OF DAMASCUS.

Damascus, Dimeshk esh-Sham, or simply esh-Sham, i. e. the East, has always been, and will always be, a seat of commerce. Here the patriarch Abraham's steward Eliezer was brought up to business; and here trade is still conducted after the same manner probably as in the earliest times, in khans or caravanserais, called "inns" in Genesis, xlii. 27, and in bazaars, which are covered "streets," with alcoves, mentioned as far back as the times of Ahab, king of Israel, 2 Kings xx. 34. This primeval city, from its white walls and green environs, is called by the orientals "a pearl surrounded by emeralds," and nothing can be more beautiful than its position, whether approached from the desert to the east, or by the northern high road from Aleppo and Hamah. For many miles the city is girdled by fertile fields or gardens, which being watered by rivers part-

ed into sparkling streams, give to the vegetation, consisting principally of olive-trees, a remarkable freshness and beauty; beyond are circling mountains, open on one side to the desert. Of all the cities of the east it is probably the most completely oriental—the city which has undergone the fewest changes. The European costume is scarcely ever seen; and with few exceptions, the Frank settlers have adopted the Syrian dress. The exterior of the houses is mean and unattractive, but within many are ornamented in the most luxurious and costly style, supplied with fountains, and filled with flowering shrubs. The decorations of the ceilings and walls show a taste for the gorgeous, and the floors are frequently of marble, very finely tessellated; many of the materials are imported from Europe, especially from Italy.

Some of the bazaars are very extensive, such as those of the shoemakers, of the goldsmiths, druggists, garment sellers, hardware dealers, traders in cotton stuffs, pipemakers, &c.—for each trade and business has ordinarily its peculiar covered street, devoted entirely to it. They are generally kept in good order, and abundantly supplied with goods. Long bargaining seems universal, and an apparent indifference is exhibited both by buyer and seller. A good many bazaars are kept by dervishes and sheikhs having a reputation for sanctity; but they do not appear to be either more or less visited than those of their neighbors, nor does anybody seem disposed to pay an additional *para* for the article wanted, on account of the religious reputation of the seller.

The European goods are mostly bought on credit from the importer; but the ordinary sales in the bazaars, to the consumer, are for ready money. When the transactions are carried on, on a large scale, with the caravan merchants, the payments are usually made on their return the following year. There are a considerable number of merchants from Persia, Mesopotamia, and the regions to the east, who find no difficulty in obtaining credit to a large amount, and many of them are extremely regular in their payments. This trade appears to be on the increase, and capable of much greater extension.

The wholesale sellers of goods have their counting-houses around the khans, and deposit their merchandise in various parts of them. Many of these khans are of great antiquity; the great khan is a vast and superb building, filled with various commodities, and frequented by merchants from remote lands. Two Moslems, handsomely dressed, and who were apparently transacting business on a large scale, were introduced to us, says Mr. Bowring, as the leading merchants of Bagdad. In the khan we observed large quantities of cotton twist, for which the sale appeared very current. We learnt that, though the known buyers from the east easily obtained credit till the arrival of the next caravans, yet the richest among them paid ready money, and as these operations are large, they are of course among the most welcome visitors. Some of the caravans from Bagdad, indeed, have been known to consist of 5000 camels, every one carrying a quarter of a ton of goods, at an average charge of 20 dollars a kintal, so that the carriage alone of a caravan's cargo costs from \$100,000 to \$125,000. It is thought western goods may be more cheaply conveyed by the Cape of Good Hope; but the merchants of the east, who themselves visit Damascus and Aleppo, have the advantage of accompanying or receiving their own goods, and making their own purchases, which of course, were it only for the benefits of assortment, is of much value to them.

The imports of Damascus in 1836 and '37, were as follows:

	1836.	1837.	
Loaf and crushed sugar	121,447	112,722	okes.
Copperas	3,914	12,219	"
Indigo	10,205	4,728	"
Pimento	3,118	3,534	"
Pepper	23,470	27,247	"
Tin (in bars)	4,503	5,055	"
Cochineal	7,434	11,644	"
Coffee, from Mocha and Europe	75,122	86,210	"
Sal ammoniac	1,128	3,794	"
Corals	45	167	"
Cotton twist	115,622	137,510	"
Long-cloths	32,981	25,952	pieces.
Prints	36,095	30,537	"
Woollen cloths	6,401	2,819	"
Muslins	29,088	25,409	"
Rice (baskets of 40 rottoli each)	13,500	12,500	baskets.
Silk, from Lyons	—	1,101	pieces.
Writing paper	19,299	10,540	reams.
Wrapping paper	5,940	2,436	"
Red skull-caps	15,142	11,291	doz.
Tin plates	106	169	boxes.
Iron	328	—	cantars.
Indigo, from Bagdad	7,339	1,071	okes.
Tombag	302,000	117,210	"
Tobacco	230,878	190,577	"

The city has 66 Mohammedan commercial establishments, which trade with Europe, with a capital of 20 to 25 million piastres; eight have over a million each; two, (Abderachman Ashim and Mahomet Saïd Aga Bagdadi,) who trade with Bagdad, have one and a half to two millions; one (Haji Hussein Chertifchi,) is supposed to have two to two and a half millions in trade. The larger houses generally trade with Europe and Bagdad, the smaller with Smyrna and Constantinople. About a dozen are in the Egyptian trade with Cairo and Alexandria; one or two with Mecca and Medina, and a few with Jerusalem, Nabulus, and other parts of Palestine. One of the principal houses trades with the East Indies. The average capital of these foreign merchants is about £4,000.

There are 29 Christian merchants in foreign trade, with four and a half to five and a half million piastres; the wealthiest by far is Hanah Hanouri, who has one and a half to two millions of capital, and trades with England, France, and Italy, besides being a considerable manufacturer of Damascus stuffs. Several others of the Hanouri family are in the foreign trade, and are among the most opulent of the Christian merchants. A great proportion of the Christian commercial houses have connections with England, but are, as a body, less opulent than the Mohammedans or Jews, most of them not having more capital than £250 to £1000.

As a class, the Jewish foreign merchants of Damascus are the most wealthy; their 24 houses have 16 to 18 million piastres, and average £6,000 to £7,000 each; nine have from one to one and a half million piastres; two, the most opulent, (Mourad Farhi and Nassim Farhi,) have

more than one and a half million each. Most of them trade with England.

There are 107 shopkeepers who retail British goods, with a capital of 1,600,000 to 2,100,000 piastres, averaging £150 to £180 each. Their bazaars, like those of Aleppo, are kept up to a great extent on the capitals of those who sell them goods on credit. Few possess £1000 capital, and half of it is considered very respectable and would command a considerable extent of credit. There are 15 retailers of woollen cloths, who are proportionally the wealthiest of the shopkeepers, and have 650,000 to 800,000 piastres, averaging £400 to £500 each; the wealthiest double, and the poorest £200 to £500. There are about 80 grocers and druggists, averaging 10,000 piastres each.

Engaged in the stuff manufactures are 14 Mohammedans, with £200 to £1,200 each, in all 600,000 to 750,000 piastres, averaging to each £400 to £500. The two most opulent are dervishes. The 45 Christian manufacturers have 1,100,000 to 1,500,000 piastres, averaging to each £220 to £335. The largest possess £1,000, the smallest £50 to £60.

The *Tribunal of Commerce*, at Damascus, consists of 9 Moslems, 2 Christians, and 1 Jew; a proportion not very fairly arranged in reference to the numbers of the different religious bodies; but one of the principal Christian merchants assured Mr. B. that, on the whole, they were tolerably satisfied with its decisions, and the Moslem majority seldom showed any disposition to act unfairly to Christians litigants.

TRADE OF ALEPPO.

Aleppo, or Haleb, the ancient Helbon, is situated midway between the Euphrates, where it approaches nearest to the sea, and the Mediterranean, being some 90 miles, by the road, from Suedia, at the mouth of the Orontes, as well as from Scanderon; 110 from the port of Latakia, 47 geographical miles in a straight line from steam navigation on the Euphrates, and 33 from the Orontes river. It is about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, surrounded by an undulating country, very stony and barren in many places, and except in its immediate vicinity without wood, and thinly populated. Gardens cover all the roofs of the city, and seen from above, it is a succession of terraces, over which is spread a rank and luxuriant vegetation, looking like an irregular plain, under which the multitudinous inhabitants circulate—the streets being all of them covered in and lighted only by gratings from above.

The local position of Aleppo is in many respects admirable for trade. It has an abundance of warehouses, which are at a low rent, though the repairs are heavy; it communicates, at the distance of a few hours, with the Euphrates, and its khans and coffee-houses are crowded with travellers from every part of the east. There are habits of luxury in the city itself which create a considerable demand for articles of consumption; and it is by far the most important of all the Syrian depots. Its habits and traditions are more commercial than those of any other part of Syria, and its people are fond of talking of the mercantile greatness of their forefathers. Here were formerly 40 Venetian houses, but its trade has completely changed hands. In about 1832, English merchants began to establish themselves here, and now there are several houses carrying on a large business both with Aleppo and the surrounding district, as well as with the ancient Mesopotamia, Persia, and the country bordering on the Eu-

phrates. Situated about midway between the desert and the Mediterranean, and being a convenient place of centralization for the various caravans from the east, it is likely to grow in wealth and influence, if commerce be allowed to establish its ramifications, and if security of person or property give those feelings of confidence without which all enterprise is checked or destroyed.

Aleppo is the emporium for the north of Syria, and is connected in extensive commercial transactions with Diarbekir, and the upper parts of Anatolia, and with Merdin, Mosul, and Bagdad. This trade, however, is affected by the new channels which are opened from the Euxine, through Trebizond and Erzroom, supplying the north of Kurdistan and Mesopotamia, and the trade, either from India or England, by the Persian Gulf, supplying Bagdad and the south of Mesopotamia. There is also a trade with Persia, through both of these channels, to the northern and southern provinces; but such has been the revulsion in consequence of Persia's being supplied and overstocked, through both the Euxine and the gulf, that the prices of British manufacture are frequently lower at Bagdad than at Aleppo, which place has even received supplies from Persia. The great drawback to the extension of the British trade of Aleppo, including that of Mesopotamia and Babylonia, and of Damascus with the latter country, is the want of articles of export; with the exception of one or two, the whole of the returns to England being made partly in bills of exchange, but principally in specie. The distance and expense of land carriage, and the duties of transit, and at the place of sale also, operate against this Aleppo trade in competition with the other route; but these are in some degree balanced by the greater acceptability of the Syrian ports.

With Orfa, the Aleppo trade is carried on by the natives; and its 20 Turkish and Christian merchants do not trade direct to Europe. Their capital is some \$40,000 or \$50,000, but their trade greatly exceeds that amount, and three fifths of it is for British manufactures, chiefly cotton twist, calicoes, some prints, muslins, and nankeens; the remainder is in colonial produce and different articles of the country. Orfa supplies Aleppo and the north of Syria with grain, chiefly wheat and barley; and the communication is active by Bir.

The trade with Diarbekir is similar, and by 25 Turkish and Christian merchants, with \$75,000 to \$80,000 of capital; \$35,000 worth are taken from Aleppo, of which \$25,000 are for British manufactures, and \$10,000 for colonials. The return is in galls and specie. These merchants, like those of Orfa, often obtain, through the European Aleppo agents, goods direct on their own account from England.

The Merdin trade requires about \$10,000 worth of British manufactures, and \$5,000 of colonials, and is conducted by 4 or 5 merchants, with \$15,000 to \$25,000. The returns and trade are like those of Orfa and Diarbekir.

The trade to Mosul engages 25 Turkish and Christian merchants of Mosul, the wealthiest of Mesopotamia, with a capital of \$170,000 to \$200,000, and altogether they may be considered richer and of higher standing than those at Orfa, Diarbekir, and Merdin. Mosul takes annually from Aleppo \$150,000 worth, mostly British manufactures, and the rest colonials; but since the fines and severity of the sultan's pacha, who has lately occupied it, the trade has decreased. Galls and some specie are the usual

returns. The inland duty to this place is heavy, but it gives a free passage to other places.

There is a trade between Mosul, Merdin, Diarbekir, and Orfa, with Erzroom, Karpout, and Trebizond, which cannot be specified or calculated; but it consists in most of the articles received from Europe and in articles of the country. It is susceptible of extension both in regard to the produce of the country, in galls, sheep's wool, Persian yellow berries from Kaisserieh, goats' wool, beef, calve, and other hides; and for the consumption on that line of country, of cotton twist, calicoes, manufactures generally, and colonials, which trade is carried on in the same way as the trade between Mesopotamia and Aleppo.

The trade of Aleppo and Damascus with Bagdad, the former through the desert across the Euphrates, at Anna or at Hit, and the latter across the desert, by way of Tadmor, also traversing the Euphrates at Hit, is chiefly carried on by Moslems and Christians; some few Europeans are engaged in it, but hitherto British merchants have seldom adventured on it. There is not often more than one caravan, of from 700 to 1000 camels, annually, between Aleppo and Bagdad, and one of 1,000 to 1,200 or 1,500 between Damascus and Bagdad. The goods sent thither from Aleppo and Damascus are chiefly cotton twist, calicoes, shirtings, prints, imitation shawls, woollen cloths, some dyes, and an assortment, varying in quality according to the market, of paper of all kinds, pig lead, cloths, woollens, French and Belgian, manufactured cotton of all sorts, imitation British shawls, steel, coral, iron, cutlery from Germany, files, pins and needles, fire-arms, tinsel from Germany, looking-glasses, cochineal, St. Martha wood, log-wood, woollen caps, tin in bars, sulphur, tin plates, and gold and silver thread. The chief articles received in return, besides the principal one of specie, are Persian and Hussineeh tombag, galls, buffalo hides, East India indigo, pearls, Cashmere shawls, some Mocha coffee, and an assortment of Persian shawls, Fernambook (Brazil) wood, East India muslins, called madapolans, East India muslins, embroidered, elephant tusks or teeth, gum galbanum, gum ammoniac, cherry sticks for pipes, Persian saffran, gum tragacanth, assafoetida, East India long-cloths, and dates.

The cost of carriage across the desert is enhanced chiefly because of the insecurity from the roving Arab tribes, whom the merchants of Bagdad are often obliged to compromise with, giving considerable sums and presents to the chiefs of the Shammah and Aneze ('Anazeh) tribes, at Bagdad, who become responsible for the safety of the caravan from plunder by their hordes in the desert. This transit duty varies according to the value of the caravan. The Aghali Arabs also, who act as guards, and accompany the caravan, receive presents, and are paid as a kind of military and protecting escort.

A portion of the transit trade of Syria indeed, is in the hands of the Bedawin (wandering or nomade) Arabs, who traffic with the native dealers for different articles of imported produce, and bring the produce of their flocks in payment. They generally come from the skirts of the desert, whence they communicate with the tribes stationed further east. Ibrahim's highly useful measures to settle these Bedawins in agricultural pursuits on the borders of Syria, have been wise and eminently successful. But under the less energetic Turkish rule, to which they have again become nominally subject, they will probably return to their former roving and predatory life.

There are at Aleppo about 30 Christian houses which trade with England, France, Italy, and Germany, with a capital of \$700,000 to \$900,000; the houses ranging from \$5,000 to \$50,000 and \$200,000. There are 7 with a capital of over \$50,000 each; Fathalla Cubbe, the most opulent, is thought to possess \$150,000 to \$200,000. Nearly 70 Mohammedan merchants trade with Europe, having \$325,000 to \$375,000 capital; the houses ranging from \$5,000 to the highest capital, that of Agi Wosa Muaket, which is \$65,000 to \$70,000; the average capital is £3,000 to £4,000 sterling. Besides these there are 15 Turkish merchants who trade in European commodities, but not with Europe direct. Their largest capital is \$15,000, and a few have not more than one sixth as much; the total capital of the 15 is about \$100,000 to \$125,000. There are 10 Jewish European traders, with \$100,000 to \$125,000 capital—the wealthiest of whom has \$50,000. Independently of the above, who are all Aleppo merchants, there are settled in Aleppo many opulent bankers, whose capital cannot be easily estimated, and many merchants of Bagdad, Mosul, Diarbekir, Orfa, Constantinople, and Smyrna.

There are more than 50 shopkeepers who sell the manufactures of Aleppo, some with scarcely any capital—the richest with \$4,000 to \$5,000; the whole being not more than \$60,000 to \$80,000. Twenty-one sell silk, the wealthiest having \$3,500 capital; the whole capital engaged in this traffic is from \$11,250 to \$14,000. Nineteen shopkeepers sell cloths from France and Belgium, none of whom possess more than \$2,250; the whole amount employed is \$16,050 to \$20,500. There are 70 who sell British manufactures, with \$37,500 to \$44,000; many of them have but about \$150 to \$500, but the average is \$500; they therefore depend very much on the accidents of sales, and hence the habit of collecting from them their receipts from week to week. There are 35 druggists, the richest of whom, called chief of the druggists, has a capital of \$1,250 to \$1,500, and their united capital is \$16,250 to \$21,000; averaging from \$250 or \$300 up to \$1,250 to each dealer. Thus a very large proportion of the trade of Aleppo is carried on by the general system of credit established there, and almost all the shopkeepers depend for the payment of their debts on the sales they are able to effect. It is, in fact, as if the shops were lent to the merchants for the disposal of their goods in retail. The merchants collect their receipts by a system of incessant dunning, employing for that purpose a race of dragomans, who wear a peculiar costume, and are for the most part native Christians.

The language of Aleppo is Arabic. Nearly all sales are made by brokers, paid by the seller, at the rate of 1 per cent; the British houses charge for commissions, charges, &c. on sales, $13\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, in all. Credits are for 4 months, but extended often to 2 years. Accounts are kept in piastres and paras, but the currency is very various; hence, and for the want of any proper facilities for transferring money, there is an enormous consumption of time by the collecting and counting of moneys. Sovereigns pass current for 103 piastres; German dollars for $20\frac{3}{4}$ p.; Spanish dollars for $21\frac{3}{4}$ p.; Dutch ducats for 47 p.; Venetian ducats for $47\frac{1}{2}$ p.—though the rates for these coins published by the government, are, respectively, $97\frac{1}{2}$, 20, 21, $45\frac{2}{3}$, $46\frac{1}{3}$ piastres. The cantar of Aleppo is $187\frac{1}{2}$ okes; the rottolo is the 100th part of a cantar; the Constantinople oke, for cochineal, is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. avoirdupois—the Egyptian is 4 per cent lighter: 1000 drams of silk are 7 lbs.; the pike is 27 inches.

There is an allowance on sugar of 2 per cent for tare; on coffee, of the real tare; and 10 per cent trett on pepper, of the real tare; and 5 per cent trett on indigo and cochineal, of the real tare. In purchasing galls the buyer pays the brokerage, and has an allowance of 5 per cent trett in lieu of it. Silk is bought nett. Cotton and wool are bought nett, or, if in hair bags, the bags are weighed as wool or cotton, and no charge made. The exchange is calculated at 105 piastres per £1 sterling; and all charges, tares and tretts on this side are taken off.

The manufactures of Aleppo are chiefly soap, stuffs, and gold and silver thread. There are 30 soap factories at Aleppo, and nearly half as many at Edlip, employing in all 1000 men, at 25 to 50 cents per day. The soap is composed of 17 parts oil, 11 soda, and 6 lime. The quantity produced varies, according to the oil crop, from 500 to 1,500 tons annually. In the years 1837-8, it was 1,500 tons—prime cost 18,700 piastres (\$935;) the selling prices are 2,000 and 1,900 piastres (\$100 and \$95) per cask. The soapmakers of Aleppo supply not only all northern Syria, but also Bagdad, Mosul, Merden, Diarbekir, Orfa, Marsh, Aintab, and their neighborhood.

The manufacture of stuffs, for which Aleppo is famous throughout the east, is still carried on extensively. They consist of silk stuffs, with gold and silver thread; silk and cotton flowered and striped, and striped cotton only, called nankeens. Few modern improvements have been introduced into the machinery employed; but the fabrics are, many of them, graceful and beautiful, and costly where silver and gold have been introduced. A considerable number of children are employed to assist the spinners and weavers; they are most of them Christians; and I have seldom seen, says Bowring, a race so remarkable for graceful proportions of body, fine features and expression of countenance. Their appearance was that of robust and glowing health, with a most cheerful turn of mind, and sprightliness of conversation. They earn tolerable wages, usually from 25 to 50 cents a day, particularly those engaged in making the richer stuffs, for which there is some demand in Turkey, and in the provinces to the east and northeast of Syria. Their best machinery is that for making gold and silver thread. The instruments are well constructed, and worked with much dexterity. The weavers are for the most part gathered into large shops, in each of which two or more workmen are employed by a particular manufacture, and they are paid by the pike for their fabrics. There are no very extensive manufacturers; the looms belong to the weavers, but the raw materials are furnished by the masters. There are about 4,000 looms, and 6,000 operatives old and young, and they yearly produce \$1,275,000 worth of fabrics. The rich stuffs are used by brides and women of wealth; all the other sorts are used for the every-day outer garments of both men and women as extensively as broadcloth is in England. The manufacturers have been for some years tending to decay, but a revival has again taken place, principally in consequence of the importation of a portion of the half-worked material, such as twist and yarn, from England. British manufactures have been gradually intruding on those of Syria. They were much lower priced, but have been found less durable, and many of the Aleppine stuffs are again making their way into popular favor. Some of the intelligent manufacturers believe that the cotton twist, woollen yarn, flax thread, and other similar articles which

are to a certain extent raw materials, would enable the Syrians to extend their manufactures.

The art of dyeing seems well understood, and the colors are bright and lasting. There are about 100 dyeing and printing shops in Aleppo, employing about 1,500 persons, who earn from 25 to 70 cents per day. The dyeing is chiefly of the silk and cotton yarns used for the stuffs, and it is all fast; false colors, however brilliant, are not at all esteemed here. The printing is also fast, but it is in a very rude state compared with the other manufactures here; the chief trade is printing their handkerchiefs, used by women and lads to tie round the head, and also as veils for the faces of the women when going abroad.

Of gold and silver thread there are 15 manufactories, employing about 60 persons, who earn from 25 cents to \$1 per day. The bulk of this produce is used for the richer stuffs of Aleppo, but some goes to Bagdad and other places in the east.

The imports of Aleppo from Great Britain, in 1836-7, were:—*Sugar*, 358 sacks, 484 barrels, each sack weighing 25 rottoli, barrels weighing each 50 rottoli; ruling prices 10 to 12 piastres per rottolo the barrels, and 10 to 10½ piastres per rottolo the sacks. The sugar in barrels is English crushed refined, and that in sacks East Indian. Two thirds of the above quantity is consumed at Aleppo, and one third is sent into the interior.—*Coffee*, 792 bags, each weighing 30 rottoli=23,760 rottoli; ruling prices 16½ to 17½ piastres per rottolo; one third is consumed at Aleppo, and the other two thirds go to Mesopotamia and the interior.—*Indigo*, 170 cases, weighing each 50 rottoli=8,500 rottoli; ruling prices 180 to 220 piastres per rottolo; two thirds are the consumption of Aleppo, and one third goes away into the interior.—*Cochineal*, 84 barrels, each weighing 70 okes=5,880 okes; ruling prices 130 to 150 piastres per rottolo; one half consumed at Aleppo, and the other half for the interior.—*Copperas*, 121 cases, each weighing 60 rottoli=7,260 rottoli; ruling prices 200 to 350 piastres; one half consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder for the interior.—*Tin Bars*, 163 barrels, each 45 rottoli=7,335 rottoli; ruling prices 28 to 34 piastres; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds for the interior.—*Tin Plates*, 84 cases of 225 leaves; ruling prices 250 to 280 piastres per case of 225; two thirds the consumption of Aleppo, and one third for the interior.—*Pepper*, 701 bags of 15 rottoli each=10,515 rottoli; ruling prices 11½ to 12 piastres per rottolo; one half consumed at Aleppo, and one half for the interior.—*Pimento*, 40 bags of 30 rottoli each=1,200 rottoli; the ruling prices from 12 to 12½ piastres per rottolo; the half is consumed in Aleppo, the other half goes to Mesopotamia.—*Salammoniac*, 49 cases, 31 barrels, weighing each 50 rottoli=2,450 rottoli; ruling prices at Aleppo from 24 to 26 piastres per rottolo; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds go into the interior and to Mesopotamia.—*Rice*, 540 bags, each weighing 15 rottoli; ruling prices from 5½ to 6½ piastres, all of which is consumed at Aleppo.—*Cotton Water Twist*, 3,877 bales, each bale valued at from 2,000 to 2,200 piastres; one third is consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds go to Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Trebizond.—*Mule Yarn*, 600 bales, each bale valued at 3,200 to 3,400 piastres; two thirds of this are consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes into the interior.—*Manufactures*, 5,336 bales and 53 cases. It is impossible to state the quantity in each bale, and what description of goods, which consist of all sorts of British manufactures; each bale is generally valued

at from 3,000 to 5,000 piastres, and a small portion at from 6,000 to 8,000 ; Aleppo consumes half, and the rest goes into Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Persia.

The imports of Aleppo from Germany, in 1836-7, were:—*Cloth*, 44 bales, which come from Trieste, each bale containing 12 pieces=528 pieces ; the value of each bale is estimated at from 8,000 to 10,000 piastres, according to quality ; half the above quantity is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder goes into the interior.—*Tarboches* or red caps, 163 cases of 120 dozen each=19,560 dozen ; ruling prices from 35 to 40 piastres per dozen ; one third for the consumption of Aleppo, and two thirds for the interior.—*Divers manufactures*, 94 bales ; little or none of these are of British fabric, they are principally printed handkerchiefs from Germany ; each bale is valued at from 5,000 to 8,000 piastres ; one third is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder is for the interior.—*Glass ware*, 50 cases, which are consumed at Aleppo, and being sold at retail to people coming from the interior, a small portion is also sent to Bagdad.

The imports of Aleppo from Italy, in 1836-7, were:—*Sugar*, 73 cases and 100 bags, one with another weighing 50 rottoli ; the ruling prices at Aleppo $12\frac{1}{2}$ to 13 piastres per rottolo ; two thirds consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes into Mesopotamia ; total weight imported 8,650 rottoli.—*Coffee*, 321 bags, at 35 rottoli each=11,235 rottoli ; ruling prices 17 to $18\frac{1}{2}$ piastres ; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds exported.—*Tarboches*, or red skull-caps, 255 cases, generally of Tuscan manufacture ; each case of 70 dozen=17,850 dozen ; ruling prices from 70 to 120 piastres per dozen ; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds for the interior.—*Pepper*, 237 bags of 15 rottoli each=3,555 rottoli ; ruling prices 11 to 12 piastres per rottolo ; half the quantity for the consumption of Aleppo, and the remainder for the interior.—*Indigo*, 11 cases, weighing 50 rottoli=550 rottoli ; ruling prices 180 to 220 piastres per rottolo ; two thirds for the consumption of Aleppo, and one third for Mesopotamia.—*Coral*, 25 cases ; this article is of various qualities, there are cases valued at 10,000 piastres, and others as high as 50,000 : about 8 cases to 10 are sold in Aleppo to the Persians and Bedawin, and the remainder is sent to Bagdad and Persia, say one third to Aleppo and two thirds sent out.—*Cochineal*, 82 cases, weighing 70 okes each=5,740 okes ; the ruling prices at Aleppo are 130 to 150 piastres per oke ; half for Aleppo, and the remainder is drawn by the interior.—*Paper*, 166 bales, each bale of 20 reams=3,320 reams ; ruling prices 25 to 40 piastres per ream ; half consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder goes into the interior.—*Manufactures*, 293 bales, of all sorts, of which a considerable portion is British manufactures bought in the Italian depots ; each bale is estimated at 3,000 to 5,000 piastres ; about one third of which, in 97 bales, is consumed in Aleppo, and the remaining two thirds go into Mesopotamia.—*Cloth* : none comes from Italy, or at most only a bale or two during the year.

The imports of Aleppo from France, in 1836-7, were:—*Sugar*, 114 barrels, 766 cases, weighing one with another 50 rottoli each ; the ruling prices at Aleppo, during these two years, were $12\frac{1}{2}$ to 13 piastres per rottolo ; two thirds consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes into the interior and to Mesopotamia ; total weight 44,000 rottoli.—*Coffee*, 330 barrels, 725 bags, weighing one with another 35 rottoli each ; ruling prices 17 to 18 piastres per rottolo ; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds go out ; total weight 36,750 rottoli.—*Cochineal*, 35 barrels, 68 cases, weigh-

ing 70 okes each, and the prices ruled from 130 to 150 piastres per oke; half for the consumption of Aleppo, and the remaining half for the interior; total weight 7,210 okes.—*Tarbonches*, 64 cases, which came from France, but are manufactured at Tunis; each case contains 50 dozen; ruling prices 200 to 400 piastres per dozen: the total quantity is exported, half of which is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder for the interior.—*Pepper*, 135 bags, each weighing 30 rottoli, total 4,050 rottoli; prices ruling from 11 to 12 piastres per rottolo; half for the consumption of Aleppo, and the other half for Mesopotamia.—*Pimento*, 129 bags, weighing 30 rottoli each, total weight 3,780 rottoli; ruling prices from 12 to 12½ piastres per rottoli; half for the consumption of Aleppo, and half for the interior.—*Indigo*, 4 cases, weighing 50 rottoli each, at 180 to 200 piastres per rottoli; two thirds for the consumption of this town, and one third goes into the interior; total weight 200 rottoli.—*Manufactured Silks*, these come from Lyons; only ten cases were imported during the years 1836 and 1837; each case contains 10 pieces, each piece of 35 pikes; ruling prices 10 to 60 piastres per pike: it is not consumed at Aleppo or Mesopotamia, but it is an article which the Persians generally purchase.—*Wrapping-paper*, 280 bales, each bale 30 reams, at 10 to 12 piastres per ream; half that quantity is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder goes into the interior.—*Cloth*: 398 bales imported during the two last years; each bale contains 12 pieces; but the cloth from France is of such different qualities that it is difficult to name a price; each bale is valued from 4,000 to 6,000 piastres, and as far as 8,000; half the quantity for the consumption of Aleppo, and the remainder is sent and taken out.—*Manufactures*: only 9 bales have come during the two years, consisting principally of prints of Switzerland, and in very small quantities. The ordinary mode of payment in Aleppo for manufactured goods is by bonds or promissory notes, due at a given period, which serve to a certain extent as bills of exchange. It is not usual to discharge them in full when the time stipulated for payment arrives. A small part is paid, and written on the back of the bond; many months often pass before the whole is paid. Collectors go round, either weekly or according to circumstances, to gather in what they can on account of those bonds. They are used often by the holders to make other payments with, but they are not endorsed, and the risk of the bond is transferred to the party who consents to receive it.

The annual consumption of Aleppo, and the places it supplies, was, in 1838—

	<i>In Aleppo.</i>	<i>In other places.</i>
Twist	120,000 $\frac{12}{10}$ lbs.	165,000 $\frac{16}{10}$ lbs.
Gray cotton	500,000 yards $\frac{27}{4}$ inches	500,000 yards $\frac{27}{4}$ inches
White do	375,000 " $\frac{24}{4}$ "	375,000 " $\frac{24}{4}$ "
Shawls	5,000 pieces	10,000 pieces
Muslins	60,000 yards	140,000 yards
Printed cottons	1,500 pieces	3,000 pieces
do handkerchiefs	3,000 dozen	27,000 dozen
Tin plates	100 boxes	
do in bars	90 cwt.	360 cwt.
Sugar, refined	50 tons	50 tons
Cochineal	114,560 lbs.	14,560 lbs.
Indigo	10,920 "	18,200 "

	<i>In Aleppo.</i>	<i>In other places.</i>
Pepper and Pimento	350 cwt.	350 cwt.
Coffee	500 "	1,000 "
Broadcloth	600 pieces	1,200 pieces
Dye woods	10 tons	40 tons
Copperas	10 "	10 "
Salammoniac	30 cwt.	120 cwt.
Ironmongery	30 bales	
Earthenware	50 "	
Window glass	150 "	
Tarbonches	8,400 dozen	8,400 dozen
French silks and velvets	10,000 yards	
Paper, writing	2,000 reams	2,000 reams
do packing	1,500 "	325 "

Prices current in 1838, and value in English money.

Pepper	5½ piastres per oke	3¾d. per lb.
Sugar, crushed	8 " "	51s. 0 per cwt.
Brazil, white	6½ " "	40s. 9d. " "
Coffee do	19 " per rottolo	60s. 0 " "
Mocha	25 " "	80s. 6d. " "
Indigo, copper and violet, fine }	270 " "	8s. 10d. per lb.
Good	230 " "	7s. 6d. " "
Low	170 " "	5s. 6d. " "
Cochineal, silver	1,143 " per oke	8s. 6d. " "
Tin, in bars	36 " per rottolo	133s. per cwt.
Twist 1¼	76 " per 10 lbs.	14s. 0¾d. per lb.
" 1½	80 " "	15s. 0¾d. " "
" 2	84 " "	16s. 0½d. " "
Domestics, 45 inches	36 yards, 11½ lbs.	110p. per p. 16s. 9d.
" 33 "	24 " 6¾ "	62p. " 10s.
Galls, in sorts	1,200 piastres per cantar	55s. per cwt.
" black	1,500 " "	68s. 6d. " "

The population supplied by the Aleppo trade, in northern Syria, is in Aleppo 60 to 70,000; its immediate neighborhood, 5,000; Antioch, 10,000; Edlip, 2,500; Hamah, 30,000; Latakia, 5,000; Tarsous, 7,000; Adana, 20,000; Killis, 2,000; Aintab, 3,500; smaller cities and rural districts, 36,250; total, 181,250 in Upper Syria; these consume two thirds of its importations. Aleppo also supplies the districts of Armenia, from Arabkir southwards, and partly the district of Amasia. To the direct north it supplies Marash, and its neighborhood; to the east and southeast, Orfa, Diarbekir, Merdin, Mosul, near by, and a considerable caravan is yearly sent to Bagdad. One third of its total imports are taken off by these channels. The imports are chiefly from England direct, Marseilles, Leghorn, and Trieste.

The price of labor is 12 piastres per day for a mason or carpenter; shoemakers, tailors, printers, and dyers, have no fixed rate, but are associated each among themselves, and divide the profits. A weaver has 5 to 10 piastres per pike, and can make 1 to 2 pikes a day; a porter makes 8 or 10 piastres; a servant has 60 to 200 piastres per month. Bread is

dear, 60 paras per rottolo ; wheat, 75 piastres per shimbul ; mutton, 4 piastres per oke ; fowls, 3 piastres each ; eggs, 4 paras each ; and rice, 3 piastres per oke ; oil, 8, soap, $6\frac{1}{2}$, butter 8 piastres per oke ; milk, 30 paras per rottolo ; grapes 50, apples, apricots, &c. 40 to 60 paras per rottolo ; shoes, 15 to 22 piastres per pair ; wine, 3 piastres per oke ; ar-rack, 7 piastres per oke. Shops rent for 100 to 1,000 piastres per annum ; houses, 100 to 5,000 piastres.

Of the exports of Aleppo, there is no possibility of getting a correct account, because they are made on Aleppo account from Tarsous, Latakia, and Scanderoon, and much of the produce never enters Aleppo. The trade between Aleppo and these places is carried on by natives chiefly, who purchase from importers, sell the goods to the producers against the coming crops of silk, cotton, wool, &c. ; and, receiving payment in these articles, resell them to the importers, for shipment at the nearest port.

The products of Syria, and those brought into Syria from the interior, exported on Aleppo account, are:—*Cotton*, grown on the plains of Tarsous and Adana, and in Caramania, and from Edlip, in all 2,650,000 lbs., for the three years 1835, 6, 7 : 1,400 cantars of this were shipped to Britain, 11,200 to Marseilles, and 3,000 to Greece. More is sent to France than elsewhere, because it is there made use of for wicking, being too seedy and short for English use. Average price, 1,000 piastres per cantar ; average export 27,000 cantars.—*Silk*, raised at Antioch, 9,000,000 drams, three fourths of which goes to Marseilles and Leghorn, none to Britain, and the rest is consumed in the country ; average price, 400 piastres per 1,000 drams, average exports 6,750,000 drams. Of Amasia silk, from Tocat, there came in 1830 to 1837, respectively, 180, 165, 190, 60, 80, 12, 40, 60 bales, each containing 25,000 drams ; giving an annual importation of 2,487,500 drams, averaging 450 piastres per 1,000 drams ; of this, one third was shipped, and two thirds are retained for use in the city.—*Wool*, from Tarsous and Adana, 1,500 cantars ; from Aleppo, and the Arabs, 850 cantars ; 200 cantars were shipped to England, and the rest, except 600 for home consumption, is sent to Marseilles and Leghorn ; average price (for 1835, 6, and 7) 600 piastres per cantar ; average export 1,750 cantars.—*Galls*, from Killis 150, Merdin and Diarbekir 500, Mosul and Bagdad 700, in all 1,350 cantars ; average price for 1835, 6, 7, 1,700 piastres per cantar ; average exports, 1,050 cantars.

Not a fifteenth part of the imports from England are paid in exports : but about 20,000,000 piastres per annum, in old Turkish coins, were exported in 1836 and '37. Cotton is of too short staple, and too seedy, and silk is reeled too long (8 feet in diameter) for English use ; but the quality of the silk is 5 to 10 per cent better than the Persian : but sometimes a considerable part of the exports to Leghorn and Marseilles are for account of the importers of British goods. Wool is adapted to British manufactures, but its price has been too high for shipment. Galls, alone, are sent in any considerable quantity to Britain, and these not produced in Syria. It is therefore highly important to foreign trade that the products of Syria should be increased, as the supply of old coin is daily becoming shorter, and must soon be exhausted. The country is capable of producing tenfold its present produce, but its increase requires better communications, better security of property, in fine, a better government ; and thus the riches of the people being increased, the benefits would extend to all who traded with them, as they would of course require more imports and pay

better for them: at present the Syrians are retrenching, leaving off their ornaments, &c., and becoming discouraged in exertion.

Of the seaports of Syria, the chief are—Tarsous, with its port, Mersin, Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, Latakia, Tripoli, and Beyroot, or Beirut.

Tarsus (Tersooos) is on a river navigable for small boats, and within 12 miles of the sea. Its port or roadstead is Mersin, about four hours to the westward, where the anchorage is perfectly safe all the year round, according to the testimony of intelligent captains, who declare it preferable to Scanderoon. The produce of the country consists principally in cotton, wool, grain of all kinds, sesam, beeswax, old copper, goats' hair, goat skins, ox and buffalo skins, and hair sacks. The consumption of European exports is small at present, but might be made considerable by attracting towards Tarsus the commerce of the interior, which would offer on this market the following valuable articles in any quantities, and take in return various sorts of European produce and manufacture: galls, madder roots, yellow berries, valonia, scammony, gum tragacanth, jalap, hare-skins, and fox-skins, which might be more easily brought here than to Smyrna, and at a cheaper rate, from the distance overland being less.

Adana is situated to the northeast of Tarsus, about six hours further inland, and has 20,000 inhabitants. Its means of maintaining an active commerce are still greater than those of Tarsus, and its produce of the same kind, but in greater abundance. This most flourishing portion of the Ottoman empire, where the people are not so debased as in Syria, offers a great promise of the finest opening for European trade, provided sufficient encouragement be given to the inhabitants of the interior to bring their goods to the Tarsus market, which port would soon rival Smyrna. Adana offers, *as it is*, a great field for speculations of every kind.

Latakia is a very indifferent port, small, with a dangerous entrance, and it contains about 10,000 inhabitants, and receives some thirty or forty European vessels annually, in the following proportion: 8 or 10 French, 8 or 10 Sardinian, 5 or 6 Austrian, and 3 or 4 English. There are four European establishments, chiefly acting as agents for the merchants of Aleppo. It produces oil, grain, and much tobacco. Its port is unsafe except in the summer months, and so incumbered with falling ruins that not more than two or three vessels at a time can anchor in it.

The port of *Tripoli* is very small—in fact cannot be considered a harbor for vessels of a moderate tonnage. The anchorage is a roadstead which can only be made use of in the summer, but which is very dangerous in the winter, and particularly at the equinoxes. Tripoli has 15,000 inhabitants. There arrived here in 1835, 6 and 7—British vessels, none; French, 27; Sardinian, 2; Tuscan, 5; Greek, 12; Arab, 53.

The bay of Akka, or St. Jean d'Acre is large, but much exposed. It is frequented by French, Italian, and Austrian vessels. The British seldom go there. There is anchorage under the southernmost point, which affords a little protection. The harbors of Jaffa, (Joppa,) Tour, (Soor or Tyre,) and Sayda, (Sidon,) which existed in ancient times, are now all choked up, and offer no security to shipping. The destruction and abandonment of so many of the most distinguished ports of Syria is one of the most melancholy examples of commercial vicissitudes. Not to speak of Tyre and Sidon, whose ruins lie on an open and unprotected shore, where scarcely a fisherman's skiff can roll in safety, even such ports as Tripoli

and Latakia have ceased to be much frequented. Beirut and Scanderoon are now the two principal harbors of export and import.

Beirut (the ancient Berytus, and perhaps Berothai of Scripture) is the most flourishing port in Syria, and though in 1840 its fortifications and much of the town were destroyed, it will soon recover. One obvious evidence of prosperity was to be seen in the greatly increased value of houses and warehouse room. In four years from 1835, rental had doubled. In fact, of all the ports of Syria, it has received the most attention. It cannot be considered a healthy position, as, like all the low district between the range of Lebanon and the Mediterranean, it is much exposed to pernicious miasmatic influences; and fevers and agues are complaints to which the inhabitants are much subjected. Yet it is far more healthy than Scanderoon, and considered, indeed, the healthiest town on the coast; its population was gradually increasing, and its neighborhood is rapidly improving in cultivation and fertility. The port is much frequented, but it is, more strictly speaking, a dangerous roadstead; in the winter vessels anchor at the mouth of the river Nahr el-Kelb, (the ancient Lycus.) Still they are exposed, and frequently the northerly gales do much mischief to the shipping. This port supplies Damascus, Lebanon, and Palestine; it has 12,000 inhabitants.

There arrived at Beirut, in 1835, 13 British vessels, 4 Maltese, 9 Ionian, 124 Egyptian, 26 French, 20 Austrian, 10 Russian, 31 Sardinian, and 104 Greek. In 1836, respectively, 13, 6, 3, 134, 36, 19, 3, 34, 108, of each of these nations. In 1837, 13, 2, 1, 340, 49, 9, 2, 8, 48, of each, respectively. In all in 1835, 341 of 21,247 tons, with cargoes whose invoice value was, for the French, Sardinian, and Greek, 125,449 pounds sterling; 210 left the port, with cargoes (of the Egyptian, Sardinian, and Greek) worth £134,976. In 1836, 356 arrived, of 44,251 tons, and 342 departed; in 1837, 472 arrived and departed. The commerce of Beirut and Damascus chiefly depend on that of Bagdad, so that the free navigation of the Euphrates by steam would greatly increase it. The British cargoes were, in 1835, bales of cambric, 65; cotton twist, 967; calico, 151; long-cloths, 229; imitation Italian shawls, 130; prints, 82; muslin, 230; shirting, 45; madapolans, 327; handkerchiefs, 81; small shawls, 23; cloth, 1 bale; Indigo, 54 cases. The export cargoes were made up of inferior silk, 20 bales; cotton, 160; sheep's wool, 10; sheep skins, 15; goat skins, 2,230; hare skins, 1; hides, 862; carpets, 1 bale; madder roots, 75 barrels; gum tragacanth, 45; gum caliline, 1; galls, 279; oil, 4; tobacco, 8; sponges, 8 barrels; soap, 37 cases; fruit, 12 cases; clay, 221 barrels.

In 1836, British vessels brought 675 bales of cotton twist, 429 of madapolans, 160 of muslin, 128 of cambric, 493 of calico, 121 of handkerchiefs, 240 of imitation shaws, 372 of prints, 11 of nankeens, 7 of cochineal, 3 of cloth, 86 cases of indigo, 63 barrels of sugar, 447 bags of rice, 81 barrels of earthenware. And they carried away 2 bales of inferior silk, 224 of wool, 156 of madder roots, 5 of tobacco, 12 of saffron, 2 cases of gum, 40 of coloquintida, 35 of figs, 1 sack aniseed, 12,000 killows sesame, and 66 sacks of galls.

In 1837, British vessels brought goods conjectured to be of the invoice value of 312,000 pounds sterling; viz. 32,752 bundles of cotton twist, 14,672 pieces of calico, 840 of cambric, 1,886 imitation shawls, 25,049 pieces of muslin, 40,416 handkerchiefs, 15,601 pieces of prints, 925 of

nankeen, 100 of cloth, 2,700 bundles of false pearls, 178 sacks of rice, 13 casks of salt, 14 cases of locks, 6 cases of hardware. These vessels took away 38,460 pounds of aniseed, 55 cases of colocintida, 32 sacks of galls, and 15 cases of gum.

Of silk, there was exported from Beirut, in the four years, from 1833 to 1836, inclusive, to France, 1,968 bales, valued at 3,505,134 francs, counting 4 piastres to the franc; to Egypt, 2,112 bales, value 3,686,205 francs; to England, 47 bales, 93,220 francs; to Greece, 2 bales, value 4,000 francs; to Tuscany, 596 bales, value 1,054,352 francs; to Turkey, 41 bales, value 67,350 francs; to Austria, 45 bales, value 83,272 francs; total in four years, 4,811 bales, weighing from 195 to 210 pounds each. None but a few bales of *waste*, has been sent to England since 1834. About 1,650,000 pounds of silk are produced annually.

The fluctuations and clipping of the currency are much complained of, also the abuse of consular protections to shield debtors.

Scanderoon is to become the chief port of Aleppo, and if the Euphrates navigation succeeds, the chief port of transit for Syria. It has been thought that the Orontes river (el-Aasy) might be used, but it is found that "the rapidity of the stream in many parts of its course, its sudden and numerous wanderings, its frequent shallows, its various bridges, and the many changes to which it is subjected in the vicissitudes of the seasons, appear to be insuperable obstacles to any plan for making the river navigable, or for using it to any considerable extent for trading purposes, and must altogether thwart any project for employing it as a means of easier communication with the Euphrates. In fact, the Orontes is scarcely available at all, even for small craft; and to reach Antioch in a steamer, though Antioch is at so short a distance from the Mediterranean, would be a work of consummate difficulty, and when accomplished, by no means worthy of the trouble and expense incurred."

Scanderoon is the only port entitled to the name; it is an extensive natural harbor, and safe for any number of vessels of any size, but it is unimproved by art; nothing has been done in the erection of wharves or quays to aid in the landing or shipping of goods. The number of English vessels that visit it is much increased of late. In 1837 they amounted to eighteen; ten or twelve French, and a few Sardinian and Austrian vessels frequent it. The place produces but little grain, but its chief produce is in firewood, and wood for building, monopolized by Ibrahim's government, who obtained yearly from 12,000 to 15,000 trees of first quality, thirty feet long by two square, which were shipped off for the use of the Alexandria arsenal; there is an inexhaustible supply in the forests of the adjoining mountains of Arsus, the ancient Mons Rhossus.

The climate, which, from the miasmata of neighboring swamps, confined to the neighborhood by close mountains, was very unhealthy, has been much improved of late, by the drying up of the surrounding marshes, effected by a canal being cut to the sea at the expense of the Egyptian government. The plain is exceedingly fertile, and the soil, being free from stones, is easily worked.

This port is the gate of all northern Syria, and eventually, perhaps, is to be the point of communication between Europe and Asia. In 1837, it imported from Britain alone, goods to the amount of 165,177 pounds sterling. The great drawback, however, to its commerce, as to that of the rest of the country, is the want of returns. Many of these might, too, be

more available, besides being vastly increased, if the communication to Aleppo, the Euphrates, Bagdad, &c., could be improved; but at present the roads are, in unfavorable weather, in a deplorable state. The road to Aleppo goes through the town and pass of Birlan. The carriage of goods by camels may be estimated at three to four pounds for every 100 miles per ton English, each camel carrying about a quarter of a ton, at the rate of about ten miles per day. Ten bags of galls weigh on an average a ton. The importations for the immediate consumption of Scanderoon and its neighborhood, are annually about 1,500 to 1,950 bushels of wheat, and half as much barley; 200 baskets (40,000 lbs.) of rice, 50 to 60 of which it consumes; 50 tons of salt; both rice and salt are from Damietta. The only staple article of export of the district is dips, dibs, or beshmet, made from grapes into a consistence resembling honey; its mountains produce 350 to 400 cantars per annum, of which 200 to 250 are exported to Tarsus and Caramania. It is much eaten, and sells at 350 to 400 piastres for 504 pounds. Ibrahim felled some 40,000 trees here in 1835 for ship-building; they are generally a mountain pine, very tough and close grained, with a few oaks of rather an inferior quality, but closer grained than the American, appearing fit for very good staves, excepting perhaps for oil casks. Eight to ten cantars of silk are yearly produced.

There arrived at Scanderoon, of British vessels, in 1835, 11, in 1836, 14, in 1837, 13; of French, in these years respectively, 9, 2, 7; of Austria, 1, 0, 1; of Sardinian, 7, 0, 2; of Greek, 2 in 1835; of Tuscan, 1 in 1837. In the three ports of Scanderoon, Latakia, and Tripoli, there arrived in 1835, 6, and 7, respectively, British, 14, 16, 13; French, 27, 28, 25; Austrian, 6, 5, 3; Sardinian, 17, 9, 6; Tuscan, 5, 9, 6; Greek, 12, 73, 5; Arab, 84, 162, 76; Egyptian, 0, 16, 10; divers, 0, 8, 0; Ottoman, 0, 0, 3; in all in 1835, 165, of 17,593 $\frac{3}{4}$ tons; in 1836, 324, of 32,166 tons; in 1837, 147, of 17,604 tons.

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

THERE is no substance of greater importance to the several branches of human enterprise than that of iron. From its ductility and strength it is used with great advantage in almost every department of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and the mechanic arts, and without it they could not advance with any considerable degree of success. In agriculture, we behold it in the axe clearing the forest, and in the plough turning over the soil, through the successive steps of husbandry, down to the reaping of the harvest and the bolting of the grain; it forms the machinery of almost every branch of manufacture, and the implements of almost all the trades; it comprises the nails, anchors, and chains of the rigged vessel, and the engine of the steamship, the weapons of war and the instruments of peace, the harpoon and the needle, the spear and the pruning-hook, the water-pipe and the hair-spring of the watch, the sword and the harrow; and indeed we can scarcely enter upon any department of modern mer-

cantile and mechanical effort, in which we do not find the material of iron constituting one of its most valuable staples. From the intrinsic importance of the subject therefore, as well as the prominent position which its production and manufacture sustain, as a national enterprise and the source of national wealth, we propose to trace the progress of the iron trade in our own country.

In sketching the advance of the American iron trade, it will be necessary to go back to the condition of this enterprise in the nation while it constituted the colonies of England. It can scarcely be supposed that this metal was yielded to any very great extent during our colonial dependence, for the mines which are now known to prevail here so extensively, had not been developed, nor could the labor of the people at that early period have been employed with any great advantage upon this staple. But notwithstanding those obvious facts, it appears that the crown of England regarded the probable progress of this species of our enterprise with no little fear, by the enactments that were from time to time passed in order to prevent its production and export.

Going back to the earliest production of iron in our country, it appears that this metal was first produced in the province of Virginia during the year 1715, and the sister colonies of Maryland and Pennsylvania soon emulated the energy of the ancient dominion, in directing their attention to the production of the same metal. The development of this new source of wealth was naturally regarded with considerable interest by the colonial settlers, and the satisfaction with which its production was viewed abroad, may be learned from a writer of that day, who declares "that they have iron-stone all along the continent, from the southernmost part of Carolina to the northernmost part of New England, in great plenty, and no part of the world abounds more with prodigious quantities of wood, nor with more rivers and streams;"* and he adds, moreover—"Had we a full supply of it from our plantations, we might not only ballast our ships with it, but export great quantities to those countries, and even to Africa and India." This view of the colonial trade in iron was, however, regarded in a very different light by the proprietors of British iron works, who viewed them with jealousy, as the formidable rival of their own establishments, and opposed all those measures that were calculated to favor the production of iron in the colonies of America. Two years afterward, namely, in 1719, a bill was introduced into parliament, one of the most prominent features of which was, that "none of the plantations should manufacture iron wares of any kinds out of any sows, pigs, or bars whatsoever, under certain penalties;"† and to this another clause was added by the house of peers, establishing that "no forge, going by water, or other work whatsoever, should be erected in any of the plantations, for making sows, pigs, or cast-iron into bar or rod iron." The necessary consequence of this *iron policy* must have been to drive away every forge from the infant colonies of the country, and to blow out the fire and manacle the hands of every smith, by prohibiting him from making a bolt, a spike, or a nail. It is clearly ascertained that much controversy existed during the period of 1737, upon the propriety of the exportation of iron from the British American colonies to the parent country, and on that question there sprang up two powerful and opposing parties.

* See Scrivenor's History of the Iron Trade, page 69. † Ibid.

These parties were composed of the merchants on the one side, who were, as a body, favorable to the importation of iron, as well as hemp, from the colonies, upon the ground that they were two articles of very great importance to the navy and mercantile shipping of the British empire; and that class presented to parliament very urgent petitions for this object. The opponents of the petitions of the merchants were, as might have been expected, the proprietors of the English iron works, and the owners of English woodlands, the two classes the most directly interested in the production of iron in England. It was maintained by the merchants that, inasmuch as the importation of iron into England was of great amount, and introduced from Sweden and Russia, the principal part being paid for in money, and since the iron of the British colonies was equal in quality to the foreign iron, good policy should warrant the importation into England of American iron, as the price could be paid in British manufactures required in the colonies; and, moreover, from the enhanced price of cord wood, in consequence of the amount required in refining iron stone, the importation of more pig-iron from America would enable them to make more bar-iron in England. It was also maintained that the most direct mode of preventing the manufactures of the American colonies from interfering with those of England, was the granting to us encouragement to produce rough materials like that of the coarser species of iron. It was proposed that, in order to further the policy last named, an additional duty should be laid on all foreign bar-iron imported, and to repeal those which existed on the importation of iron from the American colonies. The policy of the merchants at length prevailed, and in the year 1750, an act was passed, a prominent clause of which was, "that pig-iron made in the British colonies in America, may be imported duty free, and bar-iron into the port of London; no bar-iron so imported to be carried coast-wise, or to be landed at any other port, except for the use of his majesty's dock-yards, and not to be carried beyond ten miles from London." A clause was however inserted in the same bill, prohibiting the manufacture of iron in the colonies. A long series of petitions and remonstrances soon sprung from this legislation, on the part of the merchants, as also the proprietors of the woodlands and the iron foundries; the one side claiming that the tendency of that measure would be a very great injury to the interests of the producers of this article, and to that of the kingdom, and the other advocating the probable existence of directly opposite consequences. The result of these several petitions and remonstrances, was a report to the house of commons, of a committee that was appointed to prepare a bill, maintaining that the importation of bar-iron from the British colonies in America, into the port of London, should be extended to all the other ports of Great Britain, and that so much of that act as related to this cause, should be repealed; which was done in a subsequent act of 1765, permitting the American colonies to export their iron also to Ireland. Such were the prominent features of the legislation of the British government respecting the colonial iron trade. The occurrence of the revolution, in 1775, severed our colonial dependence upon the mother country, and forever terminated the legislation of the crown over the colonial products.

The system of measures for the firm establishment of the domestic interests of the country, springing from the organization of the government, and the erection of a solid and architectural plan of national policy, at the

termination of the war of the revolution, was felt in its influence upon the iron trade, as well as the other mercantile interests of the nation, and it continued gradually to progress until the close of our last war (of 1812) with Great Britain. While that war was pending, an extraordinary impulse was given to the production of iron, as well as other branches of domestic industry, cut off as we then were from the ocean, that had before been a most fruitful field of our enterprise, and a large amount of capital which had been scattered upon other adventures, was directed to this valuable staple; workshops, mills, and machinery sprang up, and foreign artisans were encouraged to settle in various parts of the country. As early as 1809 indeed, the secretary of the treasury had, in an able report, portrayed in a fitting manner the inexhaustible resources of the nation; and during the following year, (1810,) in a report from the same source, upon the subject of manufactures, that functionary specifies the article of iron, and the manufactures of iron, as firmly established in all the states, constituting an important portion of the consumption of the United States. According to the returns of the marshals, the quantity of bar-iron produced at that time, was twenty-four thousand four hundred and seventy-one tons, which were then valued at two million six hundred and forty thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight dollars; of which quantity, ten thousand nine hundred and sixty-nine tons were yielded in the single state of Pennsylvania.* The ores of iron having been at that period discovered in most of the states of the Union, and mines being then worked in the states of New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina.

The state of Massachusetts had at that time an extensive establishment for the manufacture of arms, New Hampshire iron works sufficient for the consumption of the state, and Vermont possessed forges, furnaces, and slitting-mills which yielded many tons of bar-iron. In Rhode Island there had been early established a slitting-mill, three anchor forges, and machines for cutting nails; while the state of New York possessed many forges, furnaces, and bloomeries; Connecticut contributed its hollow iron ware, nails, tinned plates, and iron wire, and its modicum of fire-arms; and New Jersey its bar-iron and nail-rods, hollow ware and castings. Pennsylvania also exhibited extensive manufactures of iron, slitting-mills and foundries, and its manufacture of steam engines; and Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and South Carolina had already begun to lay the foundation of extensive iron manufactures.

On the third of July, 1815, a commercial treaty was entered into between Great Britain and the United States, establishing for both a reciprocal freedom of commerce for the period of four years. By this act no higher duties were to be imposed upon articles exported and imported than those demanded of other nations, and the same duties as well as bounties were affixed to those vessels in which they were transported. An amendment was however made in our own tariff during the year 1818, and subsequently in 1824, and also in 1828 there was a still more important alteration made, particularly affecting the importation of British iron.

Prior to the establishment of the tariff of 1828 however, a committee was appointed by congress to examine and to exhibit the facts connected

* See Pitkin's Statistics of the United States.

with our domestic manufactures, and particular evidence was adduced upon the subject of iron. From the testimony of the respectable individuals who were interrogated upon the condition of the iron manufacture in the state of Pennsylvania, it appears that according to their estimate, there were at that time manufactured in that state twenty-one thousand and eight hundred tons of bar-iron, and forty-seven thousand and seventy-five tons of cast metal, of which thirty-seven thousand and two hundred tons were used in making bar-iron, and fourteen thousand three hundred and sixty-five tons of castings,—one hundred tons of iron being converted into nails. It was also stated, that at that time there were three thousand tons of bar-iron manufactured in the neighborhood of Lake Champlain. It was moreover alleged from the same sources, that in the state of New York there were, within a circle of thirty miles in diameter, eighty-one forge fires in use, each forge having two fires and one hammer; that the capital invested in one hundred and ten forge fires in operation, was one million two hundred and ten thousand dollars, each fire capable of producing from twenty-five to thirty-five tons per annum, employing five thousand seven hundred and twenty hands; and that in the counties of Morris, Bergep, and Sussex, in New Jersey, there were manufactured two thousand and fifty tons. Such was the substance of the evidence elicited by the official investigation of 1828, and resulting in the augmentation of the protective duties of the country.

Two years afterward, namely, in 1830, a report was made to the House of Representatives against the expediency of altering the tariff; and on the 8th of February, of the same year, Mr. Cambreleng, the chairman of the committee on commerce and navigation, submitted to the house of representatives a very able and eloquent report, in which he advocated a substantial modification of the existing tariff law, claiming that the revenue system of the United States abounded in a tissue of absurdities, and should be amended. Mr. Cambreleng, at that time the organ of the most influential commercial emporium of the United States, followed up his report by a bill to amend the navigation laws of the country, which was twice read; but the party of the tariff arrayed themselves against the chamber of commerce, and the memorialists at length prevailed and defeated the bill.

During the next session of congress, the attention of the national legislature was called by the message of the president to the revenue system of the country, and he declares in that document, "objects of national importance alone ought to be protected; of these, the productions of our soil, our mines, and our workshops, essential to national defence, occupy the first rank. Whatever other species of domestic industry having the importance to which I have referred, may be expected after temporary protection to compete with foreign labor on equal terms, merit the same attention in a subordinate degree."^{*} Although the two parties, which had before been violently opposed upon the question of revising the tariff, still existed, the report of the majority of the committee on manufactures opposed any modification of the existing revenue laws, upon the ground that their consequences had not been fully tested, and the minority of the committee presented a counter report upon the same subject. About the same time a petition of the iron manufacturers of Philadelphia was presented

* Message of President Jackson, December, 1830.

to the senate and house of representatives, praying—1st. That all the existing duties on pig-iron, scraps, boiler plates, and all other iron in loops, slabs, blooms, or any other state but manufactured and bar-iron, be abolished or repealed, and the importation on the same be admitted free of duty. 2d. That all bar-iron manufactured by hammering, be admitted subject to the duty of April 27, 1816, on its importation, to wit, at the rate of 45 cents per cwt. 3d. That all descriptions of iron manufactured by rolling, including bar, bolt, rod, sheet, and hoop, of every size and quality, be admitted subject to a duty not exceeding that now imposed on the importation of hardware, namely, 25 per cent. 4th. That wire of iron or steel, of all sizes and numbers, be admitted subject to the same duty as the manufactures of wire now are on their importation, namely, 25 per cent. 5th. That the duty now imposed on railroad iron, when purchased in the United States, be remitted, or a drawback of the existing duty be allowed thereon, on all sums exceeding 50 dollars. And lastly, that the existing duties on steel be abolished or repealed, and the importation of the same admitted free of duty.” Opposed to the advocates of a change of the tariff, a delegation from several states of the Union, entitled the friends of domestic industry, assembled in convention at New York, maintaining in their address to the people of the country, the right of Congress to impose duties for protection of domestic manufactures as well as for revenue. A committee consisting moreover of members from Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, were appointed to draft a report upon the production and manufacture of iron and steel in the United States, a document which contained much valuable matter, collected with great care.

The subjoined tables exhibit the result of their investigations upon the subject.

STATES.	1828.			1829.			1830.		
	Furnaces.	Pig-iron.	Castings.	Furnaces.	Pig-iron.	Castings.	Furnaces.	Pig-iron.	Castings.
	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Tons.
Pennsylvania...	44	24,822	3,693	44	27,425	4,564	45	31,056	5,506
New Jersey....	11	1,733	6,264	11	1,941	5,998	10	1,671	5,615
Maryland.....	5	2,247	483	5	1,715	1,065	6	3,163	1,259
Virginia.....	2	400	50	2	702	72	2	538	43
Ohio.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	5,400	250
Delaware.....	1	450	350	1	450	350	1	450	350
Missouri.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	590	250
	63	29,652	10,840	63	32,233	12,049	73	42,868	13,273

“One furnace, erected in Pennsylvania in 1830, will, in 1831, make 1,100 tons of pig-iron.

In addition to the seventy-three furnaces mentioned in the preceding table, from which detailed returns had been received, the committee had information of 129 furnaces, in the states of Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Tennessee, New Hampshire, Virginia, and Ohio, in actual operation, but from them had then received no returns. Taking the production of the seventy-three furnaces, from which

returns have been received, as the rate for estimating the whole, and the following would be the result:

Years.	Furnaces. No.	Pig-iron. Tons.	Castings. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1828	192	90,368	33,036	123,404
1829	192	98,234	36,720	134,954
1830	202	118,620	36,728	155,348

But as the greater part of the furnaces, not included in the returns, are situated in districts where but few castings are made, the committee have not felt authorized to estimate the quantity of castings made at them at more than about 5 per cent of their entire production, which would give the following proportions and result:

Years.	Furnaces. No.	Pig-iron. Tons.	Castings. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1828	192	108,564	14,840	123,404
1829	192	118,404	16,549	134,954
1830	202	137,075	18,273	155,348

From the best information the committee have been able to collect on this subject, they estimate, that of the pig-iron made in these years, about 10,000 tons per annum have, upon an average, been converted in the air furnaces and cupolas into castings, leaving to be manufactured into bar-iron—

In 1828, of pig-iron, 98,564 tons, making of bars	70,403 tons.
1829 " 108,405 "	77,432 "
1830 " 127,075 "	90,768 "

And which quantities severally correspond with remarkable proportional accuracy with the returns from 132 forges, which accompanied the returns from the seventy-three furnaces first mentioned.

In East Jersey, in a part of Connecticut, in a large district of New York, and in Vermont, bar-iron is extensively made by the process technically denominated "blooming," or by a single operation from the ore, without the intervention of the blast-furnace.

The returns already received justify the committee in putting down this description of bar-iron, for the year 1828, at 5,341 tons; 1829, 5,654 tons; 1830, 5,853 tons; of which 2,197 tons in East Jersey—making a total of bar-iron for 1828, of 75,744 tons; 1829, 83,086 tons; 1830, 96,621 tons; and the entire quantity of iron, in its first stage, as shown in the following table:

Description of iron.	1828.	1829.	1830.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Pig-iron	108,564	118,405	137,075
Castings from blast-furnaces	14,840	16,549	18,273
Bloomed bar-iron, for the years respectively, reduced to pig-iron, at 28 cwt. to the ton of bars	7,477	7,916	8,194

Total iron in pigs and castings, 130,881 142,870 163,542

Total increase of all kinds of iron in two years very nearly 25 per cent.

For the purpose of determining the value of the above iron, the committee have taken the average prices of the principal sea-ports, and those

of Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, and have estimated that two thirds of the bar-iron made in the United States is sold in the western markets. The proportion may be greater, which would increase the entire value.

In 1828 the average price of American hammered iron in the principal cities east of the Susquehannah was 105 dollars, and at Pittsburgh and Cincinnati 125 dollars; the average estimated as above would be 118 $\frac{1}{3}$. In 1829 the prices were 100 and 122—giving an average of 114 $\frac{2}{3}$; and in 1830, 90 and 100 dollars—average 96 $\frac{2}{3}$. Castings from the blast furnaces are valued at 60 dollars, although many sell higher; and from the air furnace and cupola at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per lb., which is certainly not above the average rate.

At these prices the aggregate value of the iron made in—

1828 would be	\$10,861,440
1829	11,528,134
1830	11,444,410

Increase in market value in two years, less than 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; decrease in value from 1829 to 1830, nearly three fourths of one per cent."

As the manufacture of steel is intimately connected with that of iron, it may be important to state that the report on that subject, made at the same time, exhibits the number of steel furnaces then existing in the United States, to have been fourteen, and established in the following places, namely, two at Pittsburgh, one in Baltimore, in Philadelphia three, in New York three, in York county, Pennsylvania, one, in Troy one, in New Jersey two, and in Boston one, all capable of producing annually sixteen hundred tons. The committee in their report go on to say: But it should be observed, that steel, for common agricultural purposes, is not the best, although it is most used, and that American is quite equal to English steel, used for such purposes in England. American competition has excluded the British common blister-steel altogether. The price of blister-steel is less than it was before 1828, and probably as low as it ever will be—certainly as low as it ought to be, having a just consideration for the manufacturer and his customer. The only steel now imported from Great Britain is of a different and better quality than that just mentioned. It has been the laudable pride of American legislation to advance with the increasing enterprise of the people, and to encourage discoveries of those mineral treasures, towards which that enterprise might be profitably directed. The committee having shown the result of such countenance from government, in the instance of common blister-steel, may be allowed to anticipate the effects of its continuance, and that protection will be hereafter acknowledged as the parent of perfection.

Steel imported here, from all parts of the world, except England, (although the German steel is freely employed in some branches of manufactures,) amounts to so considerable a quantity, that the competition for ascendancy in our own market must rest between that nation and this. We already supply ourselves, to her exclusion, with common steel; and, to give some idea how extensively it affects our manufactures, the committee will state two or three striking facts. The iron of this country, when properly made, has been found equal in quality to Russian and Swedish iron used in England for conversion into steel, and, being so converted, is employed in making large and rough implements of manufacture and agriculture. It is used in the fabrication of ploughshares, it is worked up by shovel-makers, among whom one in Philadelphia uses

more than fifty tons a year. Scythe-makers are among the best customers of a steel furnace, and cross-cut and mill saw-makers use more than any other manufacturers. One factory of this kind, in Philadelphia, requires a ton and a half of steel per diem, for every working day of the year. These isolated instances may give some idea of the vast consumption of steel in the numerous factories of the United States, and for this purpose alone they are stated.

The English, however, continue to supply us with the superior qualities. These are—

1. Blister-steel, from iron of the Danamora mines, in Sweden.
2. Sheer-steel, of the same origin.
3. Cast-steel.

As to the first, being the best quality of blister-steel, a house in Hull monopolizes all the iron made from Danamora ore, under a contract, by which the parties in Sweden are to forfeit £10,000 sterling if they sell to anybody else, so that no other European country can furnish a good file, without resorting to England for the steel that is made of Danamora iron, this excelling all others in Europe for files, and many other instruments. The British manufacturers, aware of the advantages of their monopoly, continue to exact the same price for their steel delivered in America that they did before the duty on the Swedish iron was reduced in England, from 28.88 to 6.66 dollars per ton—thus proving that an article whose low duty approaches nearest to no duty, (almost “free trade,”) is charged to this country at a rate no less than before the reduction of duty took place in England.

It is, however, a cause for congratulation here, that iron of similar or equal quality to that which has thrown all the advantages of manufacturing the best articles of cutlery, into British hands, has been made recently, by improved processes, from the ore of Juniata, and both sides of the line between New York and Connecticut—the latter denominated the Ancrum, the Livingston, and the Salisbury ore. Steel is now made at Pittsburgh, and may be made in New York and Connecticut, bearing a fair comparison with the best hoop L (L) or Danamora steel that comes from England. No difference is observed where trials have been made, without disclosing to the judges the origin of either. Two establishments, one in New York and another in Pittsburgh, have justified this statement, and encouraged a hope that the products of our own mines, smelted by means of modern improvements in the construction of furnaces and application of the blast, and elaborated by machinery lately introduced, will rival the best quality of steel that England can furnish.

The second kind of first quality British steel is called “sheer-steel.” This is nothing more than blister-steel, drawn under a tilt-hammer into bars of the various sizes used in the fabrication of some articles of cutlery, and the finer kinds of edge tools. England has hitherto monopolized this branch also, from being in possession of the only European steel that would bear the expense of preparation, and from the perfection of her machinery. She has now the honor of transferring a portion of her experience and skill to the United States. Her workmen in steel, wanting employment or adequate recompense for labor at home, continually seek these among us; and it is believed that these may be afforded to such an extent as to yield them support commensurate with their industry, and that

ingenious men, who, under other circumstances, might have been compelled to pursuits not congenial with their education, or to be dependents upon public bounty, will become useful citizens, instead of idlers and beggars in the land."

The third kind of steel (best quality) is called "cast-steel," and this is made from the best blister-steel only. There is none made in the United States. Several attempts to make it with profit have proved unfortunate.

The causes of failure were—

1. The want of best quality blister-steel (of which only it can be made) at a reasonable price.

2. The want, or expense, of crucibles of proper quality, wherein the blister-steel is to be melted and smelted.

The first difficulty may be surmounted by the discovery that iron, well made, from the ores of Juniata, New York, and Connecticut, may be converted to the best blister-steel; and the second difficulty is believed to be at an end, since the explorations of the present year have disclosed the existence of clay analogous to that of Stourbridge, which is considered the best in the world for crucibles. Centre, Clearfield, and Lycoming counties (Pennsylvania) have yielded large specimens of clay that satisfy geologists, mineralogists, and chemists, of the identity of its properties with those of Stourbridge. Clay, in the vicinity of Baltimore, has been successfully employed in the manufacture of fire-brick, and may probably be used for the manufacture of crucibles for cast-steel, if properly prepared. The great impediment to the making of cast-steel has not arisen from any mystery in the art, but the want of strength in the crucibles. Black lead, and a variety of clays, have been tried, but the weakness of these materials have hitherto caused a loss to the manufacturer, because the crucibles made of them would not bear moving when the melted metal was in them (generally about 28 lbs.) The Stourbridge was the only kind of clay that possessed the requisite qualities of preserving its shape and soundness when exposed to the greatest heat, and its strength and tenacity when moved for the purpose of discharging the melted metal. Capital, enterprise and perseverance will be engaged to bring this desirable material, so indispensable to the finer arts of cutlery and machinery into market, if protection be continued to the efforts which our citizens are willing to make.

If these views are correct, we have steel for agricultural purposes in the greatest abundance; we have steel (sheer-steel) for nicer purposes, and we may have cast-steel for the most refined articles of manufacture among ourselves. But this is not all; we may export our steel to Russia, Prussia, and France, in competition with England herself; and thus justify the further importation of foreign commodities which we can have the means of paying for. The subject of steel becomes more interesting as our investigation of it advances; but it is believed that the facts and inferences now set forth, will suffice to continue the protection already granted, and to procure time for more extensive practical development, which, if realized, will add to the means of domestic employment and beneficial intercourse with foreign nations.

It is estimated that the average annual quantity of hammered iron that was imported into the United States, from the year 1821 to 1830, was about twenty-six thousand two hundred tons, besides five thousand six hundred tons of rolled iron—in all thirty-one thousand eight hundred tons,

which were valued at one million seven hundred and sixty-two thousand dollars. The total amount of hammered and rolled iron consumed in the United States during the latter year, having been estimated at about one hundred and forty-four thousand six hundred and sixty-six tons, the greater part being our own domestic manufacture.

It was moreover estimated that the annual value of the foreign manufactures of iron consumed in our own country, from 1821 to 1830, was, on an average, about four millions of dollars; and the total value of foreign iron and its manufactures, about five million seven hundred and sixty-two thousand dollars—we receiving about one half of the hardware and cutlery exported from Great Britain. The total amount of iron produced in our own country, in 1830, and the connection of this species of industry with agriculture, as well as the value of the several articles manufactured from iron and steel, imported during the same year, exhibiting the proportion of our production of iron to the imports from abroad, will appear from the following tables, gathered from the report to which allusion has been made.

GENERAL RECAPITULATION.

	<i>By the report.</i>	<i>Supplementary Returns.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Bar-iron made in the United States, tons...	96,621	16,245	112,866
Pig-iron, the whole quantity made being computed as such.....	163,543	27,994	191,536
Value..... dollars			13,329,760
Men employed..... number	24,979		29,254
Persons subsisted..... —	124,895		146,273
Annual wages..... dollars	7,493,700		8,776,420
Paid for food furnished by farmers —	3,415,850		4,000,490

The following statement may be useful in making comparisons, and is therefore added:

The importation of manufactures of iron and steel in 1830, were:

Side-arms and fire-arms, other than muskets and rifles	Drs.	179,153
Drawing knives, axes, adzes, and socket chisels		29,207
Bridle bits of every description		62,271
Steelyards, scale beams, and vices		30,899
Cutting knives, sickles, scythes, reaping hooks, spades and shovels		95,004
Screws, weighing 24 lbs. or upwards		17
Wood screws		66,817
Other articles not specified		2,908,978
Muskets	No.	8,341
Rifles		85
Iron and steel wire	lbs.	592,733
Tacks, brads, and sprigs		2,799
Nails		613,704
Spikes		37,873
Cables and chains, and parts thereof		540,628
Mill cranks and mill iron, wrought		2,781
Mill saws		4,395
Anchors		22,672
		1,121

Anvils	lbs. 677,246	Drs. 31,249
Hammers and sledges	75,616	3,096
Castings	1,157,256	38,686
Braziers' rods	218,428	5,945
Nails and spike rods	32,848	784
Sheets and hoop	2,326,796	59,822
Slit or rolled for band, scroll or case- ment rods	2,845	81
In pigs	cwt. 22,499	25,644
Bar and bolt, rolled	138,981	226,336
Hammered	lbs. 68,753,943	1,730,375
Steel	cwt. 24,472	291,957

Nearly all the iron, with its manufactures imported, was received from England, except the hammered bar and bolt iron, of which 21,912,702 lbs. were from Russia, 45,206,082 lbs. from Norway and Sweden, 984,399 lbs. from England, leaving less than a million of pounds for all other places.

The tariff regulating the import of iron remained in the same condition until 1832, when the act was passed on the 14th of July of that year, providing a more fixed policy upon the subject, an act which brings us down to the present period, and we now design to exhibit in a compendious form the present condition of the iron production and trade in the United States.

The recent extraordinary extension of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and the mechanic arts throughout the country, all demanding large quantities of iron in their various forms, the multiplication of railroads, requiring iron for their tracks, as well as that of steamboats, and manufacturing establishments of various sorts, working only by iron muscles, the increased demand for this staple both for carriages of different kinds and houses, agriculture and the trades, have all tended to augment vastly the production and consumption of iron. Of the amount of this production we are furnished as accurate information as could probably be obtained by the last census for 1840, taken by act of congress. By this document it appears that there were during that year, in the United States, eight hundred and four furnaces, producing two hundred and eighty-six thousand nine hundred and three tons of cast-iron, one quarter of which was made into hollow ware, stove plates, plough castings, machinery, and such forms, which, when so made, was worth eighty dollars per ton; the value of the whole being \$5,738,080 00

The remaining 215,177 tons of pig-iron is converted into wrought iron, and is merged in the 197,233 tons mentioned below.

According to the same authority, there are 795 bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills, which produce 197,233 tons of bar, rod, hoop, sheet, and other wrought iron, which is worth in market \$85 per ton, 16,764,805 00

According to the report of the secretary of the treasury for 1840, there were 5,515 tons of pig-iron imported in that year which was converted into forms at an average expense of \$50 per ton, 275,750 00

The whole value of iron made in the U. States, in 1840, \$22,778,635 00

The labor bestowed on the manufacture of a ton of pig-iron varies in different locations. It depends on the convenience of contiguity to each other of the various materials required. It will average, including mining, coaling, hauling, transportation, and all other charges, \$20 per ton, which on 71,726 tons, as above mentioned, which are used for casting forms, \$1,434,520 00

Labor bestowed in converting 71,726 tons of pig-iron made in the United States, as per foregoing statement, into cast forms, such as hollow ware, machinery, stove plates, plough castings, and other articles of use made of cast-iron, including labor in mining, and procuring fuel and all other things necessary, will average at least \$30 per ton, 2,151,780 00

Labor bestowed in converting 5,515 tons of pig-iron imported in the United States, calculated as in the last foregoing article, at \$30 per ton, 165,450 00

Labor bestowed in making wrought iron, in procuring the materials and consolidating them, varies even more than in pig-iron, because the materials are more numerous and are liable to be further asunder, and the description of iron is more diverse. If, however, the mineral coal used is the product of the United States, all the labor, including smelting, mining, coaling, hauling, transportation, and all other incidental and necessary charges for labor, will average at least \$60 per ton, which, on 197,233 tons, as set forth in the census, amount to 11,833,980 00

Whole expense of labor bestowed annually in making iron in the United States \$15,585,730 00

According to the census, the number of men employed in producing the above iron, including miners of iron, is 30,497. To this number may be added miners of coal and limestone, wood choppers, and charcoal colliers, carriers and carters, builders and millwrights, and other incidental workmen, which will probably increase it to 42,701; and, at this number, each workman will receive one dollar per day, which is believed not far from the truth. It will be remembered that all the work in manufacturing iron, and incidental thereto, is heavy, and requires the strength and physical power of men; consequently women and children are excluded from this employment, and most of the men have large families. It may be assumed, without extravagance, that, as an average, each man has a woman and three children depending upon him for support. It is true that some have no families, but others have a dozen children, enough to verify the above supposition. Allowing this supposition, the whole number of persons sustained by the labor on and incidental to the manufacture of iron, including men, women,

and children, is 213,505. Allowing each of these persons to consume each day $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents worth of agricultural products, and the whole amount consumed in 365 days, is	\$9,741,166 00
According to the census, the capital employed in manufacturing the above iron is a little less than the amount of the product, which is what might be inferred by every man of practical experience, to wit	20,432,131 00
It is believed, from facts and data ascertained and admitted, that there are in the United States about 450 blast furnaces, and that the average yield of each is 772 tons per annum, (this is the ascertained average of 73 furnaces,) making an aggregate of 347,400 tons, worth in market \$30 per ton	10,422,000 00
It is believed that one fourth of this quantity (to wit, 86,850 tons) is converted into forms, such as hollow ware, machinery, plough castings, stove plates, and other articles of use made of cast-iron, and, when so converted, is worth, on an average, in addition to the worth of the pig-iron, \$50 per ton	4,342,500 00
In addition to the 86,850 tons above mentioned, there was imported into the United States, according to the report of the secretary of the treasury, for 1840, 5,515 tons of pig-iron, which was also converted into forms, and was worth, when so converted, \$50 per ton more than pig-iron	275,750 00
There are 795 bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills, in the United States.	
The remaining three fourths of the 347,400 tons of pig-iron made in the United States, as shown above, that is not remelted and cast into forms, to wit, 260,550 tons,) is converted (allowing 20 per cent for waste) into 208,440 tons of bar, rod, hoop, sheet, and other wrought iron, by puddling and refining, which is worth in market \$85 per ton	\$17,717,400
From which deduct for 260,550 tons pig-iron, reckoned in first item above at \$30 per ton	7,816,500
	<hr/> 9,900,900 00
To the wrought iron mentioned in the foregoing article may be added 11,774 tons of bloomed iron, worth in market \$70 per ton	824,180 00
	<hr/>
Whole value of wrought and cast-iron in market, made in the United States in 1840	<u><u>\$25,765,330 00</u></u>

The labor bestowed on the manufacture of a ton of pig-iron varies in different locations. It depends on the convenience and contiguity to each other of the various materials required. It will average, including mining, coaling, hauling, transportation to market, and all other charges, \$20 per ton, which, on 347,400 tons,

assumed as the manufacture of the United States, is	\$6,948,000 00
Labor bestowed in converting 86,850 tons of pig-iron, made in the United States, as shown in foregoing statement, into cast forms, such as hollow ware, machinery, stove plates, plough castings, and other articles of use made of cast-iron, including labor in mining and procuring fuel, and all other things necessary, will average at least \$30 per ton	2,605,500 00
Labor bestowed in converting 5,515 tons of pig-iron, imported into the United States, calculated, as in the last foregoing article, at \$30 per ton	165,450 00
Labor bestowed in converting pig into wrought iron, in procuring the materials and consolidating them, varies even more than in making pig-iron, because the materials are liable to be further asunder, and the descriptions of iron are more diverse. If, however, the mineral coal used is the product of the United States, all the labor, including mining and procuring fuel, hauling, transportation, and all other incidental and necessary charges for labor, will average at least \$40 per ton, which, on 208,440 tons, as set forth above, amounts to	8,337,600 00
Labor bestowed in blooming 11,774 tons of wrought iron, including coaling, hauling, transporting to market, and all the incidental and necessary charges, as set forth in the foregoing article, will average \$60 per ton	706,440 00
Whole amount paid for labor, annually, for the manufacture of iron in the United States	\$18,762,990 00

It is believed that the number of men employed in manufacturing the above iron, including miners of iron, of coal, and of limestone, wood-choppers and charcoal colliers, carriers and carters, builders and millwrights, and other incidental workmen, is 51,405 ; this number will each receive \$365 per year. It will be remembered that all the work in manufacturing iron, and incidental thereto, is heavy, and requires the strength and physical power of men ; consequently, women and children are excluded from this employment, and most of the men have large families. It may be assumed, without extravagance, that, as an average, each man has a woman and three children depending on him for support. It is true that some have no families ; but others have a dozen children—enough to verify the above assumption. Allowing this supposition, the whole number of persons sustained by the labor on, and incidental to, the manufacture of iron, including men, women, and children, is 257,025. Allowing each of these persons to consume, each day, the worth of 12½ cents of agricultural products, and the whole

amount consumed in 365 days is \$11,726,766 00

This falls a little short of the facts actually ascertained at several establishments, owing principally to grain and forage fed to horses and cattle employed in the business.

It is ascertained that the capital employed in the manufacture of iron at several establishments is a little less than the amount of the annual product of those establishments; and it is believed that this rule will hold true throughout the country, if we exclude the value of the large quantities of woodland held in connection of many of the furnaces and bloomeries. The capital employed will therefore amount, according to this rule, to about \$22,500,000 00

The prices of iron, and its manufacture, for 1841 and 1842, are a subject of considerable interest to those who are engaged in the iron trade, and we have an authentic statement upon this subject from Mr. Henry Brevoort, who prepared it for a public purpose.

The report in which it is found has appended a large mass of very valuable information at the present time, regarding the various manufactures of the country, collected from the last census, from judicious calculations based upon ascertained facts, and from experienced men, all having an important bearing upon the subject of the tariff. Notwithstanding the great amount of loose and idle thought which has been long afloat upon the matter, it would seem that no sound and judicious legislation can be established, but upon a thorough understanding of the character of the different sorts of our productive industry, their relations to each other, and their value, as they appear to be affected by the importations of the same species of articles from abroad, and the direct consequences flowing from any given policy respecting them, upon the labor and prosperity of the country. The imagination of poetry may paint the most beautiful results as springing from free trade or a protective tariff, but all considerate and reflecting men will choose to look at a subject of legislation like this in the clear light of sober fact and common sense. The vision of the enthusiast which sees upon the evening clouds, tinged by the setting sun, the gorgeous outline of heaven-lit palaces, and the drapery of another world lighted up with radiant and golden hues, soon finds himself gazing upon a dim, dark waste. There is doubtless a bright and splendid prospect spread out for the labor of the country by the fixed and permanent establishment of our tariff policy, and there can be no doubt that the report will contribute to that end. It is a subject, however, which would seem to require investigation and reasoning from details, rather than in the abstract, and it now appears to be passing through a judicious discussion that is calculated to settle it upon a solid foundation. It would, after all, seem not so important to the labor of the country that any precise measure of duty should be affixed to the iron interest, like the other prominent subjects of protection, as that the policy respecting it should be so arranged that our own industry in its production and manufacture should seek out and flow in a uniform channel. But we return to the subject of the prices of iron.

Q.—At what prices were sales made in large quantities in Jan. and July of 1840 and 1841 respectively, and in Jan. of 1842?

Articles.	Janu'y, 1840.	July, 1840.	Janu'y, 1841.	July, 1841.	Janu'y, 1842.
Iron Anvils,.....per pound	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	6 a 11 cts.	6 a 11 cts.
Bars, common English, rolled,.....per ton	£75 a £77½	£65 a £67½	£70 a £72½	£62½ a £65	£50 a £55
Bars, refined, English, rolled,.....per ton	£90 a £97½	£87½ a £90	£85 a £90	£75 a £82½	£75 a £77½
Bars, American refined,.....per ton	£90	£87½	£85	£80	£77½
Bars, Swedes, hammered,.....per ton	£90 a £92½	£80 a £82½	£85 a £87½	£80 a £82½	£80 a £82½
Bars, Old Sable, do.per ton	About 15 dol.	per ton more	than Swedes	iron.	
Bars, bloomed, American, rolled,.....per ton	£80	£70	£65	£60	£60
Blooms,.....per pound	£55 a £65	£50 or £60	£47½ a £57½	£45 a £55	£45 a £55
Boiler Plates, without holes for rivets,.....per pound	5½ a 7 cts.	5 a 6½ cts.	5 a 6½ cts.	4½ a 5½ cts.	4½ a 5½ cts.
Hoops, from ½ to 3 inches wide,.....per ton	£116 a £167	£107 a £153	£91 a £135	£91 a £135	£91 a £135
Kentledge,.....per ton	£20 a 25	£20 a £25	£20 a £25	£18 a £22	£18 a £22
Mill Cranks,.....per pound	8 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 11 cts.	6 a 11 cts.
Nails, wrought,.....per pound	11 a 12 cts.	11 a 12 cts.	11 a 12 cts.	11 a 12 cts.	10 a 11 cts.
Nails, cut,.....per pound	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.
Nail Rods, slit,.....per ton	£105 a £125	£100 a £122½	£100 a £122½	£95 a £122½	£90 a £122½
Spike Rods, rolled, ¼ and ½ inch,.....per ton	£107 a £139	£98 a £128	£87 a £113	£87 a £113	£87 a £113
Pigs, according to the relative proportion of each quality in market, per ton	£33 a 37½	£31 a £35	£30 a £35	£26 a £37½	£27 a £35
Round or Braziers' Rods, of 3-16 to 8-16, inclusive,.....per ton	£114 a £148	£106 a £136	£94 a £120	£94 a £120	£94 a £120
Sad or Flat,.....per pound	4½ a 5½ cts.	4½ a 5½ cts.	4 a 5 cts.	4 a 5 cts.	4 a 5 cts.
Sheets, average thickness,.....per pound	5½ cts.	5 cts.	5½ cts.	5 cts.	5 cts.
Screws, weighing 25 pounds and upwards,.....per pound	18 a 25 cts.	17 a 25 cts.	16 a 20 cts.	15 a 20 cts.	14 a 20 cts.
Screws, not exceeding 25 pounds, not called wood screws,.....per pound	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.
Scythes,.....per dozen	£8 a £18	£8 a £18	£7 a £18	£7 a £18	£7 a £18
Shovels,.....per dozen	£8 a £12	£8 a £12	£7 a £12	£6 a £11	£6 a £11
Slit, for scroll, &c.....per ton	£100 a £125	£94 a £120	£83 a £110	£83 a £110	£83 a £116
Rolled, for band or scroll, from ¾ × ½ to 4 × ¼.....per ton	£100 a £144	£94 a £133	£83 a £116	£83 a £116	£83 a £116
Spikes,.....per pound	7½ a 8½ cts.	7 a 8½ cts.	6 a 7½ cts.	6 a 7 cts.	6 a 7 cts.
Tacks, 2½ to 16 oz. to the M.....per pound	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.
Do. exceeding 16 oz. to the M.....per pound	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.
Brads, from ½ to 2 inch, per M.....per pound	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.
Wire, not exceeding No. 14,.....per pound	6½ a 9½ cts.	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9½ cts.
Do. exceeding No. 14,.....per pound	10½ a 26½ cts.	10½ a 26 cts.	10½ a 26 cts.	10½ a 26 cts.	10 a 25½ cts.

MR. HENRY BREVOORT'S STATEMENT.

The Iron Trade of the United States.

As a subject necessarily springing from the production of iron, we would allude to the already very great amount of machinery, hardware of different kinds, and fire-arms, manufactured in our own country, iron being the staple of which they are mainly composed. By the census of 1840, it appears that there were thirteen thousand and one men employed in machinery, the total value of which is ten million nine hundred and eighty thousand five hundred and eighty-one; five thousand four hundred and ninety-two men engaged in the manufacture of cutlery, which is produced to the value of six millions four hundred and fifty-one thousand nine hundred and sixty-seven dollars; and that there are one thousand seven hundred and forty-four men employed in the making of small-arms, which are produced to the number of eighty-eight thousand and seventy-three. There is no doubt that a considerable proportion of the iron, and especially steel, of which these several articles are composed, are introduced from abroad; but it is also true that the amount produced with us, and used for those purposes, has been gradually increasing with the growth of the country.

The period having arrived in which it has been found necessary to remodel the tariff law, it was made an important object with the committee on manufactures, the chairman of which was Mr. Saltonstall, to collect all the most important facts bearing upon this interest from intelligent and practical iron manufacturers, and from their investigation a large body of evidence was brought together upon that topic. From the amount of iron, raw and manufactured, imported into this country, it seemed important to know what would be the consequence upon the iron interest if the minimum duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, should go into effect on the first of June, 1842; and whether, under such circumstances, the iron manufacture of this country could be sustained? If it could not, and the manufacture of iron is abandoned, whether the country would be benefited? If the manufacture of iron were abandoned, whether the people of the country would obtain their supplies of iron as cheap as in 1839? Lastly, the reason why iron could not be manufactured as cheap with us as in England, or the other nations of Europe? These were the four prominent points involved in the investigation, and the answers of the iron manufacturers were clear and direct.

It was replied by a respectable iron manufacturer of the state of Maryland, that if the compromise act should go into effect, there would not be in operation, in the year 1843, a blast furnace using charcoal in Vermont, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, or Virginia, east of the mountains. To the second question it was answered, that as it required a long period to organize an iron establishment, and to fill it with competent workmen, and longer still to put it into successful operation, suppose we were involved in a war with any of the nations of Europe, we should obtain our supplies from England, the nation with which we were most likely to be involved in war at any time; and under such circumstances we should be thrown into a state of dependence upon another nation for that staple of which is wrought almost every offensive and defensive weapon, with but few exceptions, unless we should go back to the old wooden spade or plough. It was replied to the third question, that if the compromise act should go into operation on the first of June, the American markets would be glutted with the present surplus stocks of England. Their forges, one

fourth of which now lie idle, would be again put in operation, and the prices would be kept low until all our works should be abandoned, when they would advance them at pleasure. If we should arrive at a point in which we could make iron at a moderate profit, the iron workers of England would send their own iron across the water at so cheap a rate as to control all our supplies; while on the other hand, if an adequate protection was furnished to the iron trade of the United States for ten years more, the consumption of the article would cost the country millions of dollars less every year.

From the evidence adduced upon this subject at the period to which we have referred, it would seem that the causes of our inability to manufacture iron as cheaply as in England, as well as other nations of Europe, are various. The first is the value of money. While in England, and upon the continent of Europe, money commands an interest of from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent, it is difficult to be obtained here even at 7, frequently commanding a much higher rate. Besides, the iron works of Europe, having been long established, and grown to that perfection in manufacture and economy in arrangement gained only by experience, are able to produce with the same measure of expense a greater amount of the staple. But the more important fact which causes the difference in the price of the manufacture of foreign and domestic iron, is the difference in the price of labor. It is true, indeed, that in the abundance and variety of our ores we exceed any portion of Great Britain or the continent, but in the greater price of our labor we endure a proportionate disadvantage, so far as the expense of production is concerned. By the report of the board of ordnance officers, sent to Europe in 1840, by Mr. Poinsett, the late secretary of war, it appears that the common laborers employed about the Aker furnace, in Sweden, receive only from twenty to thirty cents per day, and mechanics employed in boring and finishing cannon or skilful machinists from thirty to forty-two cents, and a team of two horses, wagon and driver, is obtained at forty-two cents per day. In France, the wages paid to workmen at the Ruelle Cannon Foundry vary from one to three francs; more than half receiving less than two francs, while the total amount of the wages paid to all the forty workmen is only seventy-five francs, averaging for each thirty-seven and a half cents. It has been alleged from an authentic source, that the value of wages in our own country exceeds that of England by fifty per cent, while it is alleged that it is from two and a half to three times greater with us than in Scotland; which, together with the other facts to which we have alluded, account for the difference in the value of the production of iron in our own country and Europe.

The market of New York is now largely supplied with Russia, Swedish, and English bar-iron, but it appears that the latter comes into the most direct competition with us; it being inferior in quality is manufactured in large quantities and is sold cheap. The best quality is Banks' English refined iron, which is equal to ours, and now competes with our own in market at a duty of \$30 per ton, while the best foreign iron is that of Russia and the Swedish, competing but little with ours, it being principally used for the making of steel springs, and the tools of the trades, besides other articles of a similar character. While the value of our own domestic iron is so much greater than that of the low-priced English, so also is the cost of its production. The Swedish and Russian iron is, we learn,

hammered, while the low-priced English to which we have referred, is either rolled, or puddled and rolled. It is to be hoped that the legislation of the present congress will establish the policy that is to regulate this important interest upon a fixed and permanent basis.

We have endeavored in this paper, compiled from various sources, to group the most prominent points connected with the iron trade of the United States, and to trace the policy that has borne upon it from our earliest colonial existence to the present time. In order rightly to appreciate its importance as a mercantile interest, we need only to look abroad at the part which it bears, not only in the agriculture, but the commerce, the manufactures, and the mechanic arts of the nation. The hills and valleys, the plains and mountains of our wide-spread territory abound in inexhaustible resources of coal and iron, which geological investigations are continually bringing to light. From Cincinnati and Pittsburgh, that through their forges and other establishments for the manufacture of iron send up their clouds of smoke like the rock-bound cavern of antiquity to the shores of the Atlantic, there are scattered already a vast number of iron works, that are pouring forth their products, from the large and ponderous machinery of steam-engines and manufactures down to the most minute implements of domestic use and the trades; and the amount is constantly increasing with the expanding resources and enterprise of the country. With the increase of our commerce must be the augmented demand for the products of our iron works. The staple is moreover gradually extending itself into a much wider circle of use, according to the improvements of the age, and every year we find it moulded into more numerous and beautiful forms. What a very large proportion do the various products of iron bear to the actual trade of our large commercial towns? This question is answered in our numerous warehouses, not only for the sale of the raw material, but in the hardware stores scattered through the large cities and the interior. It now supplies not only the enclosures of our principal public grounds and parks, but the permanent fixtures and railings of our most costly edifices, and indeed we can scarcely pass the streets without meeting some of its numerous manufactures upon every side. It forms the material of the sharpest needle and the strongest bar, the mechanism of the musical snuff-box, the delicate and glittering wheels and spindles that play within the most exquisite watch, and the crashing machinery of the steamship, that drives the hugest fabric through the ocean storm. It provides for war its most formidable weapons, for peace its most valuable implements, and may be considered a fruitful source of domestic comfort and political strength, the grand Archimedian lever of nations. With the augmenting enterprise of the people we doubt not that its production and manufacture are destined to be an increasing source of wealth, and as such, that this grand staple will receive the attention which its importance clearly demands.

ART. III.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER III.

VOYAGE OF VASCO DE GAMA.

THE successful issue of the voyage of Columbus, in 1492, filled the minds of the Portuguese with both admiration and alarm, and determined them to renewed attempts to reach India round the southern point of Africa. This point had been reached in 1486 by Bartholomew Diaz, who had been despatched with three ships, with orders to look out for the kingdom of the famous Prester John. Diaz gave the name of *Tormentosa*, or stormy, to the promontory; but upon his return, the king, in indication of the hope it held out of the long-sought passage, changed it to *Cabo de buena esperanza*, or Cape of Good Hope. The idea of doubling this cape met the same obstacles, and encountered the same prejudices that had attended each step of discovery around the other prominent African capes. It was argued that the storms encountered by Diaz were perpetual, and placed as a barrier to further advance, and that it was an impious tempting of Providence to attempt to proceed any further. King Emanuel had, however, fortunately inherited his predecessor's desire to find out a new route to the riches of the east, and he "determined to proceed so long as the men of penetration and integrity were on his side." He knew that nothing more was necessary to attain success than to employ persons of resolution and judgment to execute his designs; and with this view he selected Vasco de Gama, "a gentleman of quality, ability, and courage," to command the expedition which he had resolved upon.

This voyage of De Gama is to be found in a number of works, as De Barros, Ramusio Maffi, Sousa, and Castanneda. From this last, as condensed by the editor of Astley's Collection, we abridge the following account. Castanneda is considered good authority, and he had ample opportunities of acquiring information, as he went to India, according to Faria y Sousa, "only to examine into the truth of what he wrote; and though neither his style or his geography are very commendable, he hath many curious remarks."

Furnished with letters for the princes of the east, and among the rest to Prester John, and the king of Kalecut, De Gama sailed from Belem, a few miles from Lisbon, on Saturday, the eighth of July, 1497, with three small ships and one hundred and sixty men. The names of the ships were the St. Gabriel, the St. Raphael, and Berrio; the captains, Paul de Gama, brother to Vasco, and Nicolas Nunnez. Arrived in sight of the Canaries, a violent storm separated the admiral from the rest of his squadron, and he did not effect a junction with them until eight days after, at Cape Verde, from whence they went the day after to St. Jago, where they repaired the damages they had suffered from the storm, and took in a supply of water. On the third of August they proceeded on their way, and encountered much tempestuous weather, until the fourth of November, when land was descried, and passing along it on the seventh day they came to a great bay, to which, according to custom, they gave the name of *Angra de Santa Elena*, it being that saint's day on which it was first seen.

The people of this island* were blacks, small of stature, and ill-favored. When they spoke, it seemed as if they sighed. They were clothed in the skins of wild beasts, and lived upon roots, sea-wolves, (seals,) and whales, of which there were great numbers, although it is not explained how they were caught.

Next day the admiral, with his captains, landed, in hopes of finding how far it was to the Cape of Good Hope. The chief pilot, Pedro de Alanquez, who had accompanied Diaz in his voyage, conjectured that it could not be more than thirty leagues at most. The admiral, in his walks, took a man gathering honey at the foot of a bush, and carried him on board, thinking that he had got an interpreter, but none of the ship's crew understood him. Next day they set him on shore well apparelled, which so pleased his countrymen, that the day following fifteen of them came down towards the ships, at sight of whom the admiral went again on shore, carrying with him spice, gold, and pearl, but the natives were evidently ignorant of their value, and evinced much more pleasure at presents of bells and little tin rings. But though ignorant, they were not so very innocent, for they laid an ambush for the Portuguese, and furiously attacked them with darts and spears. The admiral, who had brought no arms with him, was compelled to hasten with his men to the boats. Four Portuguese were wounded, and the admiral received an injury in his leg.

The sixteenth of November, in the forenoon, they departed with a southwest wind, and the eighteenth, in the evening, came in sight of the Cape of Good Hope, which bearing southeast and the wind being contrary, they stood out to sea, but at night again tacked towards shore, and thus sailed until the twentieth, when they doubled the cape, shouting and sounding their trumpets, and making other demonstrations of their joy at the happy event.

On the twenty-fourth they came to San Blas, which is sixty leagues beyond the cape. On a rock in this harbor they saw at one time as many as three thousand sea-wolves. Here the provisions were all taken out of a bark which had accompanied them as a store-ship, and the vessel destroyed.

A few days after their arrival there appeared about ninety of the inhabitants, some on the sands and others on the mountains, whereupon the admiral landed with his men well armed, and made out to strike up a trade in a small way, exchanging brass bells and red night-caps for ivory bracelets. A few days after there came down several hundred negroes, with twelve oxen, which were observed to abound and to be used as beasts of burden, and four sheep. As the Portuguese came on shore the natives commenced playing upon flutes and singing, and their visitors returned the compliment by sounding the trumpets and joining in the dance, and the day passed in feasting and mirth. Not long after more negroes came down with cattle. The Portuguese, having purchased an ox, perceived some young negroes behind the bushes with the weapons of the old ones, and the

* The mistake has been made of supposing that this place was the island of St. Helena. But the island well known by that name was not discovered until 1502, and it is twelve hundred miles from the African coast, so that it would be impossible to reach the Cape of Good Hope, as it is stated that De Gama did. The place is the bay of St. Helena, about thirty miles north of Saldahena bay.

admiral, suspecting some treachery, ordered his men to retire to some more secure place. The negroes made demonstrations of attack, but De Gama, unlike many commanders, was as humane as he was prudent and courageous, and unwilling to do them any harm, he withdrew in his boats without offering any violence, merely directing two pieces of ordnance to be fired over their heads, whereat they were not a little surprised, and fled, leaving their weapons behind.

They departed on the eighth of December, and again encountered a violent storm. The sixteenth they saw some small rocks, about sixty leagues beyond the harbor of San Blas. The country here was very pleasant, and it was observed that the further they advanced the larger and more luxuriant became the trees. They had now fairly rounded the southern extremity of Africa, and began to steer a more northerly course. On Christmas day, 1498, they saw land, to which, on account of the day, they gave the name of *Tierra de Natal*. After this they came to a river, which, as it was the day of Epiphany, they named *de los Reyes*. Here De Gama left two men, part of a company of condemned criminals, which he took with him for the purpose, with directions to inform themselves of every thing they possibly could in relation to the country. Here he succeeded in trading for ivory and provisions.

The eleventh of January, while coasting along in boats, they saw a large company of very tall men and women, and landing, they were well received. The admiral made the negro prince a present of a red jacket, stockings, and cap, which highly pleased his sable majesty, and excited the enthusiastic admiration of his subjects. He invited Martin Alonzo, who spoke several negro languages, to accompany him into the country, where he treated him with great civility.

Departing on the fifteenth from this "land of good people," as De Gama called it, they sailed along a low coast, covered with tall trees, as far as *Cabo Corientes*, or the Cape of Currents. Rounding this cape they proceeded on fifty leagues, passing without seeing it the famous town of Sofala, (supposed by some to be the Ophir of Solomon,) and on the twenty-fourth they came to the mouth of a large river. They had now fairly entered the Mozambique channel, which separates the Island of Madagascar from the continent, and began to encounter the signs of their approach to the regions in the track of Arabic commerce. The people understood something of the Arabic language, were more civilized in their dress, and less astonished at the sight of the strangers.

Leaving the river of "good signs," they came on the fourth of March to four small islands, two near the shore. From one of these several small boats came off, and, as soon as the ships had come to an anchor, the crews came on board. The people in them were tall, somewhat black, clothed with colored calicoes, and wearing linen turbans, wrought with silk and gold. They were armed with swords and daggers, and spoke the Arabic. Being asked what town that was, they replied that the island was called Mozambique; that the town was full of merchants, who traded with the Moors of India for silks, spices, and precious stones. They offered to conduct the ships into the harbor, and Coello having the smallest ship was sent to sound the bar, which, after touching, he passed and anchored his ship within a quarter of a mile from the town. The Portuguese found the harbor good, and the provisions plenty. The inhabitants traded to Sofala, the Red Sea and India, in ships without decks, and built

without nails, the timbers being sewed together with ropes made of the cocoanut husks, and their sails made of palm leaves. They had also the knowledge of charts and the compass. Here De Gama learned that he was on the right route to the renowned city of Kalecut in India, which was represented to be distant about nine hundred leagues. For some time an appearance of friendship was kept up, but the sheikh and his subjects finding out that the Portuguese, whom they at first mistook for Moors, were Christians, laid several plans for their capture. But the prudence of De Gama was more than a match for the treachery of the Moors. At last they were compelled to enter the harbor and procure water by force—the natives being kept at a distance by fear of the ordnance. The twenty-fourth of march, a Moor insulting the fleet from the shore, De Gama, to revenge that and other injuries, manned his boats, and after driving a body of Moors from the shore, who came to oppose his landing, and taking a few, and among the rest a pilot who understood the route to Kalecut, he set fire to their town, the houses of which were constructed of hurdles, and compelled the inhabitants to flee into the country.

On the twenty-seventh day they departed, and worked up along the coast, but unfortunately fell to leeward of Quiloa, which they were unable to regain, and were compelled to stand on to Mombassa, seventy leagues further north. Here they found a flourishing town built of stone, inhabited by Moors, and abounding in fruits of all kinds, fowls, cattle, and sheep without tails. The inhabitants were richly dressed in silks, gold, &c., and the king sent samples of spices, corn, &c., and promised to supply De Gama with gold, silver, amber, and other commodities, at a less price than he could get them anywhere else, which offer De Gama resolved to accept upon his return, if he should not find the market at Kalecut favorable.

In endeavoring to enter the harbor De Gama's ship touched bottom, and he was compelled to come to an anchor. His two Moorish pilots took advantage of the accident to jump overboard and swim to shore. This excited the admiral's suspicion, and to ascertain the true state of the matter he took two of the Moors, whom he had brought from Mozambique, and by dropping hot fat upon their flesh, compelled them to confess that a plot had been laid for the destruction of the ships, and that the pilots had escaped, thinking it had been detected. In the night the Moors came off in great numbers to attack the ships, but were easily frightened away.

On the thirteenth De Gama left Mombassa, and on the way to Melinda he overtook and captured two small Mohammedan vessels, with a good store of gold and silver. Arrived off Melinda the Portuguese were surprised to find a large and flourishing town, with regular streets, and houses several stories high. The city was inhabited by a great many Arab merchants, who carried on an extensive trade with the countries of the Red Sea and India. At first no notice was taken of their arrival, but De Gama having put on shore an old Moor upon a ledge over against the town, a boat was soon sent for him from the city, and he was taken before the king, to whom he explained De Gama's wish to communicate with him. A polite answer, with a present of sheep and fruits, was returned, and the next day the ships were moored nearer in towards the city, and anchored alongside of four India ships manned by Christians. These Christians, by permission of the king, visited the Portuguese ships. They were brown-complexioned, well-proportioned men. They wore large beards

and long hair, and represented themselves to be natives of India. In order to test their religious principles, De Gama ordered them to be shown a picture of the Virgin, and some of the Apostles. Without hesitation they fell down and worshipped it, giving thus incontestable evidence of an orthodox faith.

The next day the king of Melinda came to visit the admiral in great state. He was accompanied by a number of Moors, richly dressed, and several musicians. The admiral, with his principal officers, went to meet him in his boat, and at the king's request took his seat in the royal barge. The king asked many questions as to the part of the world he came from, the object of his coming, &c., and promised that he would send him a pilot for Kalecut. The king was as good as his word, and although De Gama refused to comply with his pressing invitations to land, he sent him an experienced pilot named Kanaca, or according to De Faria, Melemo Kana. "This man was so experienced in his profession, that being shown an astrolabe, he hardly thought it worthy of notice, as being used to more considerable instruments." And indeed the Portuguese found the compass, charts, and quadrant in use with the Moors about this coast.

Having made all preparations, De Gama left Melinda on Tuesday, the twenty-second of April, and stretched off into that immense, and to him unknown tract of ocean, which lay between him and the grand and crowning object of his voyage. Hitherto he had been simply coasting along the shores of Africa, never long out of sight of land, and the tedium of the way relieved by continued novelty and adventure. Now he was to quit the shores which had served him as a shelter and a guide, and dare the dangers of the trackless ocean which filled the space of more than two thousand miles between Melinda and Kalecut. It needed in the leader of such an expedition a sound head and a strong heart. De Gama had both.

The voyage was exceedingly pleasant. On the twenty-eighth they saw the north star for the first time in many months, and on Friday, the seventeenth of May, they descried land, steering southeast; on the twentieth they came within sight of the high hills near Kalecut, and anchored in the open road, about two leagues from the city. Soon several boats came off and conducted the vessels to an anchorage nearer the town.

The first operation of De Gama was to send on shore one of his corps of criminals that he had brought with him from Portugal, with directions to find out what kind of reception was likely to be accorded to them. As soon as this man landed the crowd collected around him, but as he was unable to speak Arabic, they conducted him to the house of a Moor, named Monzayde, who could speak Spanish, and who saluted him at once with the polite exclamation, "The devil take you, what have you come for?" After some further questions, the Moor said that he was acquainted with the Portuguese at Tunis, and liked them very well, but he could not conceive how they had reached India by sea. He accompanied the man back to the ships, and at his first approach he accosted De Gama in Spanish, "Good luck! good luck! many rubies, many emeralds. Thou art bound to give God thanks, for he has brought you where there are all sorts of spices and precious stones, with all the riches of the world." The admiral and his friends wept for joy at being addressed, after so long a voyage and in such a distant country, in a Christian tongue. Monzayde promised to do all the service to the new-comers in his power, and informed them that the king, who at that moment was away from the city, would un-

doubtedly be glad to receive him, especially if he had come in reference to trade, as his revenues arose almost wholly from duties upon merchandise.

As soon as he heard of this arrival, the king of Kalecut, whose proper title was "Samorin," sent to invite the admiral on shore, an invitation which De Gama resolved to accept, although he was strongly opposed by his brother and other officers, who represented that the safety of the expedition depended upon him, and that there would be great danger, if not from the Samorin and his subjects, at least from the numerous Moorish merchants who resided in the place, and whose jealousy would be fully aroused. De Gama, however, trusting to the representations of Monzayde that it was for the interest of the Samorin to extend the trade of his city, resolved to go in person; and on the twenty-eighth of May, he landed with a suit of twelve persons. The kutwal or governor of the town was ready on the beach with an escort and litters to receive him. On their way to the city they were shown a large temple, which the Portuguese concluded, from several figures that they saw and ceremonies that were practised, to be Christian. In a niche in the wall there was a figure, which, when their attendants saw it, they exclaimed Mary, and the Portuguese, who could not see it distinctly in the gloom, taking it to be an image of the Virgin, fell upon their knees and worshipped. One of them, Juan de Sala, had some doubts upon the subject, and excited a laugh by exclaiming, "If this be the devil, I worship God." As they proceeded on their way, the crowds collected in great numbers, and it was only by the strenuous exertions of the nobles and troops that a way could be made for them. Arrived at the palace, they were received by the Samorin in great state and with every mark of respect. He was reclining in a large room, the walls and the floor covered with rich velvet and silks, upon a sofa of white silk and gold. He was clothed in fine linen wrought with gold and covered with pearls, his headdress was filled with precious stones, and his fingers and toes loaded with diamond rings. The attendants all held their left hands before their mouths, so that their breath should not reach the royal lungs, and to prevent any violation of etiquette by spitting or sneezing.

De Gama advanced, making three polite bows, to which the Samorin replied by a slight nod. When all were seated, fruits were brought in, and then water in a vessel having a golden spout. Being informed that it was indecent to touch the spout with their lips, they were compelled to follow the custom of the country, and hold the vessel at some distance, while pouring the water into their mouths; but being unpractised in this novel mode they made many mistakes, and frequently spilled the water over them, much to the diversion of the court. At length the business of the meeting commenced. The Samorin listened to De Gama's representations, made many inquiries as to the power of the king of Portugal and the distance of his dominions, and promised to send him an ambassador, and to give De Gama all necessary assistance and protection. But now commenced the machinations of the Moors, who had for a long time the monopoly of the trade by way of the Red Sea and Alexandria, and who were justly suspicious that the competition of the Portuguese would lessen their gains. The kutwal and other nobles were bribed, and it was represented that De Gama was no ambassador or merchant, but a pirate who had committed great outrages upon the towns of Mozambique, Mombassa, and Melinda, on the coast of Africa. The Samorin's feelings were much changed by these reports, and when the next day De Gama went to

him, he kept him waiting three hours. It had been represented to him that the present that De Gama was, according to custom, about to make to him, was unworthy of his rank. De Gama apologized for its meanness, stating that the king, his master, had not expected to find so powerful a monarch, and that therefore he had not prepared a proper present, but that next time it should be made. He also replied in such a convincing way to the falsehoods of the Moors, and so strongly insisted upon the desire of the king of Portugal to cultivate the most amicable commercial relations, that the Samorin was for the time appeased. But this good understanding did not last long. The Samorin seems to have been completely under the influence of the kutwal and other nobles, who had all been gained by the Moors. De Gama and his companions were confined, and various attempts were made to force from them presents, and an order to the captains of the ships to send their goods. At last he was compelled to direct Paul de Gama to send part of the goods. When they had been landed, the kutwal suffered De Gama to go on board his ships, but was greatly disappointed to find that the admiral was not disposed to trust himself ashore any more, or to send any more goods. In the mean time he acquainted the Samorin, by means of his factor whom he had left on shore, of the treatment he had received. The Samorin pretended to be much incensed, and promised to punish the offenders, and to send some merchants to purchase the goods. The promise, however, amounted to nothing. The merchants came, but they were all in the interest of the Moors, and bought nothing; continued negotiations were going on, the object of which turned out to be to amuse the admiral until a fleet could be fitted out to capture him. But De Gama was not so easily deceived. He waited until he had an opportunity to seize upon a boat-load of principal natives, whom he held as hostages for the safety of his factor, who had been imprisoned. An exchange was soon effected, and De Gama, disgusted with the opposition and treachery of the Moors and the Samorin's officers, resolved to set out on his return voyage, bearing a letter, which the Samorin wrote by Diaz, the factor, to the king of Portugal, expressing his earnest wish for the commencement of a regular trade.

Two days after leaving Kalicut, the Portuguese, during a calm, were attacked by sixty large boats, full of soldiers, but a wind luckily springing up, they escaped. Had it been any other season of the year, De Gama's vessels would probably have been destroyed by the Samorin's fleet, which fortunately was hauled up on shore, in winter-quarters. For four months the squadron encountered bad weather and head winds. The scurvy began to show itself among them in its worst form, and both officers and crews began to give themselves up to despair, notwithstanding the exhortations of De Gama, who vainly labored to disabuse them of the notion they had taken up, that storms always prevailed in that part of the ocean. At length a fair wind came to his assistance, and in sixteen days the sight of the African coast dispelled the fears of his people. On the morning of the third of February, 1499, they found themselves close to the city of Magadoxo; standing in down the coast, and anchoring every night, they were attacked by several boat-loads of Moors, at a short distance above Melinda, but easily drove them off with their guns. Having arrived at Melinda, they were well received. An ambassador to the king of Portugal was sent on board, and after a rest of four days they got under weigh. Our space will not suffer us to particularize all their movements and adven-

tures; suffice it to say, that on the twentieth of March they doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and entered the Atlantic. Touching at St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verds, De Gama was compelled to abandon his ship, as unseaworthy, and hire a caravel; and his brother, Paul de Gama, who had been suffering with consumption, was forced to put in at Terceira, where he died. Vasco reached the Tagus in September, 1499, having been absent two years and two months.

Thus ended this most brilliant and important voyage—a voyage which was fraught with more important consequences than any other that was ever made, unless we except that of Columbus. From it may be dated the downfall of the maritime states of Italy, of Egypt, Turkey, Arabia, and all those countries from the Red Sea to the Caspian, which throve by the several routes of the overland trade between Europe and India; and from it may be dated the rise of that great modern commercial colossus, the British empire. The Portuguese were of course overjoyed at its successful termination, and it is particularly recorded that none were more loud in their demonstrations of joy than those who had all along scouted and opposed the attempt as impracticable. Thanksgivings were ordered throughout the kingdom for the success of the expedition, and all honors were heaped upon its gallant commander.

ART. IV.—CANADIAN COMMERCE.

CANADA, the most important portion of British America, lies nearly all between the Hudson's Bay territories and the United States, and within the basin of the river St. Lawrence, from about 42 to 52 degrees north latitude. It was colonized by the French in 1608, and conquered by the British in 1759. There are two provinces, separated by the Ottawa river: *Lower Canada*, adjoining the estuary of the St. Lawrence; area, 250,000 square miles; population (1836) 864,631, chiefly of French origin; capital, Quebec—population 30,000. *Upper Canada*, contiguous to the great lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior; area, 105,000 square miles; population 371,332, chiefly of British origin; capital, Toronto—population 9,765. Each province had formerly a governor, executive and legislative councils, and a house of representatives—the governor of the lower province being likewise captain-general of all British America; but, by the act 3 and 4 Vict. c. 35 (1840, July 23) of the imperial parliament, the two provinces have been united.

Quebec is a strongly fortified city on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, in 46 deg. 49 min. north, and 71 deg. 16 min. west. It is divided into two parts: the Lower Town, where are all the commercial establishments, is situated immediately under Cape Diamond, nearly on a level with the water; the Upper Town is on a rock 200 feet above; and the communication with the lower town is maintained by a winding street, at the top of which is a fortified gate. The basin of Quebec is very spacious, being sufficient to contain 100 sail of the line. In 1836, 1,146 ships entered this port, having a tonnage of 344,206; of which Great Britain, 880 ships, 291,235 tons; British colonies, 174 ships, 22,393 tons; United States, 50 ships, 19,619 tons; foreign states, 42 ships, 10,959 tons.

Montreal, in 45 deg. 30 min. north, 73 deg. 30 min. west, lies about 180 miles above Quebec, on the south side of the island of Montreal, which is formed by the confluence of the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa; population 35,000. Vessels of 600 tons come up to it. The harbor is not large, but is always secure; the greatest disadvantage is the rapid of St. Mary, about a mile below the town. Montreal is the commercial capital of Canada, being favorably situated for the lumber trade, and for intercourse with the upper province and the United States. Most of the business, even in Quebec, is carried on by branches from its mercantile houses. In 1836, there entered this port 98 ships, 22,289 tons; of which Great Britain, 73 ships, 19,410 tons; British colonies, 23 ships, 2,392 tons; foreign states, 2 ships, 487 tons.

Canada, though in some parts hilly, is upon the whole a level and well-watered country. The located portions are mostly confined to the banks of the St. Lawrence, the lower part of the Ottawa, the north margin of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and the southeast banks of lakes Huron and St. Clair, which are generally fertile. Beyond these districts, the country, more especially towards the north and west, is very imperfectly known. The climate is salubrious, and heat and cold, though felt in their extremes, are not oppressive, owing to the purity of the atmosphere. In the lower province, the medium of cold in winter is about 15 deg. Fahr., its maximum about 20; and the medium summer heat is from 75 to 80 deg., its maximum 103. Early in December the St. Lawrence is closed by ice, which seldom totally disappears before the first week in May. The five months from May to September, inclusive, comprise the spring, summer, and autumn of the Lower Canadian year. At Montreal, and in the upper province, the spring commences from six weeks to two months earlier, according to its latitude, and the climate is in every respect milder; indeed, in the west part of Upper Canada, the duration of frost and snow is not more than half, or even one third, as long as in Quebec. The severity of the Canadian winter is much less unfavorable to the operations of agriculture than might at first appear. The snow effectually prevents the frost from penetrating deeply into the earth, and the rapid progress of the spring thaws, followed by frosty nights, pulverizes the soil, and helps to prepare it for seed. Against the severity of the winter, must also be set down the steady weather which prevails during summer in both provinces, and which renders the progress of vegetation so rapid, that the Canadian harvest is early, and almost always secured before bad weather commences. Hence the climate of Canada, severe though it is, presents no obstacle to the unlimited extension of almost every description of produce, except such as is peculiar to a tropical climate.

The Canadians are scattered over a vast extent of country, some parts of which are 800 or 900 miles distant from the port of Quebec, and 600 or 700 from that of Montreal. But owing to the facility of communication by means of lakes and rivers, the expense of transport is comparatively small; and, from the improvements which are taking place in railroads and canals, this expense will soon be greatly reduced. The St. Lawrence is navigable for large ships to Montreal, about 600 miles, and to Quebec, 420 miles, for ships of the line; above Montreal, its current is broken by rapids. The Ottawa and Saguenay, the principal tributaries of the St. Lawrence, are only partially navigable, having their course likewise interrupted by falls and rapids. The principal canals are the Grenville

and Rideau canals, which, in connection with the river Ottawa and the La Chine canal, form a vast chain of internal navigation, reaching by a circuitous line from Montreal to Kingston. The Welland canal, a most important work, connects lakes Ontario and Erie, avoiding the falls of Niagara. Besides these there are various smaller canals and railroads, both in the upper and lower provinces.

The culture of the soil is the principal occupation of the people; a circumstance which almost necessarily follows from the abundance of rich land and the total absence of taxes; for these advantages more than compensate the high price of labor. The chief agricultural product is wheat, the crop of which is estimated at 11,000,000 bushels. The average export of wheat and flour by sea, in the four years 1832-1835, was equivalent to 780,000 bushels, besides which, a considerable quantity from the upper province found its way to the United States; but in 1836 it was much smaller, amounting only to 18,125 barrels flour, and 9,716 bushels wheat. The quantity of other articles of agricultural produce has been hitherto inconsiderable; the most important are flax, tobacco, and salted provisions.

The staple exports of the colony, however, are timber and ashes. The former is the principal; but as a portion of the trade is the result of a legislative monopoly arising out of the high duties in the united kingdom on foreign European timber, with low duties on Canadian, that portion can last only as long as the monopoly is maintained. The chief articles of timber exported to the united kingdom and the colonies in 1836, were—oak, 22,805 tons; elm, 18,733 tons; pine, 315,967 tons; 6,707,278 staves, chiefly puncheon and standard pieces; deals, deal-ends, battens, boards, and planks, 2,785,520 pieces; besides ash and birch timber, hoops, hand-spikes, and smaller articles: the whole amounting in value to £703,165. Besides the timber carried by sea to the united kingdom and West Indies, there is a considerable quantity of boards, scantling, and other sawn timber, prepared for the United States and for home consumption. The timber trade of Canada with the West Indies and the United States, as it exists without protection, cannot be affected by any change of the duties. On the other hand, the advantage which the colony now enjoys with the mother country may be destroyed by the removal of those restrictions by which it was originally created, and which is at present contemplated. It would exceed the limits of the present article to describe the effects which are likely to result from this change. The prevailing opinion is, that Canada has other means of employing her labor and capital independent of the timber trade, and that the change will be beneficial, not only to the mother country, but to the colony. The clearing of the land from wood to fit it for cultivation, gives rise to the production of pot and pearl ashes. The usual course is to burn the timber on the ground, and if the price be remunerating, the wood-ashes are converted into the ashes of commerce. If, however, the rate be discouraging, they are harrowed in for the improvement of the soil. The quantity shipped is annually about 36,000 barrels, consisting of about two thirds pot and one third pearl ashes. Of late years this trade has been on the decline.

The fisheries of Canada form a subordinate branch of industry; but still the gulf and lower portion of the St. Lawrence furnish a considerable quantity of fish and oil for home consumption, and leave a small surplus for export. The produce of the fisheries in the county of Gaspé and

the Magdalen Islands in 1836, consisted of—cod, 100,542 cwt. ; cod oil, 37,162 gallons ; whale oil, 25,120 gallons, besides salmon and other fish, the whole amounting in value to £86,624.

Montreal was formerly the emporium of a very considerable portion of the fur trade, which was carried on by two rival companies—the Hudson's Bay and the North West. After the failure of the latter association, most of the skins were carried direct to the residents at Hudson's Bay, who have an establishment also at La Chine, near Montreal. But although not a single bale of furs was shipped from that city, we should be justified in ranking the fur trade among the resources of Canada, because a large importation of British goods takes place through Montreal, and wages are paid to the hunters by drafts on the company in London. There is, however, a small though not an increasing exportation of this article from Montreal, consisting chiefly of skins of the muskrat, martin, beaver, and otter.

Of manufactures, the principal is that of ashes, already noticed. The others are as follows: Cloth, a kind of gray homespun or *étouffe du pays*, worn by the *habitant* or farmer of Lower Canada ; coarse cotton, but only in small quantities ; coarse linens ; carpets and mats formed of threads obtained from old materials ; straw hats ; worsted stockings and socks ; caps ; leather mittens ; iron wares at St. Maurice ; nails ; maple sugar ; bricks ; white soap, candles, leather, linseed oil and cake are manufactured to an extent sufficient to furnish a surplus for exportation. Whiskey is largely produced in both the Canadas. Starch, blue, cider, cordage, paper, and a few other articles are also made, but in very small quantities. It is to be observed that these manufactures, with the exception of whiskey, exist almost wholly without protection. But the domestic manufactures are supported more by the habits of the people than by cheapness ; in fact the *étouffe du pays* is imitated in Britain at a much lower price than the Canadian cloth usually sells at in the native market.

Ship-building is an important employment in all the North American colonies. The average number of vessels built annually in Canada, during the eleven years ending 1835, was 26, and their tonnage 8,249. These ships are built of oak, and are of much better workmanship than those of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, which for the most part are constructed of pine.

The imports chiefly consist of British manufactures, principally cottons and woollens ; in 1836 the former amounted in value to £472,892 sterling, the latter to £303,166. The woollens are mostly of the coarser and warmer sorts, such as blankets, flushings, flannels, and the coarse cloths produced in the manufacturing towns of Yorkshire. The cottons are chiefly power loom shirtings, striped and checked cloths, printed calicoes, ginghams, muslins, cambrics, and also fustains, velveteens, and similar fabrics. The other articles of British produce and manufacture imported in 1836, were as follows: Hardware, value £74,249 ; wrought iron, £56,298 ; unwrought iron, £35,345 ; linens, £61,082 ; silks, £59,488 ; British refined sugar, £49,628 ; glass, £84,069 ; haberdashery, £71,646 ; earthenware, £15,606 ; apparel and slops, £33,975 ; painters' colors, £17,426 ; besides coals, leather, books, candles, soap, stationery, salt, lead, cordage, hats, and a variety of other goods.

The other imports are principally composed of the following articles :

tea, about 680,000 lbs., brought chiefly from Britain; raw sugar, about 3,000,000 lbs. (maple sugar being extensively grown in the colony); rum, 330,000 galls.; brandy and gin, 220,000 galls.; wine, nearly 3,500 pipes, namely, port, 500; Madeira, 200; sherry, 200; Teneriffe and other low white wines, 700; Spanish and other low red wines, 1,600; French and German, 300. London enjoys the chief part of this trade to Canada, as there is a discriminating duty of £7 7s. per ton of 252 galls. on wines "direct from the place of growth." A considerable quantity of low white and red wines is also brought from the Mediterranean, after having been landed at Gibraltar; an expedient by which the high duty is evaded. The West India produce is for the most part imported direct from the place of growth, and chiefly from Grenada, Jamaica, and Demerara. Halifax, in Nova Scotia, has recently become an entrepôt for exchanging the productions of Canada and the West Indies; the former paying for her purchases in flour and other provisions. St. Johns, in Newfoundland, also enjoys a small inter-colonial trade.

The inland trade with the United States is considerable. A portion of the ashes, flour and other provisions consumed in Canada, are derived from thence. In early spring, teas, coffee, fruits, tobacco, and various groceries are imported from New York by the way of Lake Champlain. The exports at St. Johns, on that lake, the chief seat of this trade, amounted, in 1832, to £8,197; the imports to £146,807. In 1833, the former were £20,500, the latter £104,500. Of the imports fully two thirds consisted of agricultural produce, all, it is said, required for Canadian consumption. An intercourse with the United States is also carried on from different points in Upper Canada, the duties on which amounted, in 1835, to above £10,000. Of this there were paid at Toronto, £3,750; Kingston, £1,517; Burlington, £1,438; Port Stanley, £835; Brockville, £549. When commodities are exported on American account, the transmission of a bill of exchange on New York easily closes the transaction. Shipments are also made to the West Indies from that city, as well as from some of the more southern towns, by order of Canadian houses. These are usually paid for by drafts on London.

The following statement of the commerce and navigation of the principal ports of the Upper and Lower Provinces, derived from the Montreal Courier, exhibits as full, recent, and accurate information of the present condition and amount of Canadian commerce as can be obtained.

IMPORTS IN 1841.

ARRIVALS IN QUEBEC AND MONTREAL.

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
From Great Britain, with cargoes	298	100,400	4,065
In ballast	571	223,882	8,502
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	869	324,282	12,567
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
From Ireland, with cargoes	17	8,173	294
In ballast	183	58,742	2,348
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	200	66,915	2,642
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
From Gibraltar, in ballast	2	540	19
From Foreign Europe, with cargoes	18	4,423	163
In ballast	67	17,801	634
	85	22,224	797
From Africa, in ballast	2	498	22
From B. N. A. Colonies, with cargoes	102	10,708	546
In ballast	62	17,745	707
	164	28,453	1,253
From B. W. Indies, in ballast	3	829	39
From the United States, with cargoes	15	4,145	167
In ballast	28	13,489	484
	43	17,634	651
Foreign W. Indies, with cargoes	9	1,417	71
In ballast	3	686	29
	12	2,103	100
Grand total	1,380	463,468	18,090

IMPORTS AT QUEBEC IN 1841.

FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Wines—Madeira, galls. 2,678	Spirits—Whiskey, galls. 154
Port 7,197	Molasses 22,084
Sherry 19,632	Sugar, refined, . lbs. 674,015
Teneriffe 10,843	Bastard 733,064
Spanish 17,404	Muscovado 13,124
French 860	Refined, Foreign, 10,961
Rhenish 151	Muscovado, do 40,269
Canary 115	Coffee, British P. 678
Spirits—Brandy 43,108	do Foreign 2,072
Geneva 24,827	Teas 179,172
Rum, E. I. 20,688	Salts, minots 199,666
do B. P. 2,232	Playing Cards, pks. 16,488
Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent	£394,761 14 9
do of free goods	6,260 5 4
	£401,022 0 1

FROM IRELAND.

Wines—Port galls. 488	Spirits—Rum, galls. 71
Champagne 5	Sugar, Muscovado, lbs. 163,916
Spirits—Whiskey 13	Salt, minots 16,522
Brandy 1,040	

Value of merchandise paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent	£13,460	17	0
do of free goods	14	11	3
	<hr/>		
	£13,475	8	3
	<hr/>		

FROM FRANCE.

Wines—Claret . . galls. 1,333	Spirits—Brandy . galls. 4,216		
Champagne . . . 60	Cordials 166		
Value of merchandise paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent	£2,175	15	9
	<hr/>		

FROM SPAIN AND SICILY.

Salt, minots 23,642	Salt, minots 10,312		
Wine galls. 1,972			
Value of merchandise	£3	6	8
	<hr/>		

FROM PORTUGAL AND HAMBURGH.

Wines galls. 276	Sugar, refined, . . lbs. 11,332		
Salt, minots 12,342			
Value of merchandise	£1,586	17	0
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FROM BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

Wines—Madeira . galls. 2	Molasses, foreign, galls. 30,613		
Port 808	Sugar, muscovado, for-		
Spanish 1,619	eign, lbs. 1,754,488		
Malaga 152	Sugar, muscovado B. P. 16,449		
Fayal 1,216	Coffee, foreign, 42,205		
Spirits—Rum, foreign . 744	do B. P. 153		
Brandy 244	Teas lbs. 15,730		
Treacle 1,900	Cigars 224		
	Salt, minots 14,587		
Value of merchandise paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent	£5,073	10	6
do of free goods	13,518	0	8
	<hr/>		
	£18,591	11	2
	<hr/>		

FROM THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Value of merchandise paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent	£596	14	4
	<hr/>		

FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Wines—Port . . galls. 2	Coffee lbs. 66,524		
Champagne . . . 46	Salt, minots 1,647		
French 3,827	Tobacco, leaf, . . lbs. 41,446		
Spirits—Rum 34,436	do manufac. . . . 137,780		
Cordials 218	Snuff 32		
	Cigars 691		
Value of merchandise paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent	£3,549	16	7
do of free goods	12,755	4	5
	<hr/>		
	£16,305	1	0
	<hr/>		

FROM CUBA.

Rum . . . galls.	7,578	Sugar . . . lbs.	1,159,777
Molasses . . . "	4,715	Coffee . . . "	224
Value of merchandise			<u>£100 10 0</u>

IMPORTS AT MONTREAL.

TOTAL FROM ALL PLACES.

Wines—Madeira galls.	9,865	Coffee . . . lbs.	104,122
All other . . .	134,481	Tobacco, manufact'd	2,288
Spirits—Foreign . . .	160,297	Snuff	8
Rum, E.I.&B.P.	74,450	Teas—Hyson . . .	23,202
British	2,918	Bohea	11,888
Molasses	12,082	Other	825,202
Sugar, refined, lbs.	2,165,566	Salt,	minots 43,980
Muscovado do	5,642,288	Playing cards,	pkts. 31,584

N. B.—Three per cent has been deducted from all the above articles, except the playing cards.

Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent	£1,534,767	0	2
do of free goods	87,077	1	9
	<u>£1,621,844</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>11</u>

IMPORTS AT GASPE.

31 Vessels—2,770 tons—222 men.

Spirits—Rum galls.	2,198	Biscuit . . .	bags	645
Brandy & Gin,	1,310	Pork	bar'ls.	176
Wine	314	Lard	casks	8
Cordials	4	do	kegs	15
Molasses	8,134	Butter	bar'ls.	9
Sugar, refined, lbs.	13,433	do	kegs	15
Tea	895	Cheese	packages	2
Tobacco	3,050	Salt	tons	216
Coffee	779	Tar	bar'ls.	36
Raisins	boxes 21	Pitch	do	64
do	¼ do 100	Peas	do	50
Figs	boxes 4	Peppermint . . .	galls.	108
Rice	tierces 2	Potatoes	bar'ls.	14
Drugs	boxes 1	Meal	do	3
Seeds	bags 1	Chocolate	boxes	13
Flour	bar'ls. 1,109	Bricks	loose	2,000
Biscuit	do 40			
Value of merchandise				<u>£5,948 5 5</u>

IMPORTS AT NEW CARLISLE.

47 Vessels—6,649 tons—358 men.

Spirits—Brandy galls.	1,417	Wine	galls.	405
Gin	305	Coffee	lbs.	2,169
Rum	5,158	Tea		1,356

Sugar, refined, .	lbs.	3,410	Turpentine .	bar'ls.	3
Muscovado . . .		24,744	Apples		6
Tobacco		1,944	Onions		16
Snuff		52	Salt	tons	685
Chocolate . . .	boxes	3	Soap	cwts.	10
do	lbs.	172	Vinegar	hhds.	10
Molasses	galls.	3,882	Tar	bar'ls.	12
Raisins	cwts.	2	Bricks		16,500
Pork	bar'ls.	94	Codfish	cwts.	2,833
Beef		307	Cod sounds . .	kegs	9
Biscuit		12	Fish oil	galls.	1,006
Flour		268	Juniper knees .	pcs.	585
Corn		12	do logs		181
Rosin		1	do tons		15
Meal		75	Rice	packages	15
Pitch		62			
Value of merchandise					£2,066 12 3

EXPORTS IN 1841.

PORTS OF QUEBEC AND MONTREAL.

To Great Britain.

Cleared 1,050 vessels—389,865 tons—14,917 men: of which 32 built this year, containing 19,611 tons.

Apples	bar'ls.	422	Flaxseed	bags	123
Ash timber	tons	1,836	do	minots	1,191
Ashes, pot,	bar'ls.	14,066	Flour	bar'ls.	338,278
Ashes, pearl,	do	7,287	do	½ do	318
Balsam	packgs.	52	Furs	packages	90
Barkwork	do	20	Gunstocks	pieces	120
Barley	minots	4,504	Handspikes	do	16,147
Basswood	tons	9	Hickory timber	tons	27
Battens	pieces	77,566	Honey	packages	91
Beef	tierces	48	Horns	do	6
do	bar'ls.	69	Horns (ox)	pieces	19,250
Birch timber	tons	1,610	Knees	do	231
Boards	pieces	21,291	Lard	puns.	137
Bones	tons	50	do	casks	853
do	hhds.	10	do	lbs.	7,428
Butter	kegs	1,090	Lathwood	cords	3,374
do	pounds	14,560	Linseed	casks	10
Butternut timber	tons	19	Maple timber	tons	55
Canoes		6	Masts and bow-		
Castorum	lbs.	1	sprits	pieces	1,399
Cheese	do	8,950	Moose deer		2
Corn, (Indian)	minots	160	Oak timber	tons	31,384
Cranberries	packages	16	Onions	bar'ls.	45
Deals	pieces	1,569,496	Oars	pieces	48,123
Deals, spruce	do	156,023	Oats	bar'ls.	88
Deal ends	do	111,808	Oatmeal	do	4,541
Elm timber	tons	31,213	Oil cake	casks	13,163
Essence (spruce)	packages	15	Peas	minots	126,558

Pine timber (red) tons	94,588	Staves, (barrel) pieces	243,579
do white	222,255	Tamarac timber tons	318
Plants packages	42	Tobacco hhds.	61
Pork bar'ls.	65	Treenails pieces	4,000
Salmon tierces	11	Wheat minots	450,594
do bar'ls.	14	<i>Imported Articles.</i>	
Seeds (grass) do	20	Pitch pine tons	239
Shooks (pun.) packs	181	do pieces	95
Spars pieces	2,598	Porks bar'ls.	20
Specimens, packages	15	Returned goods packages	374
Spokes pieces	1,896	Wine pipes	1
Staves (standard) do	1,292,311	do casks	2
do (pun.) do	3,783,039	do cases	14
do (pipe) do	396,509		

TO IRELAND.

Cleared, 237 vessels—78,740 tons—31,117 men : nine of which built this year, 3,201 tons.

Apples, bbls.	28	Knees, pieces	31
Ash timber, tons	502	Lathwood, cords	674
Ashes, pot, bbls.	586	Maple timber, tons	12
“ pearl, “	42	Masts, pieces	22
Balsam, packages	1	Oak timber, tons	3,110
Basswood, tons	4	Oars, pieces	1,346
Battens, pieces	10,989	Pine timber, tons	18,493
Birch timber, tons	94	Pine, white	38,465
Boards, pieces	4,138	Shooks, packs	824
Butternut, tons	6	Spars, pieces	729
Deals, pieces	641,014	Staves, (standard,) pieces	267,992
Deals, spruce, pieces	198,781	“ (puncheon,) “	267,992
Deal ends	18,542	“ (pipe,) “	193,737
Elm timber, tons	2,461	“ (barrel,) “	564,502
Essence, spruce, packages	3	Wheat, minots	111,203
Handspikes, pieces	1,696		

TO THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

Cleared, 146 vessels—12,663 tons—700 men : of which built this year, one vessel, 77 tons.

Ale, gallons	60	Buffalo robes, cases	18
Apples, barrels,	370	“ loose	24
Ash timber, tons	2	Butter, kegs	179
Ashes, pot, bbls.	31	“ pounds	99,797
Axes, packages	2	Calf-skins, doz.	5
Bacon, cwts.	4	Candles, boxes	262
Barley, bbls.	48	“ pounds	5,826
“ minots	34	Casks, empty	129
Beans, “	90	Carriages	3
Beef, bbls.	1,753	Chairs, dozens	4
Biscuit, cwts.	1,850	Cheese, packages	8
Boards, pieces	200	“ cwts.	22

Cheese, pounds	3,635	Raisins, boxes	152
Cigars, cases	4	“ half do.	20
Codfish, cwts.	303	Rum, galls.	237
Flour, bbls.	13,494	Salt, minots	5,380
Glass, boxes	626	Shrub, galls.	25
“ half boxes	421	Soap, pounds	6,934
Herrings, bbls.	310	Stoves, number	75
Iron, bars	199	Pork, bbls.	18,313
“ packages	9	Shingles, bundles	15
Lard, kegs	35	Shoes, packages	3
Meal, bbls.	50	Shoe packs, “	2
Merchandise, packages	256	Shooks, puncheon, packs	1,778
Fish, pickled, cwts.	205	“ hhds. “	550
“ boxes	399	“ tierce “	146
Flour, bbls.	11,389	“ barrel “	5,000
Furs, packages	12	Skins, seal, puncheons	9
Hams, casks	40	“ hhds.	1
“ tierces	16	“ loose	3,100
Harness, sets	18	Soap, boxes	301
Hats, packages	4	“ pounds	75,217
Herrings, bbls.	84	Spars, pieces	12
Hoops, pieces	6,000	Staves “	127,539
Lard, kegs	442	Stoves “	83
“ pounds	171,628	Stove-pipes, lengths	926
Leather, packages	90	Wheat, minots	1,065
Meal, Indian, bbls.	70	Whiskey, galls.	529
Meal, oat, bbls.	175	<i>Imported articles.</i>	
Merchandise, packages,	12	Beef, tierces	40
Moccasins, “	22	“ bbls.	418
Nails, “	74	Butter, pounds,	1,374
Oak, pieces	510	Candles, “	240
Oil, linseed, casks	1	Cordage, “	28
Oil, fish, galls.	50	Sugar, bbls.	4
Onions, bbls.	159	Tea, pounds	2,023
Peas, minots	2,016	Tobacco, “	2,685
Peppermint, galls.	24	“ kegs	179
Molasses, puncheons,	3	Vinegar, galls.	272
Paint, packages	231	Wine, casks	1
Pork, bbls.	2,985	“ cases	1
		“ galls.	159

TO THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Cleared, 16 vessels—2,407 tons—137 men: of which built this year, one vessel, 125 tons.

Alewives, bbls.	20	Butter, lbs.	2,400
Ale, hhds.	12	Codfish, casks	75
“ galls.	3,480	“ cwts.	1,207
Beef, tierces	1	“ boxes	88
“ bbls.	725	Flour, bbls.	3,879
“ half do.	206	Herrings, “	106
Biscuit, cwts.	40	“ half bbls.	10
Butter, kegs	310	“ boxes	62

Canadian Commerce.

549

Hoops, pieces	4,000	Soap, boxes	118
Lard, pounds	6,900	Staves, pieces	79,700
Mackerel, bbls.	79	Stoves, No.	1
“ half do.	22	Tallow, kegs	10
“ kegs	38	Tongues, half bbls.	20
Oats, minots	512	“ kegs	56
Oatmeal, bbls.	26	<i>Imported Articles.</i>	
Oil, fish, galls.	2,967	Beef, half bbls.	50
Onions, bbls.	81	Brandy, hhds.	7
Pine timber, tons	100	Flour, bbls.	70
Pork, bbls.	11,233	Merchandise, packages	150
“ half do.	313	Pork, bbls.	400
Potatoes, bbls.	64	Raisins, boxes,	52
Salmon, casks	6	Salt, minots	75
“ tierces	202	Whiskey, puncheons	2
“ bbls.	62	“ galls.	780
Shooks, puncheons,	841	Wine, hhds.	1

TO THE UNITED STATES.

Cleared, one vessel, 178 tons.

Deals, boards, and scantling,		Scantling, birch, pieces	443
pieces	4,020	Boards and planks, “	360
Deals, spruce, pieces	60	Scrap iron, casks	39
Staves, puncheon	2,127	Spars, pieces	53

TO FRANCE.

Cleared, 8 vessels—3,657 tons—145 men.

Masts and bowsprits, pieces	495	Spars, pieces	127
Ash timber, tons	54	Staves, standard, pieces	21,417
Elm “ “	116	“ puncheon, “	18,149
Oak “ “	66	Furs, packages	2
Pine “ “	822	Bark work, “	3
Deals, pieces	7,773	Segars, boxes	36
Oars “	2,988		

TO NEW SOUTH WALES.

Cleared, 1 vessel, 254 tons.

Herrings, bbls.	20	Iron, bars	1,010
Salmon, tierces	26	Nails, casks	22
“ bbls.	1	Handspikes, pieces	136
Mackerel, “	4	Oars, “	144
Codfish, casks	59	Deals, “	812
“ boxes	40	Boards, feet	498,400
Pork, bbls.	355	“ pieces	50
“ half do.	20	Blue, boxes	25
Beef, tierces	143	Brooms, doz.	50
“ bbls.	33	Cider, hhds.	6
Flour “	395	Crackers, bbls.	31
Vinegar, bbls.	16	Snuff, cases	7
Coloring, kegs	1	Whiskey, puncheons	5
Pails, doz.	5	Wine, cases	10
		“ baskets	20

TO RIO DE LA PLATA.

Cleared, 2 vessels, 531 tons.

Ash staves, pieces	600	Pine scantling, pieces,	93
Pipe " "	1,765	Boards " "	6
W. I. " "	777	Coach-wheel spokes, pieces	8,107
Birch scantling, pieces	237	Spars, " "	79
Oak " "	59	Masts, " "	25
Ash " "	88		

EXPORTS AT GASPE.

Vessels 22.—Tons 2,073.—Number of men 135.

Deals, pieces	11,989	Treenails, pieces	2,600
Deal ends, "	1,077	Oars, "	50
Battens, "	978	Merchandise, packages	35
Staves, "	2,950	Codfish, bbls.	26
Boards, "	440	" cwts.	23,257
Spars, "	5	Salmon, bbls.	29
Lathwood, cords	14	Mackerel, "	75
Timber, pieces	469	Fish-oil, galls.	630
		Herrings, bbls.	182

EXPORTS AT NEW CARLISLE.

Vessels 44.—Tons 7,012.—Number of men 354.

Deals, pieces	1,506	Pitch, bbls.	12
Lathwood, "	141	Rice, tierce	1
Oars, "	117	Rum, galls.	120
Spars, "	4	Sugar, lbs.	336
Timber, tons	5,970	Salt, tons	129
Boards, feet	11,370	Codfish, bbls.	80
Shingles, pieces	972,500	" cwts.	22,583
Treenails, "	21,250	" boxes	82
Barley, bbls.	29	Blubber, galls.	559
Butter, cwts.	40	Fish-oil, "	11,913
Coffee, lbs.	40	Salmon, bbls.	95
Flour, bbls.	165	Herrings, "	50
Glass, boxes	8	Beef, "	304
Peas, bbls.	22	Pork, "	50
Potatoes, "	73	Lobsters, kegs	30

MEASURES, WEIGHTS, MONEY, DUTIES, ETC.

Measures and Weights are those of Great Britain, but with the old English measures of capacity. The *minot*, sometimes used in Lower Canada, is an old French measure, 90 of which are commonly estimated at 100 English or Winchester bushels, although the true proportion is 90 to 98.

Money and Exchanges.—Accounts are kept, and sales and purchases are made in pounds, shillings, and pence, *Halifax currency*, which is about 20 per cent inferior to British, though the denominations and proportions are the same. The pound currency is four Spanish dollars, each dollar being called 5s. But the average value of the dollar in the London market is only 4s. 2d.; hence 4s. 2d. sterling=5s. currency; or 16s.

8d. sterling= $\pounds 1$ currency; or $\pounds 100$ sterling= $\pounds 120$ currency. The comparison of exchange is, however, complicated, by the assumption of a par departing widely from the value of the currency. This erroneous par is 4s. 6d. taken as the value of the dollar, or $\pounds 90$ sterling equal to $\pounds 100$ currency; the rule being, add *one ninth* to sterling to obtain currency. To make up the difference between the erroneous par and the average value of the currency—say the approximate par—it is necessary to make use of a nominal premium of exchange. Thus, when exchange is really wholly undisturbed, or, in other words, at par, ($\pounds 100$ sterling selling for $\pounds 120$ currency,) it is said to be at 8 per cent premium. For example, bill on London, sterling $\pounds 100$; add premium 8 per cent $\pounds 8$, makes $\pounds 108$; adding also *one ninth*, $\pounds 12$, we have $\pounds 120$ currency= $\pounds 100$ sterling. The better way would be to quote the dollar, or the pound, or the $\pounds 100$, at what each is respectively worth. Government exchange is thus quoted, so are sovereigns. The commissary-general of Canada quotes his drafts at 4s. 2d. or 4s. $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. per dollar, as the case may be; that is, on being paid so many times 5s. currency, he will deliver a bill on the treasury of as many times 4s. 2d. or 4s. $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. sterling. Sovereigns are quoted in the Canadian price-lists at 24s. currency (more or less.) Thus, 4s. 2d. sterling per dollar; 24s. currency per sovereign; exchange at 8 per cent premium; and $\pounds 100$ sterling= $\pounds 120$ currency, all mean the same state of the exchange. Fluctuations in the rate of exchange of course revolve round the nominal premium of 8 per cent as around a pivot, so that 6 per cent premium is in fact 2 discount, and 10 per cent only 2 premium. The circulating medium is chiefly composed of British and American coins, and of notes circulated by the various banks. No paper is issued by the government or on the credit of the colony.

The following are the provisions of an act recently passed, regulating the currency of the United Province:

"From and after the passing of this act, the acts 48 Geo. 3, L.C. 59 Geo. 3, L. C., 1st Sec. 10 and 11 Geo. 4, L. C., 2 Vict. L. C., 36 Geo. 3, U. C., 49 Geo. 3, U. C., 7 Geo. 4, U. C., 11 Geo. 4, U. C., 6 Will. 4, U. C., 3 Victoria, U. C., and all other acts relating to the currency, and in anywise contrary to this act, are repealed.

"II. That the pound currency shall be such that the pound sterling, as represented by the British sovereign of the weight and fineness now fixed by the laws of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall be equal to, and any such British sovereign shall be a legal tender for, one pound four shillings and four pence currency.

"That nothing in this act shall affect the meaning to be fixed to the words 'Sterling,' 'Sterling money of Great Britain,' or other words of like import in any law in force in this Province, or any part thereof, when this act shall come into force, or in any contract or any agreement then made therein, but any such law, contract, or agreement, shall be construed according to the intention of the legislature, or of the parties who made the same; but in any law, contract, or agreement made in this Province after this act shall be in force, the pound sterling shall be understood to have the value in currency hereby assigned to the British sovereign of the law full weight and fineness aforesaid.

"IV. That the eagle of the United States of America, coined before the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-four, and weighing eleven pennyweights six grains troy, shall pass and be a legal

tender for two pounds thirteen shillings and four-pence currency; and the eagle of the United States aforesaid, coined after the day last-mentioned, and before the commencement of the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and weighing ten pennyweights eighteen grains troy, shall pass and be a legal tender for two pounds ten shillings currency.

“V. That the gold coins of Great Britain and Ireland, or of the United States, coined before the day last aforesaid, being multiples or divisions of those hereinbefore mentioned, and of proportionate weight, shall for proportionate sums pass current, and be a legal tender to any amount by tale, so long as such coins shall not want more than two grains of the weight hereby assigned to them respectively, deducting one half-penny currency for each quarter of a grain any such coin shall want of such weight: Provided always, that in any one payment above the sum of fifty pounds, the payer may pay, or the receiver may insist on receiving, the said British gold coins, or gold coins of the United States aforesaid, coined before the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-four, by weight, at the rate of ninety-four shillings and ten pence currency per ounce troy; and in like manner any sums tendered or to be received in the gold coin of the United States of America, coined since the day last aforesaid, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of ninety-three shillings currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums not less than fifty pounds currency.

“VI. That the gold coin of France of forty francs, and its multiples or divisions, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of ninety-three shillings and one penny currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“That the old doubloon of Spain or quadruple pistole, and the Mexican and Chilian doubloon, and the parts thereof respectively, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of eighty-nine shillings and seven pence currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“That the gold coins of La Plata and of Colombia, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender, at the rate of eighty-nine shillings and five pence currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“That the gold coins of Portugal and of Brazil, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of ninety-four shillings and six pence currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“VII. That the milled dollar of Spain, the dollar of the United States of America, and of the several states of Peru, Chili, Central America, and the states of South America, and of Mexico, coined respectively before the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and not weighing less than seventeen pennyweights four grains troy, shall pass for five shillings and one penny currency each, and the half-dollar of any of the same nations, states, or governments, and date hereinbefore mentioned, and of the proportionate weight, shall pass for two shillings six pence and a half-penny currency, each, and such dollar or half-dollar shall be a legal tender by

tale to any amount, but the other silver coins of the same nations and date, being subdivisions of such dollars, for proportionate sums and of proportionate weight, shall pass at the rates hereinafter mentioned, to wit, the quarter for one shilling and three pence currency, the eighth for seven pence and one half-penny currency, and the sixteenth for three pence half-penny currency, each, and not otherwise; except that the subdivisions of such dollars, being less than halves thereof, shall be a legal tender by tale to the amount of two pounds ten shillings currency, and no more at any one time, until they shall have lost one twenty-fifth part of such weight respectively, after which they shall not be lawful money.

“VIII. That the five franc silver piece of France, coined before the passing of this act, and weighing not less than sixteen pennyweights, shall be a legal tender in tale to any amount at four shillings and eight pence currency.

“IX. Provided always, that the governor, lieutenant governor, or person administering the government for the time being, may, by proclamation, extend all the provisions of the three sections immediately preceding this section, to any gold or silver coins of the nations, weights, and denominations therein mentioned or referred to, but of later date, which having been assayed at the royal mint shall have been found equal in fineness to those therein mentioned or referred to respectively.

“X. That all silver coins of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, while lawfully current therein, shall pass in this province at the rates following, that is to say: the British crown at six shillings and one penny currency; which said British crown, and all other divisions of the silver coin of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, lawfully current therein, of proportionate weight, shall for proportionate sums pass current, and be a legal tender to the amount of two pounds ten shillings currency, and no more. Provided always, that the holder of the notes of any person or body corporate to the amount of more than two pounds ten shillings, shall not be bound to receive more than that amount in payment of such notes, if presented at one time, although each or any of such notes be for a less sum.

“XI. That the copper penny of the united kingdom aforesaid, or any other which her majesty may cause to be coined, if not less than five-sixths of the weight of such copper penny, shall pass for one penny currency, and the halves and quarters thereof for proportionate sums; and such copper coin shall be a legal tender to the amount of one shilling currency at any one time, and no more.

“A penalty on persons counterfeiting coin, or attempting to pass counterfeit coin, or importing the same.”

The banks in the lower province consist of the Montreal Bank, with a capital of £250,000; the (Montreal) City Bank, capital £200,000; the People's Bank, capital paid up £75,000; and Quebec Bank, capital £75,000. Those in the upper province were four in number: The Bank of Upper Canada, with a capital of £200,000, that of Kingston, or the Midland district, with a capital of £100,000, together with the Agricultural and People's Banks, the paid up capital of which was probably £100,000 more. The Bank of British America, established in London in the year 1836, has also branches in various places. Most of the provincial banks are instituted on the American principle of limited liability.

Tariff.—The duties on imported goods levied in Canada are imposed

partly by the authority of the British government, and partly by that of the colonial legislature. The former are called *crown duties*, and the latter *provincial duties*; the first being in sterling money, the latter in currency. In charging the duties, the dollar is received at 4s. 4d., which is 2d. less than the old par, but 2d. more than its real value. The provincial duties have no object besides the increase of revenue, not discriminating in any way between the sources of supply. The crown duties, on the other hand, seem to be framed rather for the purpose of forcing the trade into particular channels, than for simple revenue; and the royal receipts are certainly trifling compared with what they would be were the imports equalized. The provincial duties are, on spirits, 6d. per gallon; Madeira wine, 9d. per gall.; other wines, 6d. per gall.; molasses, 5d. per gall.; coffee, 2d. per lb.; sugar, raw, $\frac{1}{2}$ d., refined, 1d. per lb.; teas, hyson, 6d., bohea, 2d., all others 4d. per lb.; tobacco, manufactured, 3d., leaf, 2d. per lb.; snuff, 4d. per lb.; salt, 4d. per minot, which is drawn back if reshipped for fisheries; goods, wares, and merchandise not specified, (including nearly all British manufactures,) $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, *ad valorem*. The crown duties are not levied on British produce and manufactures. On foreign wine (except French wine) the crown duty is 10s. per tun in wood from the united kingdom, Malta, and Gibraltar, and £7 per tun, from place of growth; on British plantation rum 6d., and foreign spirits 1s. per gall.; tea and British plantation sugar and coffee are free. On most other articles the 3d and 4th Wm. IV. c. 59, imposes duties of $7\frac{1}{2}$, 15, 20, and 30 per cent; but, as in general they amount to a prohibition, they are seldom levied. The duty of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent is occasionally paid, but the excess only is levied; so that when the goods are liable to the provincial duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, 5 per cent only is payable to the crown.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[BROUGHT DOWN TO MAY 15.]

In our last number we gave a brief summary of the leading events of the past year bearing upon commercial affairs. It remains for us now to pursue our original intention of bringing up the events of the current month, with the aspect of affairs, down to the period of our publication. At the date of our last a great degree of gloom hung over the markets generally, arising as well from the state of the foreign relations of the country as from the financial discredit which surrounded the federal and most of the state governments. The receipt of later advices from England, seemed, however, to change the face of affairs, and impart some degree of buoyancy to the markets. The news was of two descriptions, viz:—political and commercial. The important feature of the first was, the intelligence that an English army had been literally destroyed in the east, giving the whole fabric of British power in India so rude a shock as to involve the necessity on the part of the British government of putting forth its whole energies to retrieve its standing. The British government of India is almost entirely based upon opinion or of servile belief, on the part of the millions of poor Indians, in the superiority of the English, and the invincibility of British arms. A defeat, therefore, is of the gravest consequences. The spread of disaffection resulting from it was perceptible simultaneously with the reception of the news by the Indian government. The "Bengal Hurkaru" of Feb. 17, 1842, remarks as follows:—"We have rather unpleasant accounts, in our Secunderabad letters, of serious anticipations entertained there of something more than disaffection among the

sepoys, in consequence of the deprivation of batta." A movement of troops on the 6th had also been delayed in consequence of apprehended disturbances. These facts are indicative of the great weight attached to the state of affairs in India by the home government, which is also manifest in the prompt embarkation of troops for the scene of action. This state of things induced that sudden change in the disposition manifest by Great Britain towards the United States that served promptly to remove all fears of an immediate rupture between the two countries, and relieved our commercial horizon from one of the most threatening clouds that lowered on it. The buoyancy caused by the removal of fears upon that head, was stimulated by the nature of the commercial news, which was, in effect, that the whole policy of the British empire in relation to the restrictive system had undergone a change, and that henceforth the tendency would be to reduce instead of enhancing the imposts upon foreign merchandise. The new tariff proposed large reductions in the duties on all articles of American agricultural produce. This fact was received here as an earnest of a largely increased export trade in those articles; and, added to the improved state of money affairs in London, imparted a stimulus to our stock market which caused prices to undergo a general improvement. The following is a table of rates at different dates.

PRICES OF LEADING STATE STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

Stock.	Rate of Interest.	Redeemable.	1841.	1842.			
			August 30.	March 1.	April 15.	May 1.	May 15.
United States,.....	5½	1844	100 a 100½	96 a 97	90 a 95	93 a 97	94 a 96
“ “.....	6	1844	97 a 99	95 a 97	96 a 97	98 a 99
New York,.....	6	1860	100 a 100½	79 a 80	82 a 84	90 a 93	90 a 91
“ “.....	5½	1861	91 a 92	71 a 73	77 a 80	83 a 85	83 a 84
“ “.....	5	1855	86 a 87	68 a 72	75 a 77	82 a 83	81 a 82½
Pennsylvania,.....	5*	79 a 80	44 a 48	31 a 33	48 a 50	43 a 45
Ohio,.....	6	1856-60	94 a 95	67 a 68	50 a 55	70 a 71	71 a 72
Kentucky,.....	6	1860	84 a 85	67 a 68	63 a 70	81 a 82	78 a 79
Alabama,.....	5	1865	50 a 55	35 a 40	a 50	40 a 50
Arkansas,.....	6*	25 years.	59 a 63	35 a 45	a 30	25 a 27
Indiana,.....	5*	1861	55 a 55½	19 a 20	15 a 17	19 a 21	19 a 20
Illinois,.....	6*	1870	55 a 55½	18 a 19	15 a 16	18 a 20	17 a 17½
Maryland,.....	6*	40 a 45	40 a 50	43 a 45
Michigan,.....	6*	1860	65 a 70	15 a 30	40 a 50	15 a 20

* The states marked thus have failed.

Notwithstanding this marked improvement in the price of stocks actually upon the market, the new loans of the federal government, and of the state of Ohio, of which we gave the amounts in our last, have been offered upon the market without success. The loan of the state of New York for \$1,000,000, at seven per cent, was advertised some weeks without success, but was finally taken by different capitalists, and a portion by brokers on foreign account. The city seven per cent was also taken by a great number of individuals. Towards the close the demand for the stock seemed to increase, and it is now supposed that the state government will get the remainder at six per cent. The city seven per cent stock is at one per cent premium in the market, and three per cent premium is demanded for that of the state. For the Ohio loan no bids were made. When the United States loan was put upon the market, rumors were industriously circulated that foreign agents were here, prepared to give par for it; these were put afloat, no doubt, to induce confidence and promote offers, but without success. When the time elapsed for the receipt of proposals, it did not appear that any bids had been received. In point of profit and undoubted security, the seven per cent stock of the state of New York

unquestionably offered an investment every way superior to the six per cent stock of the federal government. Viewed therefore as a simple matter of dollars and cents, it is not surprising that the latter remained untouched while the former was to be had. Why that was so tardily taken is, however, not so readily explained. It grows out of the fact that little or no foreign capital comes now to this country for investment, and principally for the reason that abroad the credit of each and all the state governments stands nearly upon the same footing. Foreigners do not readily make those nice distinctions between different members of the same confederacy which are so easily determined on this side. Hence it is that when confidence is so far acquired on their part as to make investments at all, they make them in those stocks which, being the lowest, offer the best chance of profit in the event of ultimate payment. In this view it was that numerous orders were received by the packet of April 4, by large houses in Wall-street, to purchase, on foreign account, those stocks which stood the lowest—as Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania. These purchases it was that caused the rise in prices manifest in the above table. They were made on account of parties who could not be brought to believe that the doctrine of repudiation could ever be seriously entertained, and who supposed that the agitation of the subject grew out of panic caused by repeated failures, and, more particularly, war apprehensions. They therefore argued that as soon as the latter were removed, a reaction would take place. If it could be ascertained to a certainty that the dividends of the delinquent states would be resumed, say ten years hence, the stock would be worth much more than their present rates. For instance, the Indiana five per cent stock, redeemable in 1861, are selling at 20; if it were certain that the interest would recommence at the end of ten years, and then continue to the redemption of the principal, it would be the same as an annuity in reversion at ten years, which would be worth about twenty-two per cent, with a bonus at the end of nineteen years equal to an annuity of two and a half per cent, making the present value of the bond, under these considerations, 32.726 per cent. There was another operating cause upon the market, both to create speculation in the cheap stocks and to prevent investments in the new stocks. It was the knowledge that many members of eminent foreign houses, large holders of the delinquent bonds, had come to this country to carry out a plan which was commenced at the extra session last year, viz :—to procure an assumption of the state debts on the part of the federal government, or some guaranty for their ultimate payment, based upon the public land revenues. There seemed to be a determination to countenance the negotiation of no new loans until the old ones were provided for. The necessities of the federal government would be, it was supposed, a strong inducement for it to accede to these proposals. Hence the indisposition of the foreign houses or any of their correspondents on this side, to make bids for the loan, pending this negotiation. In our own market the surplus capital is exceedingly small. There probably has been in the aggregate rather a loss than an accumulation of capital during the past few years. A very large proportion of the capital that formerly existed, and was invested in stocks, (bank, state, and corporate,) has been annihilated. The accumulations from dividends have been severely curtailed, and all property is so depressed, that it would be difficult to realize for the purpose of changing the investment. As a solitary instance, we may mention \$10,000,000 of the stock of the late national bank, held in this country. This sum was the accumulation of the industry and hard savings of 3,133 individuals in different parts of the United States. If that bank was now in good credit, these persons might change the investment for that of state stock; but that large sum has ceased to exist, and with it has gone at least \$100,000,000 of other capital. The ability to realize from real estate and other property is very small, and the amount of actual cash in the hands of capitalists, available for investments in stocks, must be exceedingly circum-

scribed. These, we think, are some of the practical causes that have operated to create a rise in existing stocks, and at the same time to prevent the negotiation of the new ones.

The movement in the treasury notes issued by the federal government indicates how small the demand for government six per cent securities is at present. The following is a table of the amount outstanding at the date of the last return, as compared with former returns:—

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING.

	Jan. 1.	March 1.	May 1.
Total outstanding old issues,.....	1,319,663	703,695	543,852
Issues under act of February 15, 1841,.....	6,298,256	7,527,062	7,527,062
Redeemed of that issue,.....	777,197	2,038,519	4,451,601
	5,521,059	—	—
Issues of January, 1842,.....	—	2,377,118	5,641,737
Redeemed of that issue,.....	—	30,211	1,826,322
GRAND TOTAL outstanding,.....	6,840,723	8,539,115	7,434,729

In the sixty days commencing March 1, and ending May 1, 1842, it appears there were received for government dues and redeemed, \$4,369,006 treasury notes; and in the same time \$3,264,619 new notes were issued by the department, making a decrease of \$1,104,387 in the amount outstanding. One feature is, however, remarkable in the table. It is the rapidity with which the notes issued return upon the treasury, although bearing six per cent interest. As, for instance, on the 1st of March, there had been but \$2,377,118 of the new notes issued, and but \$30,000 of them redeemed. In the succeeding 60 days, \$3,300,000 were issued, and \$2,000,000 came immediately back, remaining out nearly 30 days, on an average. This fact indicates that there is no demand whatever for a government six per cent security, although not only the customs are pledged for redemption, but they are receivable for all public dues. It would appear that they are paid out to contractors, and by them sold to the government debtors, who immediately pay them into the treasury. The inference is, that were it not for the demand created for this purpose, the discount would be very heavy upon these securities. This fact, we think, more than any thing, tests the ability of the public generally to hold stock that there is any chance of disposing of at or near the par value.

The rates of domestic bills (see next page) evidence the fact that a strict regard to prompt payments is the true regulator of exchanges. In foreign bills a brisk business has been done for the last two packets, and rates of sterling bills have improved. The rates follow:—

PRICES OF FOREIGN BILLS IN NEW YORK,

AT DIFFERENT PERIODS IN THE YEAR 1842.

Places.	February.	March.	April.	May 1.	May 15.
London,.....	8 a 8½	7½ a 8½	5½ a 7½	6 a 7½	8 a 8½
France,.....	5 27½ a 5 28½	5 27½ a 5 28½	5 37½ a 5 40	5 35 a 5 37	5 32 a 5 33
Amsterdam,.....	39¾ a 40	39¾ a 40	39 a 39½	38 a 39	39¾ a 39½
Hamburg,.....	35½ a 35¾	35½ a 35¾	35 a 35½	34¾ a 35	35 a 35½
Bremen,.....	76¼ a 77	76¾ a 77	75¾ a 76	75¼ a 75½	76 a 76½

The importations of goods into the port of New York have been exceedingly small this spring. The packets have but very small freights. This is a very favorable circumstance in many points of view. It prevents apprehension of any undue demand for coin from abroad, and gives opportunity for the large stock on hand to work off to advantage. For the government, however, it is untoward, inasmuch as it adds to its difficulties, already great, arising from a diminished revenue. The receipts consist almost

altogether of treasury notes, which being at a depreciation of $\frac{3}{4}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$, form a good medium of payment.

The progress of resumption on the part of the suspended banks of the south and west has been quite as rapid as we intimated in our last. The banks of Maryland, and those of North Carolina, have resumed in full; and preparations are on foot in New Orleans to follow. Kentucky and Indiana will probably resume in June; and the Bank of Illinois at Shawneetown, (the only one now in that state,) will return to specie payments at the same time. Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama, Arkansas, and Florida will then remain alone in their profligate suspension—disgracing themselves—oppressing the people—and injuring the commercial reputation of the whole country. The improvement in internal exchanges has kept pace with the progress of specie payments. The following are the rates of exchange at different dates :—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS AT NEW YORK,

AT DIFFERENT PERIODS IN THE YEAR 1842.

Places.	February.	March.	April.	May 1.	May 15.
Boston,.....	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$				
Philadelphia,.....	7 a $8\frac{1}{2}$	a 4	par a $\frac{3}{8}$	par a $\frac{3}{8}$ dis	par a $\frac{1}{2}$
Baltimore,.....	2 a 3	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{4}$	" a $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$
Richmond,.....	9 a $12\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a $8\frac{3}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a $8\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a $7\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{4}$ a $7\frac{1}{2}$
North Carolina,.....	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$ a 5	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	3 a $3\frac{1}{2}$
Savannah,.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	a 2
Charleston,.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{5}{8}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{3}{4}$
Mobile,.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$ a 13	28 a 30	23 a 24	19 a 20	15 a 16
New Orleans,.....	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{3}{4}$ a 7	$6\frac{3}{4}$ a 7	a $6\frac{1}{2}$
Louisville,.....	$9\frac{1}{2}$ a 10	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a 8	a 5	5 a 6	4 a 5
Nashville,.....	14 a $14\frac{1}{2}$	17 a 18	20 a 22	17 a 18	17 a 18
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	18 a 20	23 a 25	6 a	6 a
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	11 a 12	6 a 7	8 a 10	8 a 9
Indiana,.....	16 a 17	12 a 13	a 12	a 10	a 16
Illinois,.....	17 a 18	28 a 31	a 31	a 31

The banks of this city have been easy in their operations. Good business paper, as usual, is in request with them; but the desire to invest creates no disposition to depart from the strict line of commercial banking in the present prospect of affairs. The pressure among certain classes of dealers is very severe, and a vast number of firms have compromised their debts with their creditors. The number of dealers from the country who are in the city is much smaller than usual at this season of the year, and the amount of their purchases bears but a small proportion to those of former years. The country banks discount but little, and the Lewis County Bank, (safety fund,) capital \$100,000, has failed. Produce, however, the great basis of our national prosperity, is very abundant, and comes forward freely, as is manifest by the returns of freights on all our great national thoroughfares. The elements of a large future business are visibly on the increase; but it would be injudicious to expect a very rapid growth in commercial enterprise. The state of affairs in Europe is by no means such as to warrant the belief that a demand for American produce can speedily be engendered to an extent that will raise prices in any great degree. This is more particularly true in regard to the article of cotton, which forms, in amount, two thirds of our exports. The new British tariff, it is true, is calculated hereafter to improve the commercial intercourse between the two countries; but we apprehend much difficulty from its immediate effects, which must be similar to those which have attended the breaking down of the paper system in this country. The gen-

eral principle of Sir Robert Peel's measure seems to be to effect a transition from high to low money prices. It is undoubtedly true that the immense burden of the national debt of England has been sustained the more easily by the operation of high money prices for commodities. When a certain sum of money represents a small quantity of produce or other commodities, it is more easily paid to the government than when it represents a large quantity. Now, under the operation of high duties, the former has been the case. In the progress of events, however, the growth of manufactures on the continent has been such that it has been found impossible longer to maintain a grade of prices higher than those of the continent, and still compete with the manufacturers of Belgium and Saxony in the markets of the world. Hence the distress of the manufacturers of England, and the determination of the minister, by removing the artificial props to prices, to reduce them to the level of those of the continent. This reduction of prices would evidently increase the burden of the debt, because the £30,000,000 which represents the annual interest in money, will, when prices are low, command a much larger quantity of the products of industry than when prices are high. This fact has rendered necessary the tax upon the receivers of that interest. Sir Robert Peel in the course of his remarks estimated the probable reduction, in the value of property, attendant upon the operation of his bill at twenty per cent, which is probably not far from the truth. Now it is not reasonable to suppose, while this reduction is going on, that any improvement in the prices of American produce can be effected, or that any extensive demand will spring up. The great markets for English manufactures throughout the world evince as yet no symptoms of returning animation, and although the prospective low prices of food are favorable to the increased home consumption, yet there is but little probability of an improved demand for labor. In this view, although we may look forward to a regular increase of internal trade at home, we do not apprehend any auxiliary movement from an improvement in foreign trade for the present. The currency of this country has undoubtedly undergone an immense reduction, yet the corresponding low prices of goods and produce render a much less amount of currency necessary. There is nothing in our political horizon at present to warrant the mercantile man in a belief that a speedy return to the national bank policy can be brought about, and therefore that our large internal commerce, growing out of the transmission, sale, and distribution of the immense agricultural products, will turn for many years to come on a strict specie basis, on the principles of short credits, quick returns, and low prices. The business which grows up on this broad foundation must necessarily be safe, and little liable to revulsion; but it offers no prospect of alleviation to those who have suffered by the transition from high paper values to those which stand the severe test of a metallic currency.

The prospect of any immediate improvement in trade, growing out of the intercourse between this country and Great Britain, is at this moment not very promising. The immediate effect of the alteration in the tariff is to cause inactivity in commercial transactions until the operation and influence of the reduction in duties, particularly that on corn, is more clearly known. The last two monthly announcements of the Bank of England reduced the rate of interest from five per cent to four per cent. The object of that measure was undoubtedly to increase the discounts of the bank, which have of late become so small as to threaten a still further reduction in the dividends, more especially as, under the new income-tax, the bank will have to pay a large sum to the government. The reduction of interest did not appear in the April return of the bank to have had the effect of increasing the circulation; on the contrary, it underwent a still further reduction of 1.6 per cent of the aggregate bank circulation of the kingdom, which is now lower than it has been for many years. The following is a table of the currency of Great Britain down to the latest dates:—

BANK CURRENCY OF ENGLAND, FROM JANUARY, 1841, AND THAT OF GREAT BRITAIN, FROM AUGUST, 1841, TO MAY, 1842.

Periods.	Bank of England.	Private Banks.	Joint Stock Banks.	Scotch and Irish Bnks.	Total.	Bullion in Bank.
Feb., '41,	£16,220,000	£6,575,838	£3,798,155	£3,816,000
April,.....	16,587,000	6,322,579	3,666,258	4,638,000
June,.....	16,632,000	6,444,395	3,807,055	5,098,000
Sept.....	17,069,000	5,768,136	3,311,941	£8,900,380	£35,049,457	4,803,000
October,.,	17,340,000	6,253,964	3,519,384	8,449,858	35,563,199	4,290,000
Novemb.,	17,065,000	6,288,723	3,421,135	9,227,725	36,102,583	4,218,000
Decemb.,	16,292,000	5,718,211	3,217,812	9,333,648	34,561,671	5,031,000
Jan., '42,	16,293,000	5,478,189	3,042,197	8,791,627	33,605,013	5,629,000
February.,	17,402,000	5,532,324	3,068,901	8,735,996	34,779,421	5,602,000
March,.,	16,894,000	5,299,455	2,990,986	8,407,484	33,591,925	6,281,000
April,.....	16,674,000	5,289,050	3,047,656	8,003,971	33,014,000	7,006,000

This table presents the fact that the circulation of the Bank of England is nearly at the same point now as in June last, while that of the provincial banks is much less than it has been throughout the year; giving a strong indication of the great depression of business in the manufacturing districts. The currency of England is of such a nature that a small contraction on the part of the Bank of England, whose bills are a legal tender, and therefore form the basis of the issues of the other banks, is felt in a much greater degree than the mere figures indicate. Of the £17,000,000 of those bills in circulation, about £12,000,000 are in the vaults of banks and the tills of bankers. The great business of the country is done through the medium of commercial bills, of which the amount outstanding is estimated by the number of stamps issued at any one time at £125,000,000. These are represented by the bank paper; therefore, if the Bank of England contracts one per cent, or \$170,000, the same ratio will run through the whole circulation, and the actual reduction will be £1,800,000. The contraction of the circulation of the bank since October, 1841, according to the above table, is £866,000; of the country banks, £1,400,000; and of the whole kingdom, £3,088,000, or nearly ten per cent. A corresponding reduction in the commercial bills would be £12,500,000, making the gross reduction in the circulating medium £15,588,000 in the short space of six months. The prospect ahead is rather that of further reduction, in consequence of the approaching period for the imports of corn to take place, than of expansion. We apprehend, therefore, that any improvement in business must grow out of the low prices of goods rather than an increase in the paper currency; more especially as this reduction in the currency of the United States has been fearful in extent, and of a nature rather to create apprehensions of further disasters than any immediate recovery. During the period when the above reduction of £2,000,000 in the currency of England has taken place through the voluntary operation of the issuing banks, the bank paper currency of the United States has been reduced nearly \$25,000,000 by the failure of banks whose aggregate capital amounts to, in round numbers, \$70,000,000. This is a fearful amount, and the causes are yet in action, operating upon the remaining suspended banks; and it must be remembered that there is no prospect of forming new banks to fill the chasm thus created; and there seems to be no alternative but for commerce to conform to the new state of things.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

SIXTH DECENNIAL CENSUS.

A Statement showing the aggregate amount of each description of persons in the several states of New England, by counties.

MAINE.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
York,.....	26,137	27,835	33	29			54,034
Cumberland,.....	33,144	34,973	266	275			68,658
Oxford,.....	19,400	18,944	5	2			38,351
Lincoln,.....	32,019	31,263	130	105			63,517
Kennebec,.....	27,924	27,700	111	88			55,823
Penobscot,.....	23,749	21,826	76	54			45,705
Waldo,.....	21,335	20,122	29	23			41,509
Hancock,.....	14,628	13,953	12	12			28,605
Washington,.....	14,559	13,708	31	29			28,327
Somerset,.....	17,388	16,501	16	7			33,912
Piscataquis,.....	6,850	6,287	1				13,138
Franklin,.....	10,568	10,215	9	9			20,801
Aroostook,.....	5,288	4,122	1	2			9,413
TOTAL,...	252,989	247,449	720	635			501,793

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—As above.

COUNTIES.							
Rockingham,....	22,098	23,474	79	120			45,771
Strafford,.....	29,454	31,641	10	22			61,127
Merrimack,.....	17,698	18,449	60	46			36,253
Hillsborough,....	20,055	22,343	44	51		1	42,494
Cheshire,.....	13,116	13,273	25	15			26,429
Sullivan,.....	10,135	10,174	16	15			20,340
Grafton,.....	21,446	20,834	12	19			42,311
Coos,.....	5,002	4,844	2	1			9,849
TOTAL,...	139,004	145,032	248	289		1	284,574

MASSACHUSETTS.—As above.

COUNTIES.							
Nantucket,.....	4,362	4,071	423	156			9,012
Dukes,.....	1,925	2,013	13	7			3,958
Barnstable,.....	15,905	16,206	218	219			32,548
Bristol,.....	28,898	30,036	626	604			60,164
Plymouth,.....	23,182	23,838	161	192			47,373
Norfolk,.....	25,991	26,989	63	97			53,140
Berkshire,.....	20,464	20,003	654	624			41,745
Franklin,.....	14,203	14,521	52	36			28,812
Hampshire,.....	15,326	15,370	106	95			30,897
Worcester,.....	46,699	48,041	261	312			95,313
Middlesex,.....	50,121	55,997	285	208			106,611
Essex,.....	46,217	48,263	233	274			94,987
Hampden,.....	18,348	18,706	152	160			37,366
Suffolk,.....	49,038	44,297	1,407	1,031			95,773
TOTAL,...	360,679	368,351	4,654	4,015			737,699

POPULATION OF THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.—Continued.

VERMONT.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Chittenden,.....	11,557	11,338	39	43	22,977
Franklin,.....	12,420	12,053	31	27	24,531
Caledonia,.....	10,941	10,936	3	11	21,981
Grand Isle,.....	1,959	1,924	3,883
Orleans,.....	6,871	6,752	5	6	13,634
Washington,.....	11,742	11,743	11	10	23,506
Essex,.....	2,121	2,097	6	2	4,226
Orange,.....	13,882	13,970	10	11	27,873
Windham,.....	13,713	13,695	16	18	27,442
Lamoille,.....	5,351	5,121	3	10,475
Bennington,.....	8,503	8,268	55	46	16,872
Rutland,.....	15,414	15,155	61	69	30,699
Windsor,.....	20,108	20,112	73	63	40,356
Addison,.....	11,796	11,676	54	57	23,583
TOTAL,...	146,378	144,840	364	366	291,948

RHODE ISLAND.—As above.

COUNTIES.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
Providence,.....	27,389	29,090	681	912	1	58,073
Newport,.....	7,969	8,324	226	353	2	16,874
Washington,.....	6,766	7,047	244	267	14,324
Kent,.....	6,084	6,687	147	163	1	1	13,083
Bristol,.....	3,154	3,077	115	130	6,476
TOTAL,...	51,362	54,225	1,413	1,825	1	4	108,830

CONNECTICUT.—As above.

COUNTIES.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
Hartford,.....	26,560	27,787	584	698	55,629
New Haven,.....	23,062	24,073	674	765	6	2	48,582
New London,.....	21,389	21,334	815	925	44,463
Fairfield,.....	23,788	24,792	666	669	1	1	49,917
Windham,.....	13,412	14,069	293	301	1	4	28,080
Litchfield,.....	19,593	19,817	521	516	1	40,448
Middlesex,.....	11,941	12,498	203	236	1	24,879
Tolland,.....	8,555	9,186	135	104	17,980
TOTAL,...	148,300	153,556	3,881	4,214	8	9	309,978

AGGREGATE OF WHITE MALES AND FEMALES.

Maine, total number of males,.....	252,989	Vermont, tot. number of males,.....	146,378
“ “ females,.....	247,449	“ “ females,.....	144,840
New Hampshire,..... males,.....	139,004	Rhode Island,..... males,.....	51,362
“ “ females,.....	145,032	“ “ females,.....	54,225
Massachusetts,..... males,.....	360,679	Connecticut,..... males,.....	148,300
“ “ females,.....	468,351	“ “ females,.....	153,556

RECAPITULATION OF THE AGGREGATE POPULATION OF THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Maine,.....	501,793	Vermont,.....	291,948
New Hampshire,.....	284,574	Rhode Island,.....	108,830
Massachusetts,.....	737,699	Connecticut,.....	309,978
TOTAL AGGREGATE of the New England states,.....		2,234,822	

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF BENGAL.

The review of the commerce of Bengal for the last official year is a document of very great importance. The sea duties at Calcutta on imports and exports, amounted to nearly 50 lacs rupees—2½ millions dollars—being an increase of 10 lacs on those of last year. Of the gross sum, 16½ lacs arose from the duty on foreign salt imported into India: and should the plan of bonding this article, which is now under consideration there, be carried out, it is stated that the receipts from this source would increase year by year. The abolition of the transit duties* is shown to have worked well; for the equivalent, (which was a slight duty on articles imported from England that had been previously admitted duty free, or at a very low rate of duty,) had produced an enormous increase in the duties, the amount for the year just closed having been 32½ lacs rupees. And this increase has not been at the expense of commerce, for in the last year of the old system, the imports had amounted to 33,582,436 rs., while for the present period they had amounted to 58,677,671 rs. The entire cessation of the commercial transactions of the East India Company is shown not to have proved injurious to the trade of the presidency. Compare the years 1840-41 with 1835-36 in the following particulars: *Statement of the Imports of Merchandise and Treasure into the presidency of Bengal, for six years; each Company rupee being equal to fifty cents.*

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Rupees.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1835-36.....33,582,436	equal to 16,791,218.....	30,558,978	
1836-37.....37,265,602	“ 18,632,801.....	33,538,704	
1837-38.....40,699,504	“ 20,349,752.....	32,522,979	
1838-39.....41,405,790	“ 20,702,895.....	32,400,402	
1839-40.....50,659,181	“ 25,329,590.....	35,203,059	
1840-41.....58,677,671	“ 29,338,835.....	41,846,649	

Among the articles imported from England, it is found that the two articles of yarn and cotton cloths are the most prominent; the increase in the former has been 50 per cent, and in the latter nearly 100 per cent as compared with the years 1836-37. Trade with China, as was most naturally expected, had increased; and to arrive at a correct result, it has been found necessary to combine the returns for China and Singapore, as it was to the latter place that the chief consignments to China were made. From these it appeared that whereas in 1835-36 their value was 239 lacs (nearly 15 millions dollars,) it had fallen in 1840-41 to 139 lacs. Of this deficiency by far the largest item was that of opium, of which the export in the last year was 72 lacs less than in the former.

Notwithstanding this there was, however, a general increase of exports between 1830-41 of 225 lacs. With Pegu commercial relations continued to acquire a gradual, but steady increase; the exports in 1840-41 having risen to nearly 24 lacs. The great increase has been in cotton piece goods. In imports there was a steady increase of superior wines, ales and spirits, an increase in coffee, earthenware, ironmongery, and machinery; but a decrease in books and pamphlets. In exports there was a large decrease in native cotton piece goods. Of silk piece goods the amount was about 44 lacs.

In the exports of sugar there is a progressive and large increase, the quantity for the

* Bell, in his "Review of the Commerce of Bengal for 1834-35," has the following remarks on those unjust restrictions, now abolished with those of the town duties, similar to the *Octrois* of France. "When the transit duties shall have been abolished, an impulse will be given to every sinew of commerce, which will cause us only to wonder how such an execrable system should have been permitted to exist for a day."

last year being 1,784,000 maunds, or about 66,000 tons, while in 1835-36 it was only 368,000 maunds. And this manufacture has grown to its present strength in the short space of six years. Cotton had fallen off largely in this presidency, in consequence of the interrupted trade with China. For the last year the export was 160 maunds, but in 1835-36 it was 440,000 maunds. The export of rum has kept pace with that of sugar; for the last year it was 1,306,700 gallons, while in 1835-36 it was only 49,000 gallons!

The amount of tonnage (which is always a fair index to the prosperity of a trading place) employed in the trade of the port of Calcutta, stood as follows:—

	Tons.		Tons.
1835-36,.....	150,499	1839-40,.....	198,834
1836-37,.....	197,165	1840-41,.....	234,316

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF HAVANA.

Comparative Statement of the Commerce and Navigation of Havana, during the years 1840 and 1841; compiled from the Havana Weekly Reporter, of Jan. 22, 1842.

	Imports.		1840.	1841.
Jerked Beef,.....	North and S. America.....		269,107 qtls.	307,912 qtls.
Do.	United States.....		2,616 bbls.	1,202 bbls.
Butter,	United States.....		818 qtls.	1,069 qtls.
Do.	Holland and Belgium.....		1,173 do.	1,956 do.
Tallow Candles,.....	United States.....		8,920 do.	8,548 do.
Sperm do.	United States.....		1,309 do.	1,100 do.
Cheese,.....	Holland.....		4,861 do.	6,414 do.
Codfish,.....	United States.....		28,217 do.	21,766 do.
Flour,.....	United States.....		55,048 bbls.	37,447 bbls.
Do.	Spain.....		81,778 do.	120,014 do.
Hams,.....	United States.....		2,113 qtls.	5,396 qtls.
Do.	Hanse Towns.....		3,275 do.	1,490 do.
Lard,.....	United States.....		36,194 do.	44,907 do.
Sperm and Whale Oil,.....	United States.....		7,955 do.	13,456 do.
Olive Oil,.....	Spain.....		74,307 arrobas	112,273 arrobas
Do.	France.....		1,060 doz. bott.	2,025 doz. bot.
Onions,.....	United States.....		721,830 bunches	425,671 bunches
Pork,.....	United States.....		821 bbls.	802 bbls.
Do. clear.....	United States.....		2,843 qtls.	4,510 qtls.
Potatoes,.....	United States.....		19,666 bbls.	21,352 bbls.
Rice,.....	United States.....		113,808 qtls.	105,180 qtls.
Soap,.....	United States.....		613 do.	392 do.
Do.	France.....		1,879 do.	1,517 do.
Do.	Spain.....		28,256 do.	11,106 do.
Wine,.....	France.....		2,348 casks	2,677 casks
Do.	Spain.....		27,348 pipes	30,174 pipes
Nails,.....	United States.....		9,792 qtls.	8,758 qtls.
Do.	England.....		3,434 do.	6,113 do.
Do.	Holland and Belgium.....		1,879 do.	5,165 do.
Lumber,.....	United States.....		22,436 M. feet	21,020 M. feet
Shooks,.....	United States.....		65,978 hhds.	57,724 hhds.
Do.	United States.....		93,182 boxes	149,256 boxes
Arabias,.....			5,504 pieces	5,716 pieces
Britannias,.....			5,652 do.	5,850 do.
Canvass,.....			1,519 do.	1,636 do.
Creas,.....			9,241 do.	6,834 do.
Drill,.....			1,389,159 vs.	1,511,921 vs.
Estoppelas,.....			31,058 pieces	28,324 pieces
Hessians,.....			4,506 do.	2,156 do.
Listadoes,.....			27,820 do.	23,974 do.
Osnaburgs,.....			833,191 vs.	916,773 vs.
Platillas,.....			86,243 pieces	90,040 pieces
Rouans,.....			1,200 do.	2,227 do.
Sheetings,.....			18,370 do.	16,737 do.
Stockings,.....			40,123 doz.	36,689 doz.

ARRIVAL OF VESSELS AT HAVANA.

Countries.	1840.		1841.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
American,.....	884	164,880	782	106,512
British,.....	87	15,520	101	19,604
Spanish,.....	539	70,123	569	77,655
Dutch,.....	14	2,082	17	3,025
Belgian,.....	15	3,204	19	4,449
French,.....	29	6,080	26	5,790
Hamburg,.....	21	4,400	23	5,470
Bremen,.....	31	5,637	31	6,927
Danish,.....	17	3,035	18	2,545
Others,.....	16	3,411	26	5,093
TOTAL,.....	1,653	278,432	1,618	277,102

EXPORTS OF SUGAR AND COFFEE FROM THE WHOLE ISLAND OF CUBA.

Ports.	1840.		1841.	
	Sugar.	Coffee.	Sugar.	Coffee.
Havana,.....	446,959 boxes.....	1,278,413½ arr.....	440,144 boxes.....	739,158 arr.
Matanzas, ...	265,584½ “	320,125½ “	272,768 “	111,908½ “
Trinidad,.....	59,772 “	16,820 “	70,999 “	9,722 “
St. Jago,.....	32,175 “	572,312 “	28,218 “	400,132 “
TOTAL,.....	804,090½ “	2,197,771 “	812,192 “	1,260,920½ “

COTTON GOODS EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES TO BRAZIL FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Statement of the Value of Cotton Goods exported for the empire of Brazil; sent to the government by L. H. Ferreira d'Aguia, Consul-General of that Empire in the United States; and politely furnished by that gentleman for publication in the Merchants' Magazine.

Year.	Dollars.	Year.	Dollars.
1826,.....	242,888	1834,.....	234,721
1827,.....	72,496	1835,.....	266,916
1828,.....	114,794	1836,.....	200,994
1829,.....	192,898	1837,.....	304,102
1830,.....	81,332	1838,.....	536,416
1831,.....	66,119	1839,.....	293,932
1832,.....	184,884	1840,.....	509,857
1833,.....	261,640		
TOTAL, in fifteen years,.....	\$3,563,989		

EXPORTS OF BRITISH GUIANA.

The official report of produce during the year 1840 exported from this colony exhibits an increase of more than five per cent, or 2,199 hogsheads, on sugar; thirty-two per cent, or 3,865 casks, on molasses; and one hundred and twelve per cent, or 1,772,000 pounds, on coffee, as compared with 1839; concurrent with an apparent diminution in the quantity of rum, of five per cent, arising from the concentration of the spirit, for want of a sufficient supply of casks, and an actual deficiency of seventy-five per cent on the small quantity of cotton grown in this province. The comparative exports of timber do not appear in the official table. The growth, therefore, of this valuable and rapidly increasing branch of commerce cannot be ascertained. The value of the surplus quantity of produce shipped last year, making a full allowance for the apparent diminution in the quantity of rum, and the real deficiency in cotton, is estimated at £138,936. The nett revenue of the planters in 1840, from data furnished by themselves, amounted to £415,936, or more than ten per cent, after allowing 6 per cent for interest of invested capital, and ten per cent for wear and tear of machinery and dilapidation of buildings. The gross revenue of the planters during the year 1840 considerably exceeded £2,000,000 sterling.

COMMERCE OF KINGSTON, JAMAICA.

IMPORTS FOR 1841 COMPARED WITH THOSE FOR 1840.

Statement of Imports in each year, from the 1st of Jan. to the 31st December, inclusive.

	1841.	1840.		1841.	1840.
Flour,.....bbls.	93,778...	107,264	Butter,.....firkins	17,242...	14,060
Flour,.....half bbls.	2,041...	2,544	Lard,.....firkins	10,033...	7,622
Corn Meal,...punch.	310...	102	Candles,.....boxes	13,507...	17,215
Corn Meal,.....bbls.	16,895...	20,653	Soap,.....boxes	41,949...	43,164
Rice,.....tierces	868...	2,118	Pork,.....bbls.	20,920...	11,429
Rice,.....half tes.	118...	222	Pork,.....half bbls.	1,488...	2,406
Rice,.....bags	22,291...	28,119	Brandy,.....pipes	3...	52
Codfish,.....hhds.	7,691...	8,709	Brandy,.....hhds.	554...	531
Codfish,.....tierces	3,795...	4,143	Tobacco,.....hhds.	45...	101
Codfish,.....boxes	6,491...	9,756	Lumber, P. P...feet	2,081,000...	882,000
Haddock,.....casks	204...	223	Lumber, W. P...feet	4,953,000...	2,427,000
Mackerel,.....bbls.	10,578...	7,101	Staves, R. O.....	229,000...	669,000
Alewives,.....bbls.	4,569...	3,473	Staves, W. O.....	110,000...	79,000
Herrings,.....bbls.	6,394...	7,485	Wood Hoops,.....	68,000...	138,000
Bread,.....bbls.	7,678...	14,844	Shingles, Cedar,.....	5,546,000...	2,972,000
Bread,.....half bbls.	360...	215	Shingles, Cypress,.....	2,741,000...	1,764,000

Statement of the Imports from the 1st to the 5th of January, 1842.

Flour,.....bbls.	500	Lard,.....firkins	537
Rice,.....bags	410	Butter,.....firkins	220
Rice,.....hhds.	210	Pork,.....bbls.	218
Rice,.....tierces	73	Pork,.....half bbls.	150
Codfish,.....boxes	375	Brandy,.....hhds.	20
Mackerel,.....bbls.	365	Shingles, Cedar,.....	20,000
Alewives,.....bbls.	138	Shingles, Cypress,.....	56,000
Herrings,.....bbls.	335	Hoops, Wood,.....	26,000
Lumber, P. P.....feet	36,000	Bread,.....bbls.	470
Staves, R. O.....	19,000	Bread,.....half bbls.	130
Candles,.....boxes	500	Tobacco,.....hhds.	4
Soap,.....boxes	102		

EXPORTS OF MILAN, OHIO.

Statement of the Exports of Milan, Ohio, for the year 1841.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Wheat,.....bush.	216,780 \$216,780 00	Ashes,.....bbls.	448 \$8,960 00
Corn and Rye, " "	15,242 7,621 00	Pork,.....bbls.	4,113 28,791 00
Oats,....." "	1,528 534 80	Flour,.....bbls.	4,774 23,870 06
Timothy Seed, " "	1,268 2,219 00	H. Wines, &c. bbls.	1,057 9,413 00
Flaxseed,....." "	1,009 1,348 75	Staves, pipe & hhd.	1,217,034 24,340 00
Beans,....." "	317 237 75	Staves, butt,.....	30,000 1,800 00
Clover Seed,...." "	1,400 7,000 00	Lumber, Wool, &c.....	2,294 00
Lard, bbls. & kegs	245 2,450 00		
Butter, firk. & bbls.	551 4,132 50		
		TOTAL,.....	\$341,791 80

The arrivals and departures during the year were 152 vessels—agg. tonnage, 18,240 tons.

TRADE OF ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

We are indebted to Charles C. Whittlesey, Esq., of St. Louis, for the report of the harbor-master of St. Louis, showing the arrivals of steamboats, with their tonnage; and the receipts of wood, lumber, shingles, and staves, during the year 1841:—

Number of arrivals of steamboats,.....	1,928
Tonnage,.....	262,681
Average tonnage, about.....	136
Cords of wood received at wood landing,.....	24,596
“ “ “ below the creek,.....	2,000
Feet of Lumber,.....	9,550,328
Shingles,.....	8,512,710
Staves,.....	382,150

U. S. EXPORTS OF COTTON, TOBACCO, AND RICE.

The following table, derived from Mr. Calhoun's speech of March 16, 1842, exhibits the value of the three great southern staples, cotton, tobacco, and rice, exported in each year from 1820 to 1840, a period of twenty-one years.

Yrs.	Cotton. Dollars.	Tobacco. Dollars.	Rice. Dollars.	Yrs.	Cotton. Dollars.	Tobacco. Dollars.	Rice. Dollars.
1820	22,308,667	7,968,600	1,714,923	1831	25,289,492	4,892,388	2,016,267
1821	20,157,484	5,648,962	1,494,307	1832	31,724,682	5,999,769	2,152,361
1822	24,035,058	6,222,838	1,563,482	1833	36,191,105	5,755,968	2,774,418
1823	20,445,520	6,282,672	1,820,985	1834	49,448,402	6,595,305	2,122,292
1824	21,947,401	4,855,566	1,882,982	1835	64,661,302	8,250,577	2,210,331
1825	36,846,649	6,115,623	1,925,245	1836	71,284,925	10,058,640	2,548,750
1826	25,025,214	5,347,208	1,917,445	1837	63,240,102	5,795,647	2,309,279
1827	29,359,545	6,816,146	2,343,908	1838	61,556,811	7,392,029	1,721,819
1828	22,487,229	5,840,707	2,620,696	1839	61,238,982	9,832,943	2,460,198
1829	26,575,311	5,185,370	2,514,370	1840	63,870,307	9,883,957	1,942,076
1830	29,674,883	5,833,112	1,986,824				
TOTAL.....					807,373,071	141,214,027	44,042,958

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF SOUTH CAROLINA, FROM 1819 TO 1841.

1820	\$8,690,539	1831	\$6,528,605
1821	6,867,515	1832	7,685,833
1822	7,136,366	1833	8,337,512
1823	6,671,998	1834	11,119,565
1824	7,833,713	1835	11,224,298
1825	10,876,475	1836	13,482,757
1826	7,468,966	1837	11,138,992
1827	8,189,496	1838	11,017,391
1828	6,508,570	1839	10,318,822
1829	8,134,676	1840	10,036,769
1830	7,580,821		
TOTAL.....		\$186,849,679	

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COURSE OF THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

A correspondent of the Boston Morning Post has prepared some interesting statistical views of the course of our foreign trade. It is very generally supposed that our imports from Great Britain and her possessions exceed our exports to them by several millions of dollars annually. Such was the supposition of the writer of the article in the Post until recently; when, in comparing the exports to *England* alone with the imports from thence for the year 1840, he found the excess of EXPORTS was about *twenty-four millions of dollars*.

"In order to show the course of trade for 1840, I have prepared table A, from which it appears—1st, that the principal countries from which we imported more than we exported to them, were Spain, Cuba, and other Spanish possessions, China, and Brazil; 2d, that the principal countries to which we exported more than we imported from them, were Great Britain and her colonies, Netherlands, Belgium, Texas, and Chili. To this table is added a column showing the value of *free* articles imported, and another column showing the principal articles, with the amount thereof in round numbers, imported from each country free of duty. It will be seen that one half of the excess of IMPORTS from Cuba and other Spanish colonies consisted of coffee, which was duty free; that three quarters of the excess of imports from Spain consisted of fruits, more than half of them raisins, which will sell in no other market, and the duty on which, if imposed here, must come out of the Spanish grower. Nearly all the excess from China consisted of tea, while from Brazil we imported coffee to an amount nearly double the excess of our imports from that country.

"In order to ascertain whether this was the usual course of our trade, I prepared two other tables, B and C, to show the state of our trade for the three last years of which we have official accounts from the treasury. From these it appears that (taking the aggre-

gate of the years 1833, '39, and '40.) France, in addition to Spain, Cuba, China, and Brazil, has sent us more than we export. It also appears that Great Britain and her colonies, Netherlands, Belgium, Texas, and Chili, taking the aggregate of the same three years, have taken more of our exports than we have imported from them. In fact, the average excess of our exports to Great Britain and colonies over our imports from thence, for three years, is \$13,500,000 per annum; to Netherlands and Belgium, over \$2,500,000 per annum; to Texas, over \$1,000,000; and to Chili, \$750,000 per annum.

"After completing these tables, it occurred to me that the fairest test of the course of trade was, to take all the years from 1833 to 1840 inclusive, as in those years the tariff of '32 operated, and the enormous imports of speculating years would be included. I then prepared table D, showing the course of trade from 30th September, 1832, to 30th September, 1840, inclusive—a period of eight years—giving the course of our trade during the whole period when the "compromise act" was in operation so far as we have official accounts, and until our trade began to be affected by the prospect of a change of administration and a change of tariff. From this table, it will be seen that, notwithstanding the enormous imports of '35, '36, and '37, the same countries, viz. Great Britain and colonies, Netherlands, Belgium, and Chili, have taken, during the eight years ending 30th September, 1840, of our exports more in amount than we have imported from them, while the excess of imports has arisen from our trade with China, Cuba, Spain, and the colonies belonging to Spain, other than Cuba, France, Brazil, Russia, Sweden, Italy, and Hayti, beside that from Mexico and other countries (in South America) from which we get our specie, metals, raw hides and skins, dyewoods and mahogany.

"Now it is plain that the amount of coffee, tea, silks and fruit which are imported is vast. If it should be found, on an impartial investigation, that our market is a highly important one for those articles, in consequence of our being large consumers in proportion to other nations, would it not be perfectly safe to calculate that any duty on those articles would be in fact paid, (not by consumers, but) by producers, who would lower the prices to keep our market, PROVIDED such duty was not so high as to divert the capital, thus employed in producing these articles, to other employments? There cannot be a doubt that this would prove to be the fact.

"Fruit and silks were taxed at the extra session. But the amount of tea and coffee imported is as great as that of silks, silk and worsted goods, worsted stuff goods, and fruit put together, if the imports of 1840 are any criterion. During that year the total imports amounted to a trifle over \$107,000,000, of which \$50,000,000 only were subject to duty, and the balance was free of duty, consisting of the following articles, viz:—

Specie and Bullion,.....	\$8,882,813
Copper,.....	1,582,636
Tin,.....	1,079,293
Coffee,.....	\$8,546,222
Tea,.....	5,417,589
	<hr/>
	13,963,811
Linens, bleached and unbleached,.....	4,179,120
Silk goods, free,.....	\$8,288,958
Worsted stuff,.....	2,387,338
Silk and Worsted Goods,.....	1,729,792
Fruits,.....	1,404,889
	<hr/>
	13,810,977
Raw Hides and Skins,.....	2,756,214
Wool,.....	675,009
Spices,.....	558,937
Sundries,.....	9,707,394

TOTAL value of free articles imported in 1840,.....\$57,196,204

"Mr. Woodbury is in favor of taxing tea and coffee, whenever it shall be necessary to raise the duty to over twenty per cent on the articles subject to that percentage under the compromise act. It would seem that, unless we tax gold (to protect the mines at the south) upon the same principle that we tax iron, we have nothing of importance to add to our taxable imports but hides and skins in the raw state.

"I should hope that congress would inquire how heavy a tax coffee, silks, tea, and fruit would bear without its coming out of the consumer's pocket. This is an important inquiry as regards REGULATING our foreign commerce, and supplying a sufficient REVENUE.

"The first column of the following table shows the excess of our imports from several countries over our exports to those countries, and the excess of exports to other countries

over our IMPORTS from the same, during the year 1840; the second column shows the value of all the articles admitted from each country FREE OF DUTY, during 1840; and the third column shows the *principal free* articles imported from each in 1840:—

TABLE A.

	<i>Excess of Imports in 1840.</i>	<i>Value of Free Articles in 1840.</i>	<i>Principal Articles imported Free of Duty, in 1840; in round numbers.</i>
Spain,	\$1,322,372	\$1,206,798	Specie from Cuba, &c.....\$607,000 Coffee " "2,512,000 Raisins from Spain,..... 780,000 Figs, &c..... 122,000 Teas,.....5,414,500
Cuba,.....	3,524,962	3,557,967	
Spanish colon's,	1,554,966	411,543	
China,.....	5,630,863	5,570,131	} Coffee,4,006,000 } Hides, 360,000 } Specie,3,459,000 } Hides, 198,000 } Dyewoods,..... 197,000
Brazil,.....	2,420,722	4,646,185	
Mexico,.....	1,659,660	4,148,379	} Linens, bleached and unbleached, 248,500 } Sheetings,..... 106,000
Russia,.....	1,402,946	559,080	
Sweden,.....	667,687	2,482	} Coffee, 251,700 } Hides, 201,800 } Pepper, 128,000
Dutch colonies, ..	525,601	864,830	
Peru,.....	438,495	433,427	
Cisplatine Rep...	344,672	475,853	} Specie, 146,500 } Coffee, 209,000 } Hides, 289,000
Colombia,.....	653,425	1,241,866	
Hayti,	225,610	1,194,008	} Specie, 155,500 } Coffee, 649,000 } Hides, 320,600 } Coffee, 848,000
Portugal & cols.	271,638	53,750	
Excess of Imp. \$	20,643,619		} Mahogany, 168,000 } Dyewoods, 113,600 } Hides, 21,700
	<i>Excess of Exports in 1840.</i>		} Specie and Bullion,2,262,500 } Linens, bleached and unbleached,3,493,500 } Hides and Skins,1,643,500
Gr't. Britain } & colonies, }	\$31,242,773	14,282,027	
Netherlands,.....	2,781,556	511,672	} Silk Goods,1,345,500 } Worsted Goods,..... 1,338,000 } Silk and Worsted Goods,..... 341,500 } Tin, 959,000 } Sheathing Copper,..... 411,000 } Copper, 99,700 } Ticking, Osnaburgs, and Burlaps, 145,000 } Sheetings,..... 153,800
Belgium,.....	2,045,788	81,553	
France,.....	4,268,678	11,594,376	} Coffee, 215,000 } Nutmegs, 102,000 } Tin, &c..... 48,600 } Specie,1,121,000 } Silk Goods,6,680,000 } Silk and Worsted Goods,.....1,339,000
Hanse Towns,..	1,676,966	924,493	
Chili,.....	1,111,970	1,605,391	} Worsted Goods,..... 906,000 } Furs, 289,000 } Linens, bleached and unbleached, 255,000 } Fruits, 129,000 } Linens, bleached and unbleached, 257,500 } Worsted Goods,..... 132,600
Texas,.....	915,424	75,338	
			} Silk and Worsted Goods,..... 190,000 } Specie, 480,500 } Pig Copper, 793,080 } Hides, 253,000 } Specie, 55,000 } Hides, 11,500

TABLE A.—Continued.

	Excess of Exports in 1840.	Value of Free Articles in 1840.	Principal Articles imported Free of Duty, in 1840; in round numbers.
Mediterranean, ...	703,709	1,480,047	{ Wool, 434,500 Rags, 303,600 Fruit, 154,000 Rags, 236,000 Silk Goods, 106,500 Specie, 420,000 Hides and Skins, 370,000 Spices, 84,000
Italy,	316,985	828,070	
Other countries, ..	524,197	1,446,938	

Excess of Exp. \$45,588,046 \$57,196,204

"The following tables show the balance of trade between the United States and foreign countries for the years 1838, '39, and 1840.

TABLE B.

"The EXPORTS from the United States to the following countries exceed the IMPORTS from those countries by the amount set against them, viz:—

	Ex. of Exports.
Great Britain,	\$28,858,219
British colonies,	10,748,407
Netherlands,	4,378,178
Belgium,	3,562,920
Texas,	3,216,652
Chili,	2,148,051
Central America,	140,728
Mediterranean,	431,830
French colonies,	323,611
Denmark,	234,567
Prussia,	107,880
Swedish West Indies,	168,131
South America, generally,	148,398
Asia, generally,	489,345
Africa, generally,	994,513
West Indies, generally,	760,892
South Seas,	75,725
Tot. Agg. of Excess as above,	\$56,788,047

TABLE C.

"The IMPORTS into the United States from the following countries exceed the EXPORTS to those countries by the amounts set against them, viz:—

	Ex. of Imports.
Spain,	\$3,319,623
Cuba,	15,527,428
Spanish colonies,	7,485,203
France,	12,129,975
China,	11,025,705
Brazil and Mexico,	9,646,289
Russia,	3,407,631
Colombia,	2,577,366
Sweden,	1,938,151
Dutch colonies,	1,106,236
Portugal and colonies,	1,701,534
Cisplatine Republic,	1,019,086
Argentine Republic and Peru,	2,058,927
Italy,	911,515
Hayti,	846,547
Hanse Towns,	715,410
Danish West Indies,	458,605
Uncertain,	107,870
Tot. Agg. of Excess as above,	\$75,983,101

TABLE D.

"Aggregate excess of imports from, over exports to, the following countries, from 1833 to 1840, inclusive:—

China,	\$42,597,265
Cuba,	41,602,194
Spain,	9,209,772
Span. colonies,	20,721,914
France,	33,545,871
Brazil,	20,428,284
Russia,	12,928,315
Mexico,	7,990,893
Swed. & Norw.	6,335,670
Colombia, &c.	6,318,445
On the Mediter.	5,124,099
Peru,	4,396,776
Argent. Repub.	3,555,004
Hayti,	3,284,006
Dutch colonies,	604,177
All oth. places,	5,246,876
Tot. agg. excess of imports from the above, for the 8 yrs. ending Sept. 30, 1840	\$223,889,561

Agg. excess of exports from the following, in same time	
Gt. Brit. & cols.	\$14,129,819
Netherlands,	11,838,141
Belgium,	8,473,850
Chili,	3,425,659
Hanse Towns,	220,681
Texas ('37 to '40)	4,200,096
Tot. agg. excess of exports from the above places—8 years—'33 to '40,	\$42,288,246
Excess of imports (paid for by remittances of state stocks, earnings of freight, and by bankruptcies of individuals and of the U. S. Bank) over exports, from 1833 to 1840,	\$181,601,315
Tot. imports, '33 to '40,	\$1,105,455,692
Tot. exports, '33 to '40,	923,854,377
Excess of Imports, as above,	\$181,601,315
Average annual excess of imports from 1833 to '40	\$22,700,164

COTTON GROWN IN THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1819 TO 1840.

Statement showing the Quantity, Price, and Value of the Cotton grown in the United States, from 1819 to 1840.

Years.	Millions of Pounds.	Price per Pound.	Value.	Increase.
1820	160	17 cents.	\$27,200,000	
1821	180	16 "	28,800,000	
1822	210	16½ "	34,650,000	
1823	185	11 "	20,350,000	
1824	215	15 "	32,250,000	
1825	255	21 "	53,550,000	
1826	350	11 "	38,500,000	
TOTAL, 7 yrs.	1,555	Av. 15½ cents.	\$234,675,000	
1827	270	9½ "	27,700,000	
1828	325	10½ "	40,625,000	
1829	365	10 "	36,500,000	
1830	350	10 "	35,000,000	
1831	385	9½ "	35,612,500	
1832	390	10 "	39,000,000	
1833	445	11 "	48,950,000	
TOTAL, 7 yrs.	2,530	Av. 10 cents	\$263,387,500	\$28,712,500
1834	460	13 "	59,800,000	
1835	416	16½ "	68,640,000	
1836	445	15½ "	67,862,500	
1837	485	15½ "	73,962,500	
1838	525	10½ "	53,812,500	
1839	566	14 "	79,240,000	
1840	880	9½ "	83,600,000	
TOTAL, 7 yrs.	3,777	Av. 13½ cents.	\$487,117,500	\$223,730,000

COMPARATIVE VARIATIONS IN PRICES OF COTTON AT LIVERPOOL, FOR 1840 AND 1841.

Uplands. 1841.		1840.		Uplands. 1841.		1840.	
January	8,.....5¼ a 7	5½ a 7¼	July	9,.....5½ a 7¼	4¼ a 6¾		
"	15,.....6 a 7¼	5¼ a do.	"	16,.....5½ a do	do. a do.		
"	22,.....6 a 7¼	5½ a 7	"	23,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	29,.....do. a do	5¾ a 6¾	"	30,.....5½ a do	do. a do.		
February	5,.....do. a do	5½ a do.	August	6,.....5 a do	do. a do.		
"	12,.....6½ a 7¼	5¾ a do.	"	13,.....do. a do	5 a 6½		
"	19,.....do. a do	do. a do.	"	20,.....5½ a do	4½ a do.		
"	26,.....6 a 7¼	5¼ a do.	"	27,.....5½ a do	do. a 6¾		
March	5,.....do. a do	5¾ a do.	September	3,.....5½ a do	do. a do.		
"	12,.....6¼ a 7½	5¼ a do.	"	10,.....5 a 7¼	4½ a 6¾		
"	19,.....do. a do	5½ a do.	"	17,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	26,.....6½ a do	5¾ a do.	"	24,.....do. a 7	5 a do.		
April	2,.....6 a do	5¼ a do.	October	1,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	9,.....6 a 7¾	5½ a do.	"	8,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	16,.....do. a do	5 a do.	"	15,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	23,.....5½ a 7¾	5¼ a 7	"	22,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	30,.....5¾ a do	5½ a do.	"	29,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
May	7,.....do. a do	do. a do.	November	5,.....4¾ a 6¾	do. a do.		
"	14,.....do. a do	5 a do.	"	12,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	21,.....5½ a 7¼	4¾ a do.	"	19,.....do. a do	do. a 6½		
"	28,.....5½ a do	4¾ a 6¾	"	26,.....4¾ a 7	do. a do.		
June	4,.....5¾ a do	do. a do.	December	3,.....4¾ a 6¾	5½ a do.		
"	11,.....5¼ a do	do. a do.	"	10,.....do. a do	do. a do.		
"	18,.....5½ a do	do. a do.	"	17,.....4½ a do	do. a do.		
"	25,.....do. a do	do. a 6½	"	24,.....do. a do	5¼ a 6¾		
July	2,.....5¾ a do	5 a 6¼	"	31,.....do. a do	do. a do.		

TRADE OF SANDUSKY, OHIO.

The following statement of the principal articles shipped at Sandusky, the northern termination of the Mad River & Lake Erie Railroad, drawn from the books of the shipping merchants of that place, is furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine by James D. Whitney, Esq., of Sandusky. It may, therefore, be relied on as correct, and exhibits a most flattering condition of the business of that town, as well as of the increase of western commerce:—

STATEMENT OF SHIPMENTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRODUCE FROM SANDUSKY, 1841.				
462,766 bushels	Wheat, value....	\$462,766	201 barrels Tallow.....	3,758
30,019 "	Corn,.....	12,007	183 " Dried Fruit,.....	740
22,457 barrels	Flour,.....	112,285	3,879 kegs Butter,.....	26,375
10,485 "	Pork,.....	73,395	164 packs Furs,.....	23,120
3,249 "	Beef,.....	19,494	14,835 pounds Wool,.....	4,450
2,223 "	Whiskey, &c...	17,784	8,454 " Feathers,.....	3,381
657 "	Lard,.....	6,227	146,886 " Hides,.....	8,753
734 kegs	Lard,.....	2,569	17,735 " Paper Rags,.....	709
785 casks	Ashes,.....	20,000	105,559 " Hams,.....	5,277
4,512 casks and barrels	Seed,...	47,376	911 barrels Plaster, ground,.	1,366
509 barrels	Beans,.....	1,200		
TOTAL value,.....			\$853,032	

Besides these shipments, there were 132½ tons of sundries, of which no valuation was computed. Of imports, there were, in gross, 3,812 tons merchandise taken in store, intended for the traders of Sandusky, and for a wide extent of country interior. Also, 19,337 barrels of salt, for consumption in the packing establishments in the town, and for the supply of the country; besides lumber to a large amount, the quantity not known. This statement relates only to the business proper of Sandusky. There are upon Sandusky Bay and its tributaries three other points of business importance, to wit: Venice, situated three miles above Sandusky, at which the manufacturing of flour is largely carried on; Portage, situated twelve miles up the bay, near extensive beds of gypsum, which is manufactured by steam power, and annually shipped to the extent of several thousand barrels; and Lower Sandusky, situated at the head of navigation on the Sandusky river, thirty-six miles from the mouth of the bay. This latter town is the seat of justice of Sandusky county, enjoying a considerable hydraulic power, and trading with an extensive and growing portion of the country.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF HONOLULU.

Our intercourse with the Hawaiian Islands, principally through our whale ships, will render the annexed statistics, from late Sandwich Islands papers, interesting to a portion of our commercial readers. They seem to have been prepared with considerable care and apparent accuracy, and afford a very good idea of the resources, trade, and condition of Oahu.

Imports into the Port of Honolulu, from August 18, 1840, to August 17, 1841.

United States—Blue, bleached and unbleached Cotton Cloths, Prints, Handkerchiefs, Crockery and Glassware, Hardware, Paints and Oil, Sheathing Copper, Cordage, Canvass, Flour, Bread, Wines and Spirits, Iron, Sugar-Mills, Lumber, &c. &c.....	\$193,000
England—Same as above,.....	92,000
Chili—Same as above,.....	39,000
New South Wales—Same as above,.....	10,000
Society Islands—Pearl Shells and English Goods,.....	6,500
California—Hides, Tallow, Sea-Otter Skins, Soap, Cedar Lumber, &c.....	42,700
Mexico—Specie,.....	20,000
Columbia River—Lumber, Spars, and Salmon,.....	12,000
China—Teas, Silks, Nankeens, Blue Cottons, Camphor, Trunks, Nankeen Clothing; also, Coffee, Rice, and Cigars, from Manilla,.....	40,000
TOTAL, imports,.....	\$455,200

Remarks—In the imports is included such merchandise only as has been actually landed. No account has been made of that which has been brought to Honolulu destined for other markets, and of course not landed in that place. The amount of imports this year greatly exceeds that of any former year. Less goods however have exchanged hands, owing to the prohibition of the coasting trade of California by foreign vessels; and the foreign trade to Norfolk Sound having ceased in consequence of the Russians obtaining their supplies direct from Europe.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF HONOLULU, FROM AUGUST 18, 1840, TO AUGUST 17, 1841.

Produce of the Sandwich Islands.

	<i>Value.</i>
Bullock Hides, 15,000 at \$2 each,	\$30,000
Goat Skins, 18,000 at 23 cents each,	4,140
Arrow Root, 83,000 pounds at 4 cents,	3,320
Brown Sugar, 60,000 pounds at 5 cents,	3,000
Molasses and Syrup, 6000 gallons at 23 cents,	1,380
Salt, 1800 barrels at \$1 25,	2,250
Sperm Oil, vessels fitted from Honolulu, 440 barrels at \$22,	9,900
Sundries, viz: Pulu Hapuu, (a moss,) Mustard Seed, Leaf Tobacco, Candle-nut Oil, &c,	2,090
Salt and Fresh Provisions, Vegetables, &c., sold to men-of-war, whaling, and merchant vessels,	69,200
TOTAL, exports,	\$125,060

Remarks—The crop of sugar and molasses for the year 1841 had not yet been exported. The quantity produced far exceeded that of 1840, and will continue to increase yearly. Owing to the “*kapu*” on killing wild bullock, laid by the king for five years, from 1840, to enable the number to increase, the amount of hides exported this year is small, and will be still less while the “*kapu*” remains in force. Heretofore, from 3000 to 9000 hides have been exported annually. Notwithstanding the facts above stated, it will be seen that the amount of exports exceeds that of any former year. The visit of the United States Exploring Squadron to the islands was very beneficial to so small a trading community; a large amount of money was put into circulation, giving the natives an opportunity to sell a large amount of provisions, &c., and the merchants the means of making profitable remittances to other countries.

SHIPPING OWNED AT HONOLULU.

	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
By citizens of the United States—Bark Don Quixote,	260	\$10,000
Brig Lama,	144	8,500
“ Maryland,	100	6,500
“ Bolivar,	212	5,000
Schooner Hawaii,	37	2,200
“ Pilot,	20	1,200
TOTAL, American,	773	\$33,400
By English subjects—Bark Honolulu,	160	9,000
Brig Clementine,	100	4,000
TOTAL,	1,033	\$46,400

Seven small schooners owned by natives.

ARRIVALS OF FOREIGN VESSELS, IN 1841.

<i>Nation.</i>	<i>Whaling.</i>	<i>Merchant.</i>
United States,	50	14
England,	3	13
France,	0	2
Mexico,	0	1
TOTAL, arrivals,	53	30

U. S. DUTIES, BY THE SEVERAL ACTS OF 1816, 1824, 1828, AND 1832.
A Comparative Statement of the most important Articles bearing Specific Duties, as imposed by the acts of 1816, 1824, 1828, and 1832, and by the bill proposed by the Committee on Manufactures; from Mr. Saltonstall's report of said committee, March 31, 1842.

Articles.	1816.	1824.	1828.	1832.	Proposed bill.
Flannels, book'gs, and baizes, sq. yd.	25 p. c.	25 p. c.	14	16	14
Carpeting, Brussels, &c.....	25 p. c.	50	70	63	50
Carpeting, Venetian, &c.....	25 p. c.	25	40	35	30
Carpeting, floor-cloth, patent, "	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	50	43	35
Oil-cloth furniture,.....	15 p. c.	30 p. c.	25	12½	10
Cotton bagging,.....	20 p. c.	3½	5	3½	3
Vinegar,..... gallon	15 p. c.	8	8	8	5
Beer in casks,.....	10	15	15	15 }	30 p. c.
Beer in bottles,.....	15	20	20	20 }	
Oil, fish, &c.....	—	—	—	—	20
Oil, olive,.....	25	25	25	25	20
Oil, castor,.....	15	40	40	40	37½
Oil, linseed,.....	15	25	25	25	20
Oil, rapeseed,.....	15	25	25	25	20
Sugar, brown,..... pound	3	3	3	2½	2
Sugar, white clayed,.....	4	4	4	3½	2½
Sugar, loaf,.....	12	12	12	12	6
Sugar, candy,.....	12	12	12	12	6
Sugar, lump and oth. refined, "	10	10	10	10	6
Sugar, syrup,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	2½	2
Chocolate,.....	3	4	4	4	4
Cheese,.....	9	9	9	9	7
Tallow candles,.....	3	5	5	5	4
Lard,.....	15 p. c.	3	3	3	2
Beef and Pork,.....	15 p. c.	2	2	2	2
Bacon,.....	15 p. c.	3	3	3	3
Butter,.....	15 p. c.	5	5	5	5
Saltpetre, refined,.....	7½ p. c.	3	3	3	2
Oil of Vitriol,.....	7½	3	3	3	2
Dry Ochre,.....	1	1	1	1	1
Ochre in Oil,.....	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Red and White Lead,.....	3	4	5	5	3
Whiting,.....	1	1	1	1	1
Litharge,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	5	5	3
Sugar of Lead,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	5	5	3
Lead, pig, &c.....	1	2	3	3	2½
Lead Pipes,.....	20 p. c.	25 p. c.	5	5	3
Lead, old scrap,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	2	1½
Cordage, tarred,.....	3	4	4	4	4
Cordage, untarred,.....	4	5	5	5	5
Twine, packthread, &c.....	4	5	5	5	30 p. c.
Corks,.....	15 p. c.	12	12	12	9
Copper Rods and Bolts,.....	4	4	4	4	4
Copper Nails and Spikes,.....	4	4	4	4	4
Wire, cap or bonnet,.....	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	12	20
Wire, ir. or st., not ab. No. 14,	—	—	6	5	3½
Wire, ir. or st., above No. 14,	—	—	10	9	6
Iron Nails,.....	3	5	5	5	4
Iron Spikes,.....	2	4	4	4	3
Iron Cables and Chains, &c.....	20 p. c.	3	3	3	2
Iron Anchors,.....per 112 lbs.	150	2	2	2	2
Iron Anvils,..... pound	20 p. c.	2	2	2	2
Iron, smiths' hammers, &c....	20 p. c.	2½	2½	2½	2
Iron Castings, Vessels, &c....	20 p. c.	1½	1½	1½	1½
Iron, all other,.....	20 p. c.	1	1	1	1

UNITED STATES DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	1816.	1824.	1828.	1832.	Proposed bill.
Iron, r.&b. rods, 3.16 a 8.16 di. pound	20 p. c.	3	3½	3	2½
Iron, nail or spike rods,..... "	20 p. c.	3	3½	3	2½
Iron, sheet or hoop,.....112 lbs.	250	3	3½	3	2½
Iron, band, &c..... pound	20 p. c.	3	3½	3	2
Iron in pigs,..... cwt.	50	62½	50	50	40
Iron, old scrap,..... "	—	—	62½	62½	42½
Iron, bar, rolled,..... "	150	150	185	150	125
Iron, bar, hammered,..... "	45	90	112	90	85
Hemp,..... "	150	175	300	200	200
Alum,..... "	100	200	250	250	200
Copperas,..... "	100	200	200	200	130
Wheat Flour,..... "	15 p. c.	50	50	50	50
Salt,..... bushel	20	20	20	10	8
Coal,..... "	5	6	6	6	\$1 60 ton
Wheat,..... "	15 p. c.	25	25	25	25
Oats,..... "	15 p. c.	10	10	10	10
Potatoes,..... "	15 p. c.	10	10	10	10
Paper, folio and quarto post, pound	30 p. c.	20	20	20	15
Paper, foolscap, &c..... "	30 p. c.	17	17	17	12½
Paper, print'g, cop'rplate, &c. "	30 p. c.	10	10	10	12½
Paper, sheathing, &c..... "	30 p. c.	3	3	3	3
Paper, all other,..... "	30 p. c.	15	15	15	12½
Books, prior to 1775,..... vol.	—	4	4	4	4 to 1800
Books, other than English,..... "	—	4	4	4	4
Books, Greek and Latin, b'nd. pound	—	15	15	15	15
Books, do. do. unb'nd. "	—	13	13	13	13
Books, all other, bound,..... "	—	30	30	30	30
Books, all other, unbound,.... "	—	26	26	26	26
Apothecaries' vials, under 6 oz. gross	20 p. c.	} various, from \$1		175	120
Apothecaries' vials, 6 to 16 oz. "	20 p. c.	} to \$1 75 per gro. }		225	170
Demijohns,..... No.	20 p. c.	25	25	25	50
Glass Bottles, to 1 quart,..... gross	144	200	200	200	160
Glass Bottles, over 1 quart,..... "	20 p. c.	250	250	225	200
Playing Cards,..... pack	30	30	30	30	10
Win. Glass, not over 8×10, per hund.	250	300	300	300	240
Win. Glass, over 8×10, & not over } 10×12,.....per 100 sq. feet }	275	350	350	350	237
Win. Glass, over 10×12, " "	275	4 to 500	4 to 500	400	256
Fish, dried or smoked,.....quintal	100	100	100	100	100
Fish, salmon,..... bbl.	200	200	200	200	200
Fish, mackerel,..... "	150	150	150	150	150
Fish, all other,..... "	100	100	100	100	100
Shoes and slippers, silk,..... pair	30	30	30	30	25
Shoes, prunella,..... "	25	25	25	25	20
Shoes, leather, &c..... "	25	25	25	25	20
Shoes, children's,..... "	15	15	15	15	12
Boots and bootees,..... "	150	150	150	150	125
Wool, over 8 cents,.....pound }	Over 10	30 p. c.	50 p. c.	40 p. c.	23 p. c.
Under 10	15 p. c.	& 4 cts	& 4 cts	& 4 cts	& 4 cts
Woolen Yarn,..... "	25	33½	—	50 p. c.	30 p. c.
				& 4 cts	& 4 cts
Merino Shawls,..... per ct.	25	} 33½ and 45 p. c.		50	40
Cloths and Cassimeres,..... "	25	} on various min-		50	40
Other woollen manufactures,.. "	25	} ima.		50	40
Clothes, ready made,..... "	30	30	50	50	50
Glass, cut,..... pound	20 p. c.	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	
		& 3 cts	& 3 cts	& 3 cts	
Glass, plain and other,..... "	—	—	—	20 p. c.	& 2 cts

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

POINT CHAUVEAU LIGHT,

ON THE SOUTH-EASTERN EXTREMITY OF THE ÎLE DE RE.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, March 18, 1842.—Navigators are hereby informed that on the 1st of March, 1842, a fixed light was established on Point Chauveau, the south-eastern extremity of Re Island, in lat. 46 deg. 8 min. 2 sec. north, and long. 1 deg 16 min. 17 sec. west of Greenwich. The light is 72 feet above high water of equinoctial springs, and may be seen at the distance of four leagues, and therefore from the entrance of the Pertuis d'Antioche. As this new light must always be in sight whenever the harbor-light of La Rochelle can be seen from seaward, they will be readily distinguished from each other by their appearance and bearings. The mariner is reminded that the harbor-light of La Rochelle is so placed that the Chauveau Rocks and the Lavardin Reef will be avoided by keeping the light open to the southward of the Lanterne Tower, which stands 23 yards to the westward of it. A white stone beacon, 33 feet above high water, has been erected on the Lavardin Reef.—*Communicated by the French government.*

MEROPE SHOAL.—MINDORO STRAIT.

The following is an extract of a letter from Capt. George Blaxland, dated the 5th of May, 1841, received by the *Mumford*:—"As a piece of nautical news or information, which Capt. Ross and his coadjutors in the survey of the China Sea will hardly credit, W.N.W. from the island off the outer edge of Appoo Shoal, ten or twelve miles, lies a rocky patch, with quarter less three fathoms on the shoalest part, with a line of soundings of ten fathoms for some distance, the whole length about one mile; the boats of the Merope and two London whalers have been on it several times. How it has never been seen by the numerous ships passing up and down is extraordinary, it lying in the fairway outside Appoo Shoal.—*New Zealand Gazette.*

The foregoing extract from the Shipping Gazette is a most important information for seamen using the Strait of Mindoro. Captain Ross's surveys had nothing to do with it whatever, nor had any ships passing up and down the China Sea.—*Ed. Lond. Naut. Mag.*

CAPE GRINEZ LIGHT.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, March 18, 1842.—The fixed light established on Cape Grinez in November, 1837, in lat. 50 deg. 52 min. 10 sec. north, and long. 1 deg. 35 min. 9 sec. east, will, on the 1st of July, 1842, be converted into a revolving light, which will re-appear every half minute. The additional flashing light, established in 1838, near the above fixed light, will then discontinue. The new revolving light will be visible eight leagues, and will be distinguished from that of Calais by the difference of their respective intervals, that of Calais being 90 seconds, and that of Grinez only 30 seconds; and further, the bright glares of Calais light are separated by perfect darkness, while in the intervals between those of Grinez, a faint light will be visible to vessels within the distance of four leagues.—*Communicated by the French government.*

LIGHT ON POINT D'ALPRECK.

On the 1st of July, 1842, the fixed light on Point Alpreck, in lat. 50 deg. 41 min. 37 sec. north, and long. 1 deg. 33 min. 54 sec. east, will every two minutes change into flashes of red light, which are to continue for three seconds. This light will not be visible more than four leagues.—*Communicated by the French government.*

SHOALS IN THE STRAITS OF MADURA.

The commission for correcting and improving the sea charts of Netherlands India has published the following observations for the guidance of mariners :—

1. Lieutenant Eschauzier, of the Royal Navy, has discovered a shoal (droogde) in the Straits of Madura, of which the northwesterly point, a white sand hill, is nearly three to four feet above the water, and may perhaps always be visible. The whole shoal he supposes to be about three cables' length in circumference, covered with stones, and quite flat, and so perpendicular that near it no soundings could be taken. The invisible part is situated in lat. 7 deg. 25 min. 30 sec. south, long. 113 deg. 8 min. 34 sec. east of Greenwich; distance about $2\frac{1}{4}$ leagues southwest of Bucks Island (Bokken Eyland.)

2. By the master of the barque Eendragt, Deuling, on the 7th Oct., 1841, several blind rocks were discovered W.b.N. of the Swans Flat (Zwaanijis Droogte,) distance about half a league N. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. from Bucks Island (Bokken Eyland,) on which not quite four fathoms water was found. Near another cluster of rocks, where there appeared to be no more than two or three fathoms water, after sounding he could find no bottom at sixteen and seventeen fathoms water, but trying a heavier lead he ascertained that near those rocks the depth of water was twenty-three feet.

3. By several correct observations it has been proved that the fortress on the east side of Kalemaas, near Sourabaya, is situated in 112 deg. 48 min. 10 sec. east long. of Greenwich, supposing the tide ball at Batavia to be at 116 deg. 52 min. long. of Greenwich.—*London Shipping List.*

KNOBEN LIGHT, OFF ANHOLT.—CATTEGAT.

Elsinore, Feb. 26, 1842.—The General Board of Customs and Trade at Copenhagen have issued an order under date of the 22d instant, according to which the light-vessel hitherto stationed in the "Grounds" off Dragoe, will in the course of the spring be removed to the reef extending in an eastern direction from the island of Anholt and called the Knoben, while the floating-light thus withdrawn from the Grounds will be temporarily replaced on and after the 1st March, 1842, by a common galliot-rigged vessel, without painted sides, which will show a red flag on the top of her foremast whenever the light is not burning. The Danish government, besides, have it in contemplation to change the Anholt light from a fixed to a rotary one.

BUOY OF THE BIANCO SHOAL.

Downing-street, March 14, 1842.—Sir—Referring to your letter of the 15th of January last, I am directed by Lord Stanley to acquaint you, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that a report has been received from her majesty's lord high commissioner at Corfu, stating that the black buoy which had disappeared from the Cape Bianco Shoal, off the south end of Corfu, was replaced in its berth by persons in the employment of the Ionian sanitary authorities, so far back as the 30th November, 1841. I am, &c., G. W. HOPE.—*Extract from a letter to Sir J. Barrow, etc.*

KENTISH KNOCK LIGHT-VESSEL.

Trinity House, London, March 3, 1842.—Notice is hereby given that on or about the 20th April, 1842, the ordinary ball upon the mast of the light-vessel at the Kentish Knock was surmounted by a second ball, of smaller size, whereby the light-vessel may with certainty be distinguished under all circumstances during the daytime.—J. HERBERT, Sec.

DISCONTINUANCE OF A SEA MARK.—COAST OF HOLLAND.

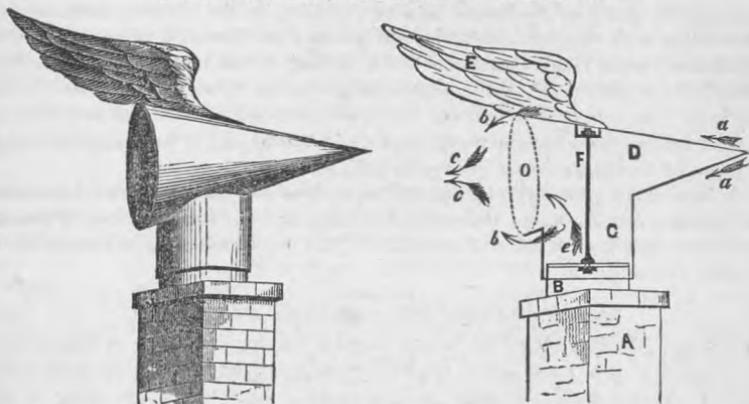
Amsterdam, March 1, 1842.—The director-general of marine has given notice that the grain-mill of Ballum, on the Island Ameland, which at times used to serve as a landmark, has been recently broken down, and therefore this mark is no more to be depended upon.

LIGHTHOUSE AT GIBRALTAR.

Trinity-House, London, 6th April, 1841.—The lighthouse which for some time past has been in course of erection at Gibraltar, being now nearly completed, notice is hereby given, that the light therein will be exhibited for the first time on the evening of the 1st of August next, and thenceforth continued every night from sunset to sunrise.

Mariners are to observe, that this lighthouse is situate upon Europa Point, and that a powerful fixed light will be exhibited therein, and will burn at an elevation of 150 feet, or thereabouts, above the level of the sea. By order, J. HERBERT, *Secretary.*

ESPY'S PATENT CONICAL VENTILATOR.



We are happy to learn that this important invention has at last attracted the attention of our government, and is gaining popular favor throughout the community. The inventor, James P. Espy, Esq., well known in this country and in Europe, as the discoverer of the "law of storms," it appears is reaping a richly-deserved harvest for his genius and persevering enterprise. His apparatus has already been employed for ventilating several of our ships of war, as well as the public buildings at Washington, and answers every desired expectation. It is well adapted to the purpose of ventilating public buildings, ships, kitchens, cellars, cisterns, vats, mines, stables, &c. Also for producing a strong draft in chimneys (and thereby prevent their smoking,) flues to steamboats, locomotives, and a multiplicity of other purposes. It may be described as follows; reference being had to the letters in the above diagram, which represents a vertical section, and a full view of the ventilator attached to a chimney:—

A, denotes a chimney.

B, a sheet-iron pipe, secured upon the top of the chimney.

C, a sheet-iron collar, fitting loosely over the pipe B.

D, a hollow cone, made also of sheet iron, into which the collar C enters.

E, a vane, to keep the cone pointed to the wind.

F, a spindle, on which the apparatus revolves.

The arrows *aa*, *bb*, *cc*, and *e*, indicate the direction of the currents of air. Suppose the wind to blow in the direction of the arrows *aa*, it will pass along the surface of the cone, from its apex to its base, where it will converge as represented by the arrows *bb* and *cc*, and produce a partial vacuum at O at the mouth of the cone, and consequently a strong current of air will rush up the chimney A, in the direction of the arrow *e*.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*A Treatise on the Law and Practice of Bankruptcy, with reference to the General Bankrupt Act*; supported and illustrated by the English and American authorities, and by the principles of Law and Equity, as applicable thereto, with an appendix containing the Rules of Court, a Table of Fees, the forms of proceedings, the Act of Congress, and a Digested Index. By SAMUEL OWEN, Counsellor at Law. 8vo. New York: John S. Voorhies. 1840.

There are few legal subjects so important for the lawyer thoroughly to understand as the one this work is intended to illustrate and explain. The immense amount of cases continually springing up under the bankrupt act, and the numerous questions that must necessarily arise in the judicial construction of its various provisions, render a treatise of the kind before us very valuable at this time. It must be confessed, however, that there are numerous difficulties in the way of the author who boldly attempts the construction of any new law so comprehensive as this. He enters almost wholly upon new ground, without precedent or guide, and it would be remarkable indeed, if, under such circumstances, he did not occasionally present a different view or opinion from that entertained by courts when they come to pass judiciously upon the same points. The work before us, however, is written with much care, and the author has been cautious in expressing any decided opinions of his own. Indeed, its chief value consists in its containing a large number of abridged English cases, decided under the bankrupt act of that country, which, in many of its features, resembles our own. It is true that some of its main provisions are essentially different, and yet its construction depends materially upon the same principles. Such being the case, a collection of these cases, well selected, is of the utmost value to the lawyer, and in classing them together, Mr. Owen has evinced considerable research. In addition to these, the work contains the entire bankrupt act, with a clear and comprehensive analysis, together with the rules and forms in bankruptcy adopted by the circuit and district courts of the United States, for the southern district of New York, all of which combine to render it exceedingly useful, and indeed almost indispensable to the practitioner.

- 2.—*Anthon's Latin Grammar. Part 2d.* An introduction to Latin Prose Composition, with a complete course of exercises, illustrative of all the important principles of Latin Syntax. pp. 327.
- 3.—*Anthon's Greek Lessons. Part 2d.* An introduction to Greek Prose Composition, with copious explanatory exercises, in which all the important principles of Greek Syntax are fully elucidated. By CHARLES ANTHON, L. L. D. 12mo. pp. 270. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The above works have been laid upon our table, and we gladly renew our acquaintance with the author. Indeed, we never see one of his classical school-books without wishing that the professor had written when we were school-boys, or that some enterprising men as the Messrs. Harper had presented our books in a guise so attractive. The object of the editor has been "to make the student more fully acquainted, than could be done in an ordinary grammar, with all the principles of the Greek and Latin Syntax." He has pursued, in our opinion, the best, if not the only method, calculated to effect his object, by separating the theory from the practice, by first stating the rules and then following them up with explanatory examples, thus impressing the principle in a clear and distinct manner on the mind of the pupil. We know of no author who has carried out this principle as fully as Professor Anthon. In selecting the exercises the author has "made free use of all the materials within his reach," and has succeeded in combining the "utile cum dulce," in a happy manner; every passage not only admits of conversion into pure classic language, but contains maxims of sound morality, practical wisdom, or some fact connected with Greek or Roman history.

In editing these works Professor Anthon has added to the many obligations already conferred; and has presented to the instructor a convenient help "to teach the young idea how to shoot," and to the scholar an introduction to Greek and Latin composition which he will find pleasant to cultivate.

- 4.—*Rudiments of American Law and Practice, on the plan of Blackstone; prepared for the use of Students at Law, and adapted to Schools and Colleges.* By THOMAS W. CLARK, Counsellor at Law. 8vo. pp. 408. New York: Gould, Banks, & Co. 1842.

The volume before us furnishes, within a moderate compass, and in clear and succinct language, the first principles of legal science, in a manner adapted to the comprehension of every citizen not willing to remain in utter ignorance of the laws and institutions of his country. Mr. Clark has taken Blackstone's Commentaries, both as the ground-work and model of these rudiments; probably the best method, by reason of its analytical character and logical arrangement, in which elementary knowledge can be conveyed. In addition to Blackstone, Mr. C. has drawn upon or consulted Wooddeson's Lectures, Kent's Commentaries, Guise's Digest, Stephens' Pleadings, Gould's Pleadings, the Legal Outlines of Mr. Hoffman of Baltimore, Jones on Bailment, Graham's Practice, and Hilliard's Digest. The work is mainly composed of the materials of a course of lectures delivered by the author in 1840 and 1841, to members of the New York Law School. It is well calculated to give citizens a clear insight into the first principles and general scope of an interesting science, and must, therefore, be found acceptable, not merely to students in law, but also to the merchant and general reader.

- 5.—*Cobb's New Spelling Book, in Six Parts.* New York: Caleb Bartlett. 1842.

This work, in nearly all its characteristic or leading features, differs not only from Mr. Cobb's former Spelling Book, but from all other spelling books. The great object of the compiler of this work seems to have been to class the words in such a manner that the difficulties and perplexities in learning the orthography of our language would be greatly lessened, if not entirely remedied.

Without intentional disparagement, we must, in candor, say that we do not find in this work the striking difficulties and hindrances which meet the scholar at almost every step in his progress through the other spelling books with which we are acquainted. In them we find various diphthongs, having the same sound; as *ee* in *deed*, *ea* in *plead*; *ie* in *chief*; *au* in *laud*, and *aw* in *bawl*; *ai* in *fail*, and *ay* in *play*, &c.—different terminations sounding alike, as *farce* and *parse*; *mortar*, *enter*, *nadir*, *tutor*, *martyr*; *table* and *shovel*; *risen* and *prison*, &c.—single and double consonants, as *atom* and *bottom*, *limit* and *summit*, *ripple* and *triple*, *habit* and *rabbit*, &c.—different consonants or combinations of consonants sounding alike, as single *f* in *mischief*, *ff* in *tariff*, *gh* in *enough*, and *ph* in *paragraph*, all ending with the sound of *f*; *e* in *cider* and *s* in *silent*, both beginning with the sound of *si*; *cion* in *coercion*, *sion* in *pension*, *tion* in *motion*, all ending with the sound of *shun*, &c. &c.—these, and a great variety of other equally perplexing anomalies, are promiscuously intermingled; while in the work before us they are all separately and minutely classed, by which the great obstacles in the way of learning to spell are entirely removed, or, at least, greatly lessened.

- 6.—*Uncle Sam's Recommendation of Phrenology to his millions of friends in the United States.* In a series of not very dull letters. 18mo. pp. 301. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

These letters, without place, date, and address at the top, or signature at the bottom, are certainly "not very dull," but rather amusing and instructive withal, and will amply repay the perusal. The volume is divided into forty-four letters, each treating of different subjects, in harmony with the author's design; with such titles as "The Why and Wherefore of writing," "How Phrenology gets along," "A File of Fine Fellows," "The Greatest of the Graces," "Reasons why Phrenology is likely to be true," "Our Great Men," "Advantages of Phrenology," etc.

- 7.—*Sermons, and Sketches of Sermons.* By the Rev. JOHN SUMMERFIELD, A. M., late a preacher in connection with the Methodist Episcopal Church; with an Introduction by the Rev. THOMAS E. BOND, M. D. 8vo. pp. 437. New York: Harper and Brothers.

Few preachers have been more successful or popular than Summerfield; for a brief space he enchained immense audiences by the more than magic influence of an eloquence, as peculiar in its character as it was universal in its control over the minds of men. There is a simplicity of style in these sermons and sketches which cannot fail of making its way to the heart, as certainly as pompous diction and parade of language and learning shuts up every avenue to the feelings.

- 8.—*An Exposition of the Creed.* By JOHN PEARSON, D. D., late Lord Bishop of Chester. With an Appendix, containing the principal Greek and Latin Creeds. Revised by the Rev. W. S. DOBSON, A. M. 8vo. pp. 616. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

The friends of the Episcopal Church in the United States are deeply indebted to the enterprising publishers of this volume for the various contributions they have made to our theological literature. Of this edition of Pearson on the Creed, embodied in one beautiful octavo volume, the following are stated by the reverend editor as the peculiar advantages. "First—Great care has been taken to correct the numerous errors in the references to the texts of Scripture, which had crept in by reason of the repeated editions through which this admirable work has passed; and many references, as will be seen on turning to the index of texts, have been added.—Secondly; The quotations in the notes have been almost universally identified and the references to them adjoined.—Lastly; The principal Symbola, or Creeds, of which the particular articles have been cited by the author, have been annexed; and wherever the original writers have given the Symbola in a scattered and disjointed manner, the detached parts have been brought into a successive and connected point of view. These have been added in chronological order in the form of an appendix."

- 9.—*Age of the World, as founded on the Sacred Records, historic and prophetic: and the "Signs of the Times," viewed in the aspect of premonitions of the speedy establishment on the earth of the Millennial State, by the second, personal, pre-millennial advent of Christ: with an introductory essay, vindicating the claims of Sacred Chronology against the cavils of the atheist, antiquarian, and infidel.* By the Rev. R. C. SHIMEALL, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, author of Scriptural and Ecclesiastical Charts, etc. 12mo. pp. 364. New York: Swords, Stanford & Co., and the Author, 47 Amos-street.

These pages originally formed three lectures, which were delivered by the author at the Apollo Rooms, in New York, on the Sunday evenings of December 25th, 1841, and January 2d and 23d, 1842. Mr. Shimeall is learned in sacred lore, and particularly in chronology; and the volume before us evinces great ingenuity and research; but it is not our province or design to discuss the merits of the peculiar opinions which he entertains, but merely to call the attention of all who take any interest in the subject to the work; and we would at the same time, from a personal knowledge of the author, express our entire confidence in the purity of his motives and the honesty of his views, which are here disclosed with so much force and eloquence.

- 10.—*The Missionary's Daughter, or Memoir of Lucy Goodale Thurston, of the Sandwich Islands.* 18mo. pp. 231. New York: Dayton & Newman.

The subject of this memoir was the child of one of our oldest missionaries in the far off isles of the seas. It is stated in the narrative that she was among the first of the children of the missionaries who have been retained at a missionary station to so mature an age; and notwithstanding all the disadvantages of her isolated situation, attained a high degree of mental cultivation; and gave living and dying evidence of the purity of her life, and the sincerity of her piety. At the age of seventeen she landed upon the shores of her fatherland, with the expectation of enjoying for a season the refinements of civilization, and institutions of the Christian religion; but within three weeks after her arrival she found a place in our sepulchres. Besides the memoir, the volume contains a variety of information connected with the discovery, manners, habits, etc., of the Sandwich Islands.

- 11.—*Kabaosa; or the Warriors of the West: A Tale of the Last War.* By MRS. ANNA L. SNELLING. New York: Printed for the Publisher by D. Adee. 1842.

The scenes of this narrative are laid in the country bordering on Lakes Michigan, Erie, and St. Clair. While the novelists of the present day are directing the attention of the curious to the past history of the eastern states, our fair countrywoman is of opinion, "that the many romantic and wonderful incidents abounding in the far and fertile west, scarcely arouse the curiosity of the many enlightened minds who exhaust their talents in recording events familiar to every well-read person." Impressed with this fact, Mrs. S. has taken up her pen, and wielded it with considerable effect in her delineations of western scenery, the Indian character, habits, pursuits, etc. Inasmuch as we desire to foster a national literature, we trust that every effort directed to that object may meet with an appropriate consideration from a patriotic people.

- 12.—*Italy and the Italian Islands, from the earliest Ages to the present Time.* By WILLIAM SPALDING, Esq., Professor of Rhetoric in the University of Edinburgh—with engravings and illustrative notes and maps. Vols. 151-153, Harpers' Family Library

This work is republished from the Edinburgh Cabinet Library, and the appearance of a book in that connection is, of itself, no small recommendation. Its plan is similar to that of the other historical works in this very able series—embracing so much of the history of the country as will afford a clear and comprehensive view of the most remarkable events, together with a particular description of its physical features, antiquities, &c., and an account of its civil and religious institutions, of the character and customs of the people, the condition of society, &c. &c. In this manner a very complete picture of the country and of its inhabitants is given. Italy has been illustrious in every period of her history—whether anciently, as the conqueror of the world; in the middle ages, as nobly asserting the principles of civil liberty; or in more modern times, as the nursery of literature and the arts. No country, therefore, has greater claims upon our attention, and the instruction afforded by these excellent volumes will amply reward the reader.

- 13.—*Pathology, founded on the Natural System of Anatomy and Physiology; A Philosophical Sketch, in which the natural classification of diseases, and the distinctions between morbid and curative symptoms, afforded by pain or its absence, are pointed out, etc.* By ALEXANDER WALKER, author of 'Intermarriage,' 'Woman,' 'Beauty,' &c. New York: J. H. & G. Langley. 1842.

Mr. Walker is well known to the reading and medical public, by several works he has written, and within a few years put forth. The present is one that will add to his reputation as a brilliant, if not a profound, medical philosopher. It has been argued against him that his induction is not sufficiently copious to warrant the conclusions that he draws from his facts; but no one, we think, can deny him the credit of great ingenuity, as well as honesty. His division of symptoms into morbid and curative is not, in the opinion of some medical critics, as original as the doctor supposes. It is asserted that the same distinction has been already made in the writings of Galen. Although decidedly opposed to the doctrines of Hanne-mann, he meets them with considerable fairness and candor. We would recommend our medical polemics generally to imitate his example, and depend more upon argument and less upon simple unsustained assertion.

- 14.—*A Dictionary of Science, Literature, and Art.* Comprising the History, Description, and Scientific Principles of every branch of Human Knowledge; with derivations and definitions of all the terms in general use. Illustrated with engravings on wood. Edited by W. T. BRANDE, F. R. S. L. & E. of Her Majesty's mint, etc., assisted by JOSEPH CAUVIN, Esq. 8vo. New York: Wiley and Putnam. 1842.

The first number of this new dictionary is before us; and is to be continued in monthly numbers of fifty-six royal octavo pages. The great condensation of space obtained by the type employed, which, although small, is sufficiently clear for a book of reference, gives to each number reading matter equal in quantity to an ordinary sized novel of two volumes. The work will be comprised in 1,500 pages, which, with larger type and the usual octavo page, might be spread over twenty octavo volumes.

- 15.—*Godfrey Mahern, or the Life of the Author.* By THOMAS MILLER, author of 'Gideon Giles,' 'Rural Sketches,' 'A Day in the Woods,' etc. New York: W. A. Le Blanc.

We have received the first number of this new tale of Miller, the Basket-maker, which is to be completed in fifteen monthly parts, with two illustrations in each. We agree with the editor of the London Times, that as a minute and tasteful painter of scenery, both in reference to the quietude of sylvan nature and the portraiture of humanity in its various positions, Miller cannot be surpassed at the present day; he has, in fact, most carefully looked to nature in all her variety, and he is happily gifted with a power of perception not often possessed. He feels strongly, and writes forcibly.

- 16.—*Contributions to Academic Literature.* By CHARLES H. LYON, A. M., one of the principals of Irving Institute. 12mo. pp. 144. New York: H. & S. Raynor. 1842.

The pieces in this little volume are generally well suited to the purposes of declamation; and they have at least one merit over the compiled selections in general use, however excellent in other respects—that of freshness. The subjects are generally well chosen, and as specimens of literary effort are highly creditable to the genius and scholarship of the author.

- 17.—*The American in Egypt, and Rambles through Arabia Petrea, and the Holy Land; during the years 1839-40.* By J. E. COOLEY.

We have looked over the proof-sheets of a work with the above title, which is shortly to issue from the press of D. Appleton & Co. It is rich in incidents of travel, and embraces a vast fund of information touching the countries through which the author passed, the manners, customs, and present condition of the people. Mr. Cooley is an acute observer and graphic limner, and possesses a most remarkable knowledge of human nature, its springs and motives; and judging from long personal acquaintance, and the portions of the work we have read, we are willing to risk our reputation on the opinion, that it will command a popularity and sale equal at least to Stephens' Travels in Central America. It is written in a clear, chaste, natural, and unaffected style, and illustrated with a great number of fine engravings. The typography of the work surpasses any thing we have yet seen from the American press.

- 18.—*Lectures to Young People.* By DORUS CLARKE, Pastor of the Congregational Church, Chickopee Factory Village. With an Introduction by the Rev. AMOS BLANCHARD. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1842.

These lectures were prepared with the desire to promote the intellectual, moral, and religious improvement of the young people of the author's pastoral charge; and at the solicitation of the young men before whom they were delivered, they were given to the public. The volume contains eight lectures, devoted to the following subjects:—Importance of the period of Youth—Intellectual cultivation—Established and correct religious principles—Dangers of young people—Origin, obligation, and proper observance of the Sabbath—Morality necessary, but insufficient to Salvation—Personal piety—Life of active usefulness. The author is a moderate Calvinist, and the lectures of course partake of his views.

- 19.—*Gazetteer of the State of New York:* Comprising its Topography, Geology, Mineralogical Resources, Civil Divisions, Canals, Railroads, and Public Institutions; together with general statistics; the whole alphabetically arranged. Also statistical tables, including the Census of 1840, and tables of distances, with a new map of the State, etc. 12mo. pp. 480. J. Disturnell. 1842.

In the collection and compilation of the information embraced in the pages of this Gazetteer, Mr. Disturnell "not only resorted to the most authentic resources, referring to similar works which have been published, of a like character, but also availed himself of the assistance of several competent persons of acknowledged talent and judgment." It has several advantages over Goddard's voluminous Gazetteer of this State, published in 1835; it is more comprehensive, the statistics more recent, and the price some fifty or sixty per cent less.

- 20.—*A Treatise on the Education of Daughters.* Translated from the French of Fenelon. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1842.

This admirable treatise of the good Archbishop of Cambrai, furnishes no slight evidence of his exalted genius and rational piety; who, though a prelate of the Catholic Church in the seventeenth century, has left in his numerous writings so few sentiments in the least degree uncongential to the taste and judgment of the liberal and enlightened Christian of the present age. We thank the enterprising publishers for furnishing the public with so neat and cheap an edition of a work so excellent in itself and so universally popular.

- 21.—*The Book of Psalms:* being the authorized version of that part of the Sacred volume, metrically arranged by JAMES NURSE. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1842.

It will be pleasing to every careful reader of the 'Psalms of David,' to find them metrically arranged, and printed in the form of the original. It is a very neat and cheap edition.

- 22.—*Letters to the Young.* By MARIA JANE JEWSEBURY. Saxton & Miles. 1842.

This is a third American edition of a very popular series of letters on religious subjects. They comprise a real, and not fictitious correspondence, and although designed for individual characters and cases, they admit of a less restricted application.

23.—*A Commentary on the Bankrupt Law of 1841, showing its operation and effect.* By GEORGE BICKNELL, JR., member of the Bar of New York. 8vo. pp. 100. Gould, Banks & Co. 1842.

This pamphlet treats of bankruptcy in general—bankrupts voluntary and involuntary—of the proceedings prior to the decree of bankruptcy—of the consequences of the decree—of proceedings subsequent to the decree—of the bankrupt's discharge—of partnership bankruptcy, etc. Appended to the treatise is an authentic copy of the bankrupt act, with an appendix of persons and a table of fees. It appears to be a very clear and succinct treatise on the subject, and will, we should think, prove useful, not only to the legal profession, but to merchants and all interested in the operation of the bankrupt law.

ORANGE COUNTY INSTITUTE.

We have some personal knowledge of the worthy principal referred to in the following communication, and we heartily concur in the views of the writer:—

"*Mr. Editor*—Among the many excellent institutions for the education of youth in our land, each contending with generous emulation for the favor and approbation of the public, there is none which has stood the ordeal of time with greater credit to itself than the Orange County Institution. This seminary is located upon the banks of the Hudson, near the flourishing village of Newburgh, enjoying the retirement of the country and the convenience of a large and populous town. It is in one of the most healthful and delightful districts in the United States, and its facility of access, being only four hours' sail from the city of New York, makes it a most desirable location. Its indefatigable and zealous principal, the Rev. Samuel Phinney, devotes himself most industriously and conscientiously to the reponsible duties of his station.

"I speak from personal knowledge, having had for years past several pupils under my guardianship committed to his care. I have attended many of the examinations of this school, and have always been delighted with the apparent success with which the teacher insists upon the principle that what the pupil learns he should learn well.

"It has doubtless been an important advantage in the successful progress of this school, that its principal was once an assistant to the celebrated Dr. Allen, of Hyde Park, one of the most useful and successful teachers of our country. Nor is it the smallest commendation of this school, that the pupils, in leaving the parental roof, here find what is not always to be met with in boarding-schools; a mother's tender care and supervision. Having enjoyed abundant opportunity to observe the attention paid to the formation of the mind and manners of the pupils, their advancement in learning and good principles, I feel that I am only discharging my duty in commending it to the favorable notice of my fellow citizens as one of the excellent institutions of the land."

THE present number closes the sixth half-yearly volume of this work. The first six volumes, handsomely bound, proving a valuable library of reference, can be had at the subscription price, by applying at the office of the Merchants' Magazine, 142 Fulton street, New York. Subscribers can have their numbers neatly bound at fifty cents per volume, by sending them to this office.

Office of the Merchants' Magazine, }
June, 1842. }