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Art. I.—THE CAUSES AND THE CURE OF HARD TIMES.*

In choosing a subject for your entertainment this evening, I have been guided entirely by a regard to practical utility; and I shall lay before you, as far as I am able, within the limits of a single lecture, the causes and the cure of hard times. I shall inquire why the times are harder at one period than another; and thus, like the physician, by investigating the causes of disease, enable the patient to choose the right remedy, and apply it in the right place. The cry of hard times is always in men's mouths, for the simple reason, that while their desires are boundless, their means are limited. They are always stretching themselves beyond their means, and would be, were they ten times as great as they now are. Hence the cry of hard times.

But there are, occasionally, times of real distress; individuals and families without employment, and without bread; wages, too, reduced to a rate that scarcely gives the operative the means of subsistence; those who are in debt unable to pay, or, if they have property, compelled to sacrifice it for a small part of its real value; great quantities of real estate thrown into the market, without finding a purchaser at any price. This is evidently an unnatural state of things—therefore, a temporary one. It could not be natural and permanent, for the laws of nature are uniform and gentle, not violent and convulsive, in their operation. It is only the evidence that, either through ignorance or perverseness, man has not adjusted his operations to those of nature—that he has not attained to that wisdom which is profitable to direct.

In developing the causes of hard times, I shall, in an informal and indirect way, bring forward most of the principles of the science of political economy; that science which teaches the origin, the production, the distribution, and the consumption of wealth.

The first cause which I shall mention of hard times is, the failure of

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the agricultural productions of a country. The wants of man are supplied by the co-operation of the providence of God, and the agency of man. If God choose to withhold those natural influences which are necessary to perfect the works of man, no human industry can make up the defect. If he choose to add severity to the winter's cold, or intensity to the summer's heat, or choose to restrain the former or the latter rain, the result is a diminished return for the toil of the husbandman, and an inadequate supply for the wants of man. The natural consequence, is hard times. The farmer has less to sell, and money will be scarce, because money is, or ought to be, merely the representative of property really in existence. All human wants are supplied ultimately from the soil, and all men are purchasers of its products. If they bear a high price, and the productions of mechanical skill and intellectual labor remain the same, the means of purchasing them will fall short. Then, the farmers being destitute of the means of purchasing, the products of the mechanic will fall, in fine, on his hands, and there will be another loss; for no interest can ever be separated from the rest. There is a mutual interest and sympathy, which causes all the members to suffer, if one is in distress.

As an offset to this, it may be said, that the farmer is compensated, by the rise of prices, for the deficiency of his crops. There is this self-adjusting principle, it is true, in the laws of production and consumption, and it is effectual to a certain extent. Beyond that, it does not reach. When the deficiency is very great, then the farmer has nothing to dispose of. He is not only unable to purchase anything, but the debts he has already contracted, remain unpaid. Those who were expecting payment from him, are disappointed; and the disappointment extends, link by link, through all the ramifications of society. Thus, the failure of the crops in the years 1835, '37, and '38, was one of the main causes of the commercial disasters which have succeeded. It deprived the farmers of the means of paying for their great purchases, threw the responsibility upon the merchants, made them the prey of usurers, and led to the universal breaking up which has been going on to such a melancholy extent within a few years. This would have been tolerable if it had merely raised prices, and kept enough at home for our own consumption; but, not only did it cut off all means of paying our foreign debt, but compelled us to import $10,000,000 of bread-stuffs, which was paid in coin or its equivalent. This took so much from the vaults of our banks, and was one of the causes of the two explosions which ensued.

Another cause of hard times, strange as it may seem, is a superabundance of the fruits of the earth. It has been remarked by the political economists of Europe, that most commercial revulsions are preceded by an abundant harvest. The reason of this is, that a great fall of prices produces the same effect upon the farmer as a short crop. It diminishes the sum which he gets for his productions, with this further disadvantage, that it makes his sales slow and difficult to effect at any rate. His expenses have been predicated upon ordinary receipts. In short, he has fallen in debt to the merchant for his usual supplies, and has not the means to meet his engagements. The merchant, deprived of his expected returns, is in the same predicament. The city merchant, deprived of his payments, becomes embarrassed, till the mischief extends to every individual in society; and a whole country may be in distress in the midst of universal plenty. This evil is aggravated by the conduct of banks and

capitalists, under the operation of a falling market. There is a reluctance to operate to the extent of their means, and hence, another cause of the depression of prices. The fact is, that trade is so delicate an affair, that the most important thing to it is steadiness and uniformity. All sudden and violent changes are pernicious. Trade is like the ocean. It has its tides, which rise and fall within certain limits, without injury. But a few feet's aberration above or below, is followed by stupendous ruin. A few feet's recession of the ocean itself, would leave dry the harbors of cities, and plant them far inland; or, a few feet of elevation above the common level, would submerge the labors of centuries.

Another cause of hard times is, the contraction of the currency; that is, a change from a greater to a less amount in circulation. The measure of the nominal value of everything bought and sold, is the amount of money in circulation. This, in modern times, is usually made up of coin and bank notes, redeemable in coin. This, of course, is capable of indefinite expansion and contraction; for the banks may issue twice or ten times as many notes as they have coin in their vaults, or they may not issue half as much, and thus make money scarcer than if they were not in existence. There is an erroneous idea prevailing, that gold and silver constitute the wealth of the world. Nothing can be more false. If the world were to wake up to-morrow morning and find every coin in existence doubled—two, where there is one now, they would be no richer than they now are. The only difference would be, that they would have a convenient material to form many of the utensils of common use, which would not so readily wear out. There would be no change in the real value of anything. The only difference would be, that the laborer, on Saturday night, would receive twice as much coin for his work. But then he would be compelled to pay twice as much in the market, for all that he procured for his family. The only persons benefited, would be those who were in debt. They would pay their debts for about one-half of the value they received, but then those whom they owed would suffer to the same extent. The whole world would probably be deceived, and imagine they had grown suddenly rich; because any man could say, if his property were worth $10,000, that it would now bring $20,000, and totally forget that his $20,000 in coin, even if he had them, would purchase only $10,000 worth of property. It is the fluctuation which is mischievous, and not the much or little which may be permanently in circulation. Nor would it make any material difference if one-half the coin which now circulates were struck out of existence, if all contracts and all prices were altered, at the same moment, to correspond to the new value of the precious metals.

It is objected to banks, that they have too much power in causing these fluctuations in the circulating medium, by enlarging and contracting their issues; whereas it is thought, if there were nothing but specie, there would be always the same amount in circulation. But this idea is fallacious. Money-lending would not be stopped, even if banks were annihilated. It existed before banks, and will exist after them, if they should ever be destroyed. Individuals would be still more cautious than banks, in times of difficulty and scarcity. There is, indeed, the greatest propensity to hoard, among a people who have few commercial transactions.

Great diminution of the circulating medium may take place by bad legislation. In this country, banking is under the control of the different governments, both state and national. They may create many or few;

and, by the creation of a great number, may double the circulating medium in a few years. Of course, the whole country will imagine that it is growing suddenly rich. All kinds of production will be carried to the utmost, and unproductive consumption will be pushed to a corresponding height.

All the money that any people want, is enough to represent the productions which are on their way from the producer to the consumer, and the real estate which every year changes hands. Now, as a large part of the population of every country is agricultural, and consumes at home their own productions, those productions are not represented at all in the currency. The currency of a country need bear but a small proportion to the annual productions, even of that country, leaving out of view the value of their real estate. The wheat crop alone, is, perhaps, worth all the specie there is in the country the present year. But then the contrivance of banking tempts people greatly to enlarge the circulating medium, far beyond the demands of regular business. A man may turn his house into money, if he pleases. He may not, it is true, convert it into silver dollars or gold eagles, but he may into bank notes. He may sell or mortgage his house, carry the notes to the bank and get bank notes in exchange for them, and then throw them in to swell the volume of the currency. Something like this was actually done in the State of New York, during the late banking mania. A large number of banks were created, based, as it was said, on real estate; that is, real estate was pledged for the redemption of the notes. But nothing could have operated worse. They continued to swell the amount of a baseless currency; and when confidence became shaken, it was found that though houses and lands could be changed into bank notes, they could not be converted into silver dollars. They were the first to explode; and by destroying confidence in all banks, they helped to annihilate that mighty mass of fictitious currency, upon which the real business of the country was transacted.

Hence, then, one cause of the late commercial disasters. Improvident legislation led to the unnecessary increase of banks, and the consequent rise of prices; and as unwise and capricious a change brought the general government in collision with the banks, destroyed their credit, and reduced the currency even below the specie basis. Now, debts contracted under an inflated currency, become absolutely ruinous. It takes twice, and sometimes thrice the real property to pay them more than they represented at the time they were contracted.

Hard times may be created by exorbitant taxation, especially if the money be raised to pay a foreign creditor. Taxes are of two kinds: those which are raised to support government, as it is called, and those which are raised to pay the interest on public debts. Taxes, after all, go to the support of somebody; and if expended in the support of government, they are laid out by the functionaries of government in the necessaries and luxuries of life, or in the provisions for the army and navy, and thus go to sustain our brothers and sons, and may thus be said to come back again to the producers. The very money which is collected in Gay-street, at the custom-house, on the merchandise that goes into the interior, is paid out again, in Howard-street, for flour and bacon, which come from the consumers of the imported article. Such sums as are thus collected and paid out from year to year, are not much felt; but if a country falls into a war, in which this annual taxation is too small to defray the expense,

then a loan is contracted, which is nothing less than spending beforehand the earnings of future years, and sometimes future generations. Thus this country, in less than three years, contracted a debt which was so much subtracted from her industry for more than twenty years. Governments may run in debt for public improvements. This is done with the expectation that the revenue derived from them will meet the interest, and that the value added to the property contiguous to the improvement, or affected by it, will be equal to the original outlay. In the great work of the New York canal, this expectation was realized in both particulars. The tolls more than pay the interest; while the value added to the lands and property affected by it, has been, perhaps, ten times the amount of money originally expended. That canal has done more. It has been a source of revenue to the state.

In Maryland, we attempted the same gigantic enterprises; but with a smaller territory and a thinner population, every one of them has failed to be profitable. Nay, the $7,000,000 invested in one of them is, as yet, a total loss, as much as if swallowed up by an earthquake, or expended in an unprofitable war. Indeed, a loss of that amount of money might soon be repaired; but in the shape of public debt it is a perpetual weight, sinking the state to poverty and distress. As I before remarked, if the debt was due to our own citizens, the money would remain amongst us, and be expended in the productions of our own soil and our own industry; but, going abroad, it is so much taken forever from our resources. What is the cause of this difficulty? Rash and improvident legislation—ignorance of the causes on which the success of all public improvements must depend.

Another most prolific cause of hard times is, the abuse of credit. Credit, in some shape, and to a certain extent, must exist in all civilized communities. It existed as far back as those barbarous times of which we read in the Old Testament. The laws of Moses even prescribe the manner and kind of security which the creditor may exact. The directions he gives, are remarkable for their humanity. "No man shall take the upper or the nether millstone to pledge, for he taketh a man's life to pledge. When thou dost lend thy neighbor anything, thou shalt not go into his house to fetch his pledge. Thou shalt stand abroad; and the man to whom thou dost lend, shall bring out the pledge unto thee." A most humane provision against a cruel and unfeeling invasion of the feelings of the poor. Not a day's work is done by the commonest laborer, without credit. He trusts his employer for his day's work, at least. So it must often happen, that the employer, if he have any humanity, must credit those whom he employs. Credit arises from another source. The returns for a large proportion of human labor are only annual. There must be a large outlay before anything can be received. In the meantime, those who labor are compelled to consume as they go along. Some one must advance them their wages, or, in other words, their living. Those who have, must lend to those who have not, in order to create new productions. This is done with the confident expectation, that the powers of nature remaining the same, the expenditure will be repaid with interest. So there is a system of mutual credit going on between the country and the city. The city sells to the country on a credit, expecting to be repaid at the coming in of the crop. When the crop comes in, the debt is discharged by the farmers and merchants, in the country, to the merchants in the city.

If, on the other hand, the country were rich, and were able to purchase everything for money, then it would be obliged to give the same credit to the city which the city now gives to the country. The country sends to the city the provisions of a whole year, but they are not immediately consumed. No real returns can be had for them until they are consumed. They must be sold, then, on a credit. The mechanic, too, must live while he labors. He cannot sow and reap the same day, any more than the farmer. Unless he have something laid up, and that cannot be the case in the first instance, he must anticipate the receipts from his work; that is, he must have credit.

Besides all these credits, created by transient property, there is credit arising from permanent investments. In these investments, those who have the control of them may employ advantageously the capital of others—may make it yield the legal interest, and something besides. While they show the ability of doing this, they will have credit; that is, the power of borrowing, on security, unemployed capital. Hence, another species of credit.

Indeed, all investments must be made in real estate, or in floating property; in other words, in fixtures or in goods, on their way from the producer to the consumer. Money, in the shape of money, is totally unproductive. It can be made productive only by being invested in something. If a man borrows money, it is not to keep it in the shape of money, but to purchase real estate or floating property. If a man purchase stocks, it is just the same thing. The money put into a bank does not remain there. It is immediately invested in something, indirectly, it is true; generally, in productions in the market. The banks, in fact, are indirectly the purchasers of a large part of the domestic produce and the foreign importations which yearly pass through a city. The owner of bank stocks has his money really invested in the merchandise that happens for the time to be in the process of production or transportation, from the producer to the consumer. Those who purchase railroad stock, really own so much of the fixtures of such a concern. Mere money yields nothing.

It is easy to see that, while credit is essential to business, it may easily be carried to excess. It gives, of course, a greater license to expenditure. A man who purchases without credit, must rely on the earnings of yesterday for the expenses of to-day; and if so, he cannot exceed a certain sum, and he can never involve himself in much difficulty. But he who anticipates in the expenditures of to-day the wages of to-morrow, goes upon uncertainties. He knows not what will be on the morrow. It is the easiest thing in the world for him to expend too much. He is not sure of obtaining employment. He is not sure of getting his pay. He is not sure of the amount. It is the easiest thing for him to miscalculate, in all these respects. A man is liable, under the temptation of a long credit, to adopt a style of living altogether too expensive. Individuals may do this, whole communities may do it, a nation may do it. The laborer may anticipate his wages for a week, or a month, or so long as those who own the necessaries of life will trust him. The farmer may anticipate his crops, even before he puts them in the ground. The manufacturer may pledge all that he has, his fixtures, as well as his floating capital, to procure the means of carrying on his works. There must be, however, a limit to all this; and that limit is, when all creditors become alarmed, and not only cease to give credit, but begin to call in what is already due to them. Then

there immediately and necessarily follows universal distress. Credit being at an end, what are people to live on till they can pay up the old scores, and earn something to begin with upon the cash principle? This stoppage of consumption, which ensues upon the stoppage of credit, reacts most disastrously on production. People cannot purchase, because they cannot pay. The consequence is, an accumulation of stocks, and a fall of prices. Some manufacturers take the alarm, and immediately cease to produce; but, in doing so, they must dismiss a large number of operatives. These operatives must go on to consume, though they have ceased to produce; and are thus eating out the substance of the nation, besides large numbers of them falling into vice or imbecility. Thus an overstretch of credit may cause a disturbance in the course of things which will run on for years, producing the most pernicious results.

This extravagance of living does not always involve the same amount of culpability. It is sometimes done through ignorance. There is a lamentable want of information among the mass of the people, as to what expenditure the labor and real estate of a country can sustain. Four-fifths of mankind must live on the wages of labor. Now the avails of the labor of an individual cannot be much extended beyond a certain sum. In this country, from the favorable circumstances of a fresh soil, a thin population, and the great perfection of the mechanic arts, the wages of ordinary labor may procure some two or three times the comforts they will in any other part of the globe. The houses of the laboring population of this country present an aspect which would astonish the same class in any other part of the world. Then our republican institutions, while they produce the noblest fruits, in elevating every class, by decreeing a political equality, are attended by this evil result, that they produce the strongest degree of emulation, as to the outward insignia of rank and consequence. It is this feeling, and not the struggle for the necessaries, or even the conveniences of life, that has produced most of the mischiefs under which our country is groaning at the present time—a struggle to come up to an artificial standard set up by mere fashion, or a perverted public opinion. Those who possess, in addition to their personal exertions, productive property, either by hereditary right or by their own economy, must have the power to live in a more expensive manner than those who depend solely upon labor. But in a republican country, there seems to be a greater reluctance to acquiesce in this necessary and inevitable difference of conditions, than in any other. There is a greater struggle to keep up appearances, and, of course, a greater tendency to live beyond their means. The pursuit of this kind of ambition is absolutely endless; for, whatever scale of expenditure you may reach, there is another just beyond it quite as tempting as that you have already attained. The inevitable consequence of this universal ambition is, debt, embarrassment, and ruin, on a great scale. Then comes a period of hard times, equal in duration to the period of extravagance.

This state of things is greatly promoted by a low state of information among the people, and by a want of education and intelligence among the masses. I know of nothing in this world which requires greater wisdom, than to know how to spend money. It is the easiest thing imaginable to get rid of, and in the most foolish manner; and people are apt to make a foolish use of it, just in proportion to their want of general information. Put any considerable sum of money into the hands of an ignorant, unedu-

cated person, and it is usually the means of plunging him in swift destruction. If he is accustomed to get his living by labor, instead of investing it profitably and continuing his labors, nothing will be done till he has got rid of it in some way or other; generally, in the purchase of low and corrupting pleasures. This is one great cause of the general prevalence of poverty in this world—the want of wisdom in the expenditure of money. Those who have no wisdom, in this respect, are necessarily poor; because, if they get anything, they expend it immediately for their own hurt. Therefore it is that Providence doles out to them what he gives them by little and little, enough to purchase the necessaries, and some of the conveniences of life, and no more, lest they use their earnings to the injury of themselves and families. As it is, how much of the earnings of the laboring population of this country has gone, for the last twenty years, to buy liquid madness, to ruin both soul and body, and turn a peaceful home into an abode of misery! Popular ignorance, then, is one of the causes of hard times; an ignorance, which knows not how much to expend, and on what to expend it; an ignorance, which makes men improvident of the future; which makes the most prosperous state the guage of average expenditure, instead of the season of the most limited income. People may be growing poor without knowing it, by adopting a style of living which the soil and the labor of the country will not sustain. Most especially, were our countrymen liable to do this within the last ten years, when $200,000,000 worth of luxuries have been poured into the country, for which no other equivalent has been returned but scraps of paper, containing promises to pay!

Another cause of hard times is, a low state of the public morals. Not only is intelligence necessary to guide people in the right expenditure of money, but moral principle. It requires a high pitch of virtue to sustain great prosperity in the individual. Much more does it so in a nation. As soon as any surplus is created which might be employed for good purposes, there is always something invented to turn it to bad ones. The young, as soon as they become possessed of means, instead of employing them in personal improvement or honorable enterprise, are apt to plunge into reckless dissipation, corrupt all who come within the sphere of their influence, and, sooner or later, themselves become a burden upon society. Who are the tenants of our poor-houses, our prisons, and our penitentiaries? They are the wrecks of our young men, who have spent their best years in riotous living. Every dramshop, then, which you see throughout the length and breadth of this vast country, where the laborer spends the money which should buy his children's bread, or the idler drops in to waste the money he never earned, in purchasing the means of transforming himself from an idler into a sot, a vagabond, and a brute, is a cause of hard times. Every knot of gamblers which you see at the corners of the streets, shining in the spoils of honest industry, and gloating on the wreck of families and fortunes, is a cause of hard times. Every lottery office, whose doors and windows are plastered all over with lies and deception, where the servant and the housemaid, the porter and the drayman, are cheated out of the wages of their sufferings and their toils, is a cause of hard times. Every horse race, which collects together a cloud of profligates, high and low, just as the carcass draws together a multitude of obscene and filthy birds, where old villains come to exercise their vocation, and young ones come to learn theirs, is a cause, and a most

prolific cause, of hard times. Every establishment, which decency forbids me to name, where angels are changed to fiends, which are sustained by ill-gotten gains or downright plunder, which themselves not only breathe forth a deadly pestilence, but are the very mouth and entrance to the bottomless abyss, are so many causes of hard times, blighting, in early youth, hundreds and thousands, who should have been the ornaments of every walk in life, and oppressing the honest industry of the country in supporting the wretched objects with which they fill our hospitals and our streets.

Such are some of the causes of hard times. Time would fail me to enumerate them all. Our patient, we perceive, is laboring under a complication of diseases, and is, we confess, very sick, and very much reduced. But we have, as we think, discovered the main causes of disorder, and have, therefore, the requisite grounds to proceed upon in prescribing our remedies. The disease is evidently chronic, and no sudden cure is to be expected. The recovery can be only gradual, and procured by regimen rather than violent remedies.

The first indication of cure is, the prohibition of foreign luxuries by which the money of this country has been abstracted by foreign nations, just as the poor Indians are stripped of everything valuable by the glass beads and worthless trinkets which their more civilized neighbors carry among them. The gloves, and silks, and jewellery of France and England, are performing the same office for us, in lightening us of our cash, as the filigree and frippery of a western trader does for the savages, after the receipt of an annuity from government. This drain being stopped, we should keep specie enough in the country to be a safe basis for our paper currency, which will always, more or less, obtain in a great country like ours. We can manufacture everything we want, and we ought to do it; and the moment we throw open our ports to the competition of all nations, we forego all the advantages of a fresh soil and a spare population, and put our labor on the low heel of the starving millions of Europe and Asia.

In the second place, we must have a uniform and stable currency; or all the advantages of the union of the states, in time of peace, are lost. It is of no advantage that we belong to the same nation with Pennsylvania, if the exchange between their currency and ours amounts to as much as the duties between the different states of Europe. There can be no general prosperity without a uniform and a stable currency, and this cannot be restored without the aid of the general government.

The third remedy is, a calm submission to the inevitable evils which we have brought upon ourselves. The disasters of the last few years have ruined about one-half of the people; that is, everybody that was in debt. But their property is not annihilated. It has gone, or must go into the hands of those who were rich before; so that we shall emerge from these troubles like the Egyptians from the famine: kings and beggars, masters and slaves. But death and labor, those two great agrarians, will immediately commence the process of equalization, and they will carry it on much faster than we at first imagine. As soon as we cease to regret the past, and conform ourselves to the present, that moment we begin to lay the foundation for a new career of prosperity. For a while, the ruined will despond, and sink under their misfortunes; the laborer will prefer idleness to low wages; but, after a while, wisdom will get the better of pride, action will restore health and cheerfulness to the mind, and many a person

will learn, though late, the valuable lesson taught by Hesiod, almost three thousand years ago, that "half is sometimes greater than the whole."

The fourth remedy for hard times is, the more general diffusion of scientific and general intelligence. What but want of intelligence in the highest classes, has led to the mad legislation of the last ten years, by which millions of money have been sunk in enterprises of internal improvement, which the least scientific knowledge might have demonstrated to have been hopeless from the beginning? What but ignorance, could have led a whole people into the delusion that the commercial and monetary affairs of a great nation could be successfully conducted by any other than a stable system of legislation, let the policy of that legislation be good or bad? What but ignorance, could have led a whole people to imagine that a nation can continue to spend twice as much in a year as they can earn? What but ignorance, can lead people to suppose, that a third part of a thriving population can be drones, and still the hive be filled with honey? The schoolmaster has, as yet, done but a small part of his work. The last census has revealed some mortifying facts, as to the number of persons in this nation, which boasts itself the most intelligent on earth, who can neither read nor write. It is intelligence, after all, that, more than anything else, raises one nation above another. It does so by directing their physical power to the best objects, and then employing it to the best advantage. In precise proportion to the want of it, must we approach the destitution and misery of the savage.

Finally, the grand means of remedying hard times is, the moral elevation of the people. One gigantic step has already been taken towards it in the temperance reform. This I consider as the most important, as well as the most wonderful movement of the age. In an economical view, no one has, as yet, comprehended its vastness. Millions of money have already been saved from worse than waste; but those millions are nothing when compared to the labor and the moral energy which have been redeemed from annihilation, and set to work for the common benefit of all. It is computed that 30,000 drunkards have been reclaimed from brutality and degradation, and restored to sobriety and usefulness. The saving that is thus made in our expenditures and receipts is enough, of itself, to pay the interest on our national debt, which presses so heavily upon us.

Moral reform is not likely to stop here. Public opinion, which has been directed with such efficiency to one vice, will be turned successively on every other; and thus the sources of national poverty and crime will be dried up. Morality and intelligence are our only hope. He who does anything to promote these, does just so much to relieve us from the pressure of hard times. Education, the press, and the pulpit, these are the means of elevating the morality and intelligence of a community; and on them we must steadily rely gradually to extricate us from our present difficulties, and lead us onward to a condition of prosperity, such as we have not yet conceived.

Gentlemen, I have given you a few plain and practical ideas on the causes and the cure of hard times. It is a subject in which each one of us is deeply interested, and which comes home to the experience and business of every day. Let us hope that this very Association may prove one of the means of alleviation to which I have alluded; that the information which is here disseminated, and the great principles here developed, will enable us all to see the causes and apply the remedies, which are calculated to cure hard times.

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

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER XV.

DISTRIBUTION OF POLITICAL POWER.

As, by the federal constitution, political power, in some of its highest functions, is distributed among the several states according to their respective numbers, their relative weight in the government, besides being very unequal, has greatly varied after every census, in consequence of their very different rates of increase.

The following table shows the number of representatives in congress assigned to each state under the several apportionments:—

Apport'nment before the Census.		Apportionments according to the Census.											
		1790.		1800.		1810.		1820.		1830.		1840.	
States.	No. of Reps.	States.	No. of Reps.	States.	No. of Reps.	States.	No. of Reps	States.	No. of Reps.	States.	No. of Reps.	States.	No. of Reps.
Virgin'a	10	Virgin'a	19	Virgin'a	22	N. York,	27	N. York,	34	N. York,	40	N. York	34
Mass.,..	8	Mass.,..	14	Penn.,..	18	Penn.,..	23	Penn.,..	26	Penn.,..	28	Penn.,..	24
Penn.,..	8	Penn.,..	13	N. York,	17	Virgin'a	23	Virgin'a	22	Virgin'a	21	Ohio,...	21
N. York,	6	N. York,	10	Mass.,..	17	Mass.,..	20	Ohio,...	14	Ohio,...	19	Virgin'a	15
Maryl'd,	6	N. Car.,.	10	N. Car.,.	12	N. Car.,.	13	Mass.,..	13	N. Car.,	13	Tenn.,..	11
Conn.,..	5	Maryl'd,	8	Maryl'd,	9	Kent'y,.	10	N. Car.,.	13	Kent'y,.	13	Mass.,..	10
N. Car.,.	5	Conn.,..	7	S. Car.,.	8	Maryl'd,	9	Kent'y,.	12	Tenn.,..	13	Kent'y,.	10
S. Car.,.	5	S. Car.,.	6	Conn.,..	7	S. Car.,.	9	Maryl'd,	9	Mass.,..	12	Indiana,	10
N. Jer.,.	4	N. Jer.,.	5	N. Jer.,.	6	Conn.,..	7	S. Car.,.	9	S. Car.,.	9	N. Car.,.	9
N. Ham.	3	N. Ham.	4	Kent'y,.	6	N. Ham.	6	Tenn.,..	9	Georgia,	9	Georgia,	8
Georgia,	3	R. Isl'd,.	2	N. Ham.	5	Verm't,.	6	Georgia,	7	Maine,..	8	Maine, .	7
R. Isl'd,.	1	Verm't, .	2	Verm't,.	4	N. Jer.,.	6	Maine, .	7	Maryl'd,	8	S. Car.,.	7
Delaw'e	1	Georgia,	2	Georgia,	4	Georgia,	6	N. Ham.	6	Indiana,	7	Alaba'a,	7
13 States,	65	Kent'y,.	2	Tenn.,..	3	Tenn.,...	6	Conn.,..	6	Conn.,..	6	Illinois,.	7
		Delaw'e	1	R. Isl'd,.	2	Ohio,...	6	N. Jer.,.	6	N. Jer.,.	6	Maryl'd,	6
		Tenn.,*.	1	Delaw'e	1	R. Isl'd,.	2	Verm't,.	5	N. Ham.	5	N. Jer.,.	5
16 States under 1st app.,			106	Ohio,*...	1	Delaw'e	2	Louis.,.	3	Verm't,.	5	Misso'ri,	5
17 States under 2d app.,					142	Louis.,*	1	Indiana,	3	Alaba'a,	5	N. Ham.	4
						Indi'a,.*	1	Alaba'a,	3	Louis., .	3	Conn.,...	4
19 States under 3d app.,							183	R. Isl'd,.	2	Illinois,.	3	Verm't,.	4
								Delaw'e	1	R. Isl'd,.	2	Louis.,..	4
								Miss.,* .	1	Miss.,...	2	Miss.,...	4
								Illin'is,*	1	Misso'ri,	2	Mich.,..	3
								Miss'ri,*	1	Delaw'e	1	R. Isl'd,.	2
24 States under 4th app.,									213	Mich.,*.	1	Delaw'e	1
										Ark.,*..	1	Ark.,...	1
26 States under 5th and 6th app.,											242		223

NOTE.—The States marked thus * were admitted into the Union after the apportionment under which they are here arranged was made, but before the succeeding census.

It will be seen, by the preceding table, that the largest state, New York, has thirty-four times as much weight in the house of representatives, as either Delaware or Arkansas; and that the six largest states are entitled to more votes than the remaining twenty, so great is their disparity. So great, too, have been their relative changes, that Tennessee, which, in 1790, was at the bottom of the list of sixteen states, is now the fifth of twenty-six; that Ohio, which was the lowest in 1800, is now the third in rank; and that Virginia, which was first, and New York, which was the fourth, in 1790, have now changed places.

But the dangers threatened by this gross inequality of power, and the changes which its distribution is ever undergoing, are effectually guarded

against by the senate, a co-ordinate branch of the legislature, in which every state has two members. By this provision, the smaller states are protected from the possible abuse of the power possessed by the larger; and the community from those sudden changes of public policy, which might be apprehended from the changes in the relative weight of the states after every census.

In the election of president and vice president, the votes of the states also vary according to their several numbers; but as each state has as many votes as it has members in both houses of congress, the inequality is here much less than it is in the house of representatives, and the relative weight of the smaller states receives a great proportionate increase. Thus, New York, which has thirty-four times as much weight in the house of representatives as Delaware or Arkansas, has but twelve times as much in the presidential election, that is, as 36 to 3. Rhode Island, which is but one-seventeenth of New York in the house, is one-ninth in the election; and New Hampshire, and the other states entitled to four votes, have their relative weight increased, on a like comparison, from less than an eighth ($\frac{4}{34}$) to a sixth ($\frac{6}{36}$.) New York herself, which has more than a seventh of the whole number of representatives, has less than a seventh of the presidential electors, or, more accurately, her relative weight is reduced from 15.2 per cent to 13.1 per cent. The states of a medium population have nearly the same relative weight in both cases.

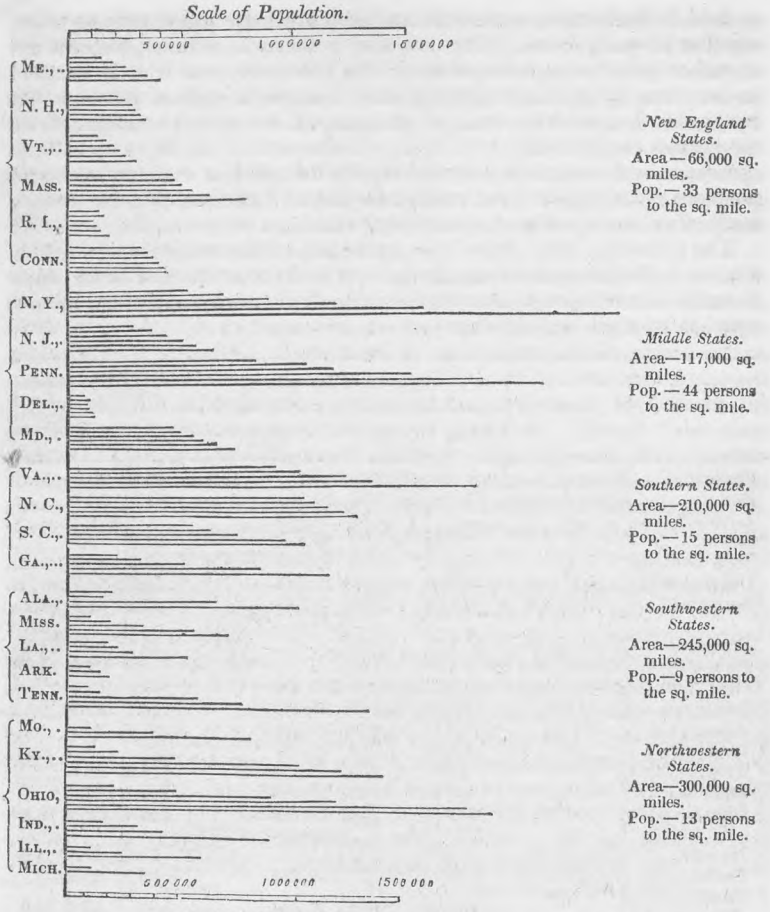
Time, which will augment the inequality among the states in some respects, will diminish it in others. When they shall all have attained a dense population, the disproportion between the largest and the smallest states will probably be greater than that which now exists between New York and Delaware, and certainly greater than that which is between New York and the next smallest states; but there will then, also, be a greater number of states which will approach equality than at present. Of the twenty-six states, while eight* of them have, together, an extent of but 54,000 square miles, the smallest of the other eighteen has an area of upwards of 31,000 miles, about that of Ireland, and that of the largest does not much exceed the area of England and Wales. Nor is it probable, that any state hereafter admitted into the Union will contain less, or much less, than 50,000 square miles.

It must also be recollected that, even at this time, with those great divisions of the Union, composed of states which are similar in modes of industry and local interests, the disparity is far less than it is with the individual states, as may be seen by the following statement:—

New England States.....	31	Representatives	=13.9	per cent—	43	Electors	=15.6
Middle States.....	70	"	=31.4	"	80	"	=29.1
Southern States.....	39	"	=17.5	"	47	"	=17.1
Southwestern States.....	27	"	=12.1	"	37	"	=13.5
Northwestern States.....	56	"	=25.1	"	68	"	=24.7
Total,.....	223		100.		275		100.

The subjoined diagrams show to the eye the inequality of the states in population and political power; their different rates of increase, and the comparative areas of the five great local divisions. The lines opposite to each state represent its population at each successive census:—

* These are New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland.



CHAPTER XVI.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The proportion between the rural and town population of a country, is an important fact, in its interior economy and condition. It determines, in a great degree, its capacity for manufactures, the extent of its commerce, and the amount of its wealth. The growth of cities commonly marks the progress of intelligence and the arts, measures the sum of social enjoyment, and always implies increased mental activity, which is sometimes healthy and useful, sometimes distempered and pernicious. If these congregations of men diminish some of the comforts of life, they augment others: if they are less favorable to health than the country, they also provide better defences against disease, and better means of cure. From causes both physical and moral, they are less favorable to the multiplication of the species. In the eyes of the moralist, cities afford a wid-

er field, both for virtue and vice; and they are more prone to innovation, whether for good or evil. The love of civil liberty is, perhaps, both stronger and more constant in the country than the town; and if it is guarded in the cities by a keener vigilance and a more far-sighted jealousy, yet law, order, and security, are also, in them, more exposed to danger, from the greater facility with which intrigue and ambition can there operate on ignorance and want. Whatever may be the good or evil tendencies of populous cities, they are the result to which all countries, that are at once fertile, free, and intelligent, inevitably tend.

The following table shows the population of the towns in the United States, of 10,000 inhabitants and upwards, in 1820, 1830, and 1840; their decennial increase, and the present ratio of the town population, in each state, to its whole population:—

Towns.	States.	Population of Towns in—				Decennial Increase.		Ratio of Town populat., per cent.
		1820.	1830.	1840.		1830.	1840.	
Portland,	Maine,	8,581	12,601		15,218	63.9	20.8	3.
Boston,	Massachusetts	43,298	61,392	93,383		41.8	52.1	
Lowell,*	"		6,474	20,796			221.2	
Salem,	"	11,346	13,836	15,082		21.9	9.1	
New Bedford,	"	3,947	7,592	12,087		92.3	59.2	
Charlestown,	"	6,591	8,783	11,484		33.3	30.7	
Springfield,	"	3,914	6,784	10,985		73.3	61.9	22.2
					163,817			
Providence,	Rhode Island,	11,767	16,833		23,171	43.1	37.7	21.3
New Haven,	Connecticut,	7,147	10,180		12,960	42.4	27.3	4.18
New York,	New York,	123,706	202,589	312,710		63.8	44.7	
Brooklyn,	"	7,175	15,396	36,233		114.6	135.3	
Albany,	"	12,630	24,238	33,721		91.9	39.1	
Rochester,	"	1,767	9,207	20,191		421.	119.	
Troy,	"	5,264	11,405	19,334		116.6	69.6	
Buffalo,	"	2,095	8,668	18,213		313.7	110.	
Utica,	"	2,972	10,183	12,782		242.6	25.5	18.6
					453,184			
Newark,	New Jersey,	6,507	10,953		17,290	68.3	57.8	4.6
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	119,325	161,427	205,580		36.1	25.6	
Pittsburg & Alleghany,	"	10,000	18,000	31,204		80.	73.3	13.7
					237,054			
Baltimore,	Maryland,	62,738	80,625		102,313	28.5	26.8	21.7
Richmond,	Virginia,	12,067	16,060	20,153		33.1	25.5	
Petersburg,	"	6,690	8,322	11,136		20.6	33.8	
Norfolk,	"	8,478	9,816	10,920		18.4	11.2	3.4
					42,209			
Charleston,	S. Carolina,	24,780	†30,289		29,261	22.2		4.9
Savannah,	Georgia,	7,523	†7,423		11,214		51.	1.8
Mobile,	Alabama,	1,500	3,194		12,672	112.9	296.7	2.1
New Orleans,	Louisiana,	27,178	46,082		102,193	68.6	121.7	29.
Louisville,	Kentucky,	4,012	10,196		21,210	154.	108.	2.7
St. Louis,	Missouri,	4,123	6,694		16,469	62.4	146.	4.3
Cincinnati,	Ohio,	9,642	24,831		46,338	157.5	86.6	3.
Washington,	Dist. of Col.,	13,247	18,227		23,364	40.8	28.2	
31 Towns.	16 States.	570,010	878,300		1,329,937	54.	51.3	7.79

* Lowell had no existence before 1822.

† The decline of population here indicated, was the effect of very destructive years.

It appears, from the preceding table, that the population in all the towns of the United States, containing 10,000 inhabitants and upwards, is something more than one-thirteenth ($\frac{1}{13\frac{6}{8}}$) of the whole number; that ten of the states, whose united population exceeds 4,000,000, have, as yet, no town of that rank; and that, in the other sixteen states, the ratio of their town population to their whole population, varies from something less than one-third, to less than a sixteenth part. It further appears, that the increase of those towns has been nearly the same, from 1830 to 1840, as from 1820 to 1830; and that, in both decennial periods, it exceeds that of the whole population, nearly as 50 to 32.

By extending our estimate of this description of the population to towns of a lower rank, we may not only better compare the different states in this particular, but, perhaps, also better draw the line between the town and country population. Congregations of a much smaller number than 10,000, whether their dwelling-place be called a city, town, or village, have the chief characteristics which distinguish the main part of the inhabitants of cities, as to their habits, manners, and character. Though these characteristics are but partially found in towns and villages of not more than 2,000 inhabitants, yet, as the census has, in many of the states, numbered these among the "principal towns," we will extend our estimate to them, and endeavor to supply its omissions, in other states, by a reference to the best geographical authorities:—

Table of all the Towns in the United States containing between 10,000 *and* 2,000 *Inhabitants, according to the Census of* 1840.

States.	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Total.*
Maine,	Bangor,	8,627	Bucksport,	3,015	
	Thomaston,	6,227	Camden,	3,005	
	Augusta,	5,314	Gorham,	3,001	
	Bath,	5,141	Waterville,	2,971	
	Gardenier,	5,042	Vassalborough,	2,952	
	Hallowell,	4,654	Calais,	2,934	
	Saco,	4,408	Eastport,	2,876	
	Brunswick,	4,259	North Yarmouth,	2,824	
	Belfast,	4,186	Kennebunk,	2,768	
	Westbrook,	4,116	Buxton,	2,688	
	Frankfort,	3,603	Freeport,	2,662	
	Minot,	3,550	Biddeford,	2,574	
	Prospect,	3,492	South Berwick,	2,314	
	Poland,	3,360	Ellsworth,	2,263	
	York,	3,111			107,937
N. Hampshire,	Portsmouth,	7,887	Haverhill,	2,784	
	Dover,	6,458	Hanover,	2,613	
	Nashua,	6,054	Keene,	2,610	
	Concord,	4,897	Hopkinton,	2,455	
	Somersworth,	3,283	Rochester,	2,431	
	Meredith,	3,351	Goffstown,	2,376	
	Manchester,	3,235	Peterborough,	2,163	
	Exeter,	2,925			55,459
Vermont,	Burlington,	4,271	Windsor,	2,744	
	Montpelier,	3,725	Rutland,	2,708	
	Bennington,	3,429	St. Albans,	2,702	
	Woodstock,	3,315	Brattleboro',	2,624	
	Middlebury,	3,162	Rockingham,	2,330	
					31,010
Massachusetts,	Lynn,	9,367	Cambridge,	8,409	
	Roxbury,	9,089	Taunton,	7,645	
	Nantucket,	9,012	Worcester,	7,497	

Table of all the Towns in the United States, etc.—Continued.

States.	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Total.*
Massachusetts,	Newburyport,	7,161	Mendon,	3,524	
	Fall River,	6,738	Quincy,	3,486	
	Gloucester,	6,350	Newton,	3,351	
	Marblehead,	5,575	Dedham,	3,290	
	Plymouth,	5,281	Abingdon,	3,214	
	Andover,	5,207	Randolph,	3,213	
	Middleborough,	5,085	Farmingham,	3,030	
	Danvers,	5,020	Ipswich,	3,000	
	Dorchester,	4,875	Woburn,	2,993	
	Beverley,	4,689	Salisbury,	2,739	
	Haverhill,	4,336	Falmouth,	2,589	
	Barnstable,	4,301	Yarmouth,	2,554	
	Dartmouth,	4,135	Amherst,	2,550	
	Fairhaven,	3,951	Malden,	2,514	
	Scituate,	3,886	Waltham,	2,504	
	Rochester,	3,864	Medford,	2,478	
	Northampton,	3,750	Amesbury,	2,471	
	Weymouth,	3,738	Chelsea,	2,390	
	Sandwich,	3,719	Methuen,	2,251	
	Adams,	3,703	Bradford,	2,222	
	West Springfield,	3,626	Braintree,	2,168	
	Attleborough,	3,585	Stoughton,	2,142	
	Hingham,	3,564	Provincetown,	2,122	
	Westfield,	3,526	Easton,	2,074	
					225,553
Rhode Island,	Smithfield,	9,534	Scituate,	4,090	
	Newport,	8,333	Bristol,	3,490	
	Warwick,	6,726	Tiverton,	3,183	
	North Providence	4,207	Warren,	2,437	
					42,000
Connecticut,	Hartford,	9,468	Stamford,	3,516	
	New London,	5,519	Saybrook,	3,417	
	Danbury,	4,504	Berlin,	3,411	
	Norwich,	4,200	Windham,	3,382	
	Litchfield,	4,038	Bridgeport,	3,294	
	New Milford,	3,974	Newton,	3,189	
	Greenwich,	3,921	Glastonbury,	3,077	
	Stonington,	3,898	Woodstock,	3,053	
	Norwalk,	3,863	Groton,	2,963	
	Wethersfield,	3,824	Derby,	2,851	
	Killingly,	3,685	Ridgefield,	2,474	
	Waterbury,	3,668	Milford,	2,455	
	Fairfield,	3,654	Plainfield,	2,383	
	East Windsor,	3,600	Mansfield,	2,276	
	Thompson,	3,535	Plymouth,	2,205	
	Middleton,	3,511			112,808
New York,	Poughkeepsie,*	8,000	Seneca Falls,	3,000	
	Schenectady,	6,784	Williamsburgh,	3,000	
	Hudson,	5,672	Waterloo,	2,750	
	Syracuse,	5,111	Catskill,	2,500	
	Auburn,	5,000	Elmira,	2,500	
	Ithaca,	5,000	Salina,	2,500	
	Lockport,	5,000	Ogdensburgh,	2,200	
	Newburgh,	5,000	Rome,	2,200	
	Oswego,	5,000	Binghamton,	2,000	
	Watertown,	3,500	Black Rock,	2,000	
	West Troy,	3,000	Canandaigua,	2,000	
	Geneva,	3,000	Kingston,	2,000	
	Lansingburgh,	3,000			92,217

* The number assigned to this "village" is taken from an enumeration about the time of the census.

Table of all the Towns in the United States, etc.—Continued.

States.	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Total.*
New Jersey, ...	Paterson, ...	7,596	Orange, ...	3,264	
	Elizabeth Boro', ..	4,184	Jersey City, ...	3,072	
	Trenton, ...	4,035	Princeton, ...	3,055	
	Burlington, ...	3,434	Belville, ...	2,466	
	Camden, ...	3,371			34,477
Pennsylvania, ...	Lancaster, ...	8,417	Erie, ...	3,412	
	Reading, ...	8,410	Chambersburg, ...	3,229	
	Harrisburg, ...	5,980	Norristown, ...	2,939	
	Easton, ...	4,865	West Chester, ...	2,152	
	York, ...	4,779	Washington, ...	2,062	
	Carlisle, ...	4,351	Lewistown, ...	2,058	
	Pottsville, ...	4,345			56,999
Delaware, ...	Wilmington, ...	8,367	Newcastle, ...	2,737	
	Dover, ...	3,790			14,894
Maryland, ...	Fredericktown, ...	7,179	Annapolis, ...	2,792	
	Hagerstown, ...	5,132	Cumberland, ...	2,428	
					17,531
Dist. of Colum., .	Alexandria, ...	8,459	Georgetown, ...	7,312	
					15,771
Virginia, ...	Wheeling, ...	7,885	Fredericksburg, ...	3,974	
	Portsmouth, ...	6,477	Winchester, ...	3,454	
	Lynchburg, ...	6,395			28,185
North Carolina, .	Wilmington, ...	4,744	Newbern, ...	3,690	
	Fayetteville, ...	4,285	Raleigh, ...	2,444	
					15,163
South Carolina, .	Columbia, ...			4,340	
					4,340
Georgia, ...	Augusta, ...	6,403	Columbus, ...	3,114	
	Macon, ...	3,927	Milledgeville, ...	2,095	
					15,539
Alabama, ...	Montgomery, ...	2,179	Tuscaloosa,*	2,000	
					4,179
Mississippi, ...	Natchez, ...	4,800	Vicksburg, ...	3,104	
					7,904
Louisiana, ...	Lafayette, ...	3,207	Baton Rouge, ...	2,269	
					5,476
Tennessee, ...	Nashville, ...	6,929	Knoxville,†	3,500	
					10,429
Kentucky, ...	Lexington, ...	6,997	Covington, ...	2,026	
	Maysville, ...	2,741	Frankfort,‡	2,000	
					13,764
Ohio, ...	Cleveland, ...	6,071	Lancaster, ...	3,272	
	Dayton, ...	6,067	Newark, ...	2,705	
	Columbus, ...	6,048	Mount Vernon, ...	2,362	
	Zanesville, ...	4,766	Circleville, ...	2,329	
	Steubenville, ...	4,247	Springfield, ...	2,062	
	Chilicothe, ...	3,977			43,906
Indiana, ...	New Albany, ...	4,226	Indianapolis, ...	2,692	
	Madison, ...	3,798	Richmond, ...	2,070	
					12,786

* This town, the seat of government in Alabama, had a population of but 1,949 when the census was taken.

† The population of this town is not given in the census.

‡ This town, the seat of government in Kentucky, had a population of but 1,917 when the census was taken.

Table of all the Towns in the United States, etc.—Continued.

States.	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Towns.*	*Pop.*	*Total.*
Illinois,	Chicago,	4,470	Alton,	2,340	
	Springfield,	2,579	Quincy,	2,319	
					11,708
Michigan,	Detroit,			9,102	
					9,102
Florida,	St. Augustine,			2,453	
					2,453
Total of towns of between 10,000 and 2,000 inhabitants each,					991,590

Table of the aggregate Town Population in each State, and of its ratio to the whole Population of the State.

States, &c.	Population of Towns—		Total.	Ratio to whole Population.
	Of 10,000 inhabitants and upw.	Between 10,000 and 2,000 inhab.		
Maine,	15,218	107,937	123,155	24.5
New Hampshire,		55,459	55,459	19.4
Vermont,		31,010	31,010	10.6
Massachusetts,	163,817	225,553	389,370	52.7
Rhode Island,	23,171	42,000	65,171	60.4
Connecticut,	12,960	112,808	125,768	37.9
New England States,	215,166	574,767	789,933	35.3
New York,	453,184	92,217	545,401	22.4
New Jersey,	17,290	34,477	51,767	13.8
Pennsylvania,	237,054	56,999	294,053	17.3
Delaware,		14,894	14,894	19.
Maryland,	102,313	17,531	119,844	25.5
District of Columbia,	23,364	15,771	39,135	.....
Middle States,	833,205	231,889	1,065,094	20.8
Virginia,	42,209	28,185	70,394	5.6
North Carolina,		15,163	15,163	2.
South Carolina,	29,261	4,340	33,601	5.6
Georgia,	11,214	15,539	26,753	3.8
Florida,		2,453	2,453	4.5
Southern States,	82,684	65,680	148,364	4.4
Alabama,	12,672	4,179	16,851	2.8
Mississippi,		7,904	7,904	2.1
Louisiana,	102,193	5,476	107,669	30.5
Arkansas,				.....
Tennessee,		10,429	10,429	1.2
Southwestern States,	114,865	27,988	142,853	6.6
Missouri,	16,469		16,469	4.3
Kentucky,	21,210	13,764	34,974	4.5
Ohio,	46,338	43,906	90,244	5.9
Indiana,		12,786	12,786	1.8
Illinois,		11,708	11,708	2.4
Michigan,		9,102	9,102	4.3
Northwestern States,	84,017	91,266	175,283	4.2
Total,	1,329,937	991,590	2,321,527	13.6

By thus extending our estimate to all the "principal towns" mentioned in the census, we find that the number is increased from thirty-one towns to two hundred and fifty, and that the proportion of town population is augmented from about a thirteenth to near a seventh, with a yet greater disparity among the states than was shown as to the towns of more than 10,000 inhabitants. But this state of facts is, in part, fallacious. It involves an important error, resulting from the application of the term "towns," in New England, to those subdivisions of a country, which are generally called "townships" or "parishes;" and whose whole population in New England, though the greater part is essentially rural, has, by reason of this inconvenient provincialism, been returned by the census as town population. For the want of adequate means of separating the inhabitants of the town or village, from those of the township, (which, moreover, would, from the irregular dispersion of the buildings, be not always easy to those on the spot,) the census has been implicitly followed as to these "principal towns" in New England; though, from the proportion of their inhabitants who are agricultural, it seems probable that more than half their population should be deducted from the town population here estimated.

In New York, where the same provincialism extensively prevails, the census has erred in an opposite way, by noticing in the northern part of the state none but incorporated cities; and thus busy and compactly built towns, here called "villages," of 5,000 inhabitants and upwards, have been omitted in one-half the state, while, in the other, much smaller towns, and even townships, have been occasionally noticed; though in neither district has it descended to towns of but 2,000 inhabitants. To supply these omissions, the estimate made of the town population of New York, in "Williams's Register," for 1837, has been adopted. At the time of taking the last census, they probably contained, on an average, from 10 to 15 per cent more inhabitants than are here assigned to them; and some ten or twelve other towns or villages, which had not then reached 2,000 inhabitants, such as Batavia, Brockport, Little Falls, and a few others, are likely now to exceed that number. The town population, therefore, of New York may be from 25,000 to 30,000 more than it is here estimated.

Similar omissions of small towns may have also occurred in other states, which we have not the same means of correcting. They, altogether, cannot equal the omissions in New York.

If these errors were corrected, the three more southern New England states would still have the largest proportion of town population of any of the states. The circumstances which determine this proportion, in a state, are the density of its population, the extent of its commerce, and that of its manufactures. It is mainly owing to the first cause, that all the New England and the middle states have a greater town population than the other divisions. It is from their extensive commerce, that Maryland and Louisiana exceed the neighboring states in the same way, and that Massachusetts exceeds the rest of New England. It is to the want both of commerce and manufactures, that Indiana, Tennessee, and North Carolina, have so few and such small towns. It is, indeed, from their exclusive pursuit of agriculture, in the slaveholding states, as well their difference in density, that the number of their town inhabitants, with the exception of Delaware, Maryland, and Louisiana, rarely exceeds a twentieth, and will not average more than a thirtieth of their whole population. If the pro-

portion in the whole United States could be correctly ascertained, by the correction of the errors adverted to, it would probably be found that those who live in towns and villages containing at least 2,000 inhabitants, are not much more nor much less than one-eighth of the entire number.

The effect of railroads, and of transportation by steam generally, is to stimulate the growth of towns, and especially of large towns. It is, therefore, likely that our principal cities will, at the next census, show as large a proportional increase as they have experienced in the last decennial period.

Art. III.—THE PROTECTIVE SYSTEM.

NUMBER I.

ITS CHARACTER AND CONSTITUTIONALITY.

Government is instituted for the good of the people. This maxim, which is coeval with civil liberty, was recognized by our fathers, and incorporated into our institutions. The constitution itself, to use the language of its preamble, was ordained and established, "to provide for the common defence, and to promote the general welfare." Our government, then, to carry out the object for which it was instituted, must adopt measures for the protection of all our interests, against the policy of other nations. It must guard the lives, secure the rights, protect the property, and encourage the industry of the people.

The protective policy originated with the mother country, and was interwoven even with our colonial existence. When, therefore, we separated from Great Britain, we adopted the same policy, and turned that system which England had employed for her special benefit, to our own account. This system has grown up with us, and is essential not only to our prosperity, but to our independence as a nation. We might as well dispense with our fleets and our armies, recall all our foreign ministers and consuls, annul all treaties with foreign powers, and repeal all laws in relation to navigation and commerce, as to yield the principle of protecting our own industry against the policy of other nations. We might, in fact, as well give up our national existence, as to yield the great principle on which that existence is founded, and without which our independence could not be maintained.

It is the very height of absurdity to say, that we may protect ourselves by arms, but cannot by commercial regulations. If we can rightfully guard our commerce by our navy, we can do it by legislative restrictions. If we may, by the authority of our constitution, repel force by force, when our soil is invaded, we may, by the authority of the same instrument, meet restriction with restriction, when our commercial interests are assailed. If we may guard the lives of our citizens, we may protect them in that industry which makes life a blessing. If we may rightfully protect ourselves against the hired soldiery of a foreign power, acting in the field, we may protect ourselves against their pauper labor, acting in the workshop. These positions appear to us to be self-evident. We are unable to perceive how any person, whose mind is free from prejudice, can come to any other con-

clusion. Nothing but preconceived opinions, technical niceties, or theoretic abstractions, can lead the mind from truths so simple and so obvious.

But, before we adduce any arguments in support of the protective policy, it may be necessary to correct some erroneous impressions which are entertained upon this subject. The enemies of the protective policy, represent it as favoring the manufacturers alone; and by manufacturers, they seem to include none but those employed in the manufacture of cotton and wool. But nothing can be more incorrect and narrow than this view of the subject. The cottons and woollens manufactured in the country, constitute but a small part of the aggregate product of our manufactures; and many of the smaller species of our manufactures, our household productions, require protection quite as much as the larger establishments, engaged in the cotton and woollen business. But there is no propriety in considering this as a policy relating to the manufacturers alone. The question is, not whether a few men shall be raised to opulence, but whether the nation shall be independent; not whether manufactures shall be built up, but whether industry shall be encouraged and rewarded. The merchant, the navigator, the mechanic, the artisan, the farmer, the day-laborer, as well as the manufacturer, has each an interest in this policy. Those "who go down to the sea in ships, and do business in the mighty deep," and those "whose ploughshare turns the stubborn soil;" the adventurous pioneer in the western wilderness, and the humble mechanic, wherever his lot may be cast; these have as deep an interest in the American system as the manufacturer in the eastern states, as we shall attempt to show hereafter.

Nor is it a question, as is frequently represented, in which capital is mainly interested. Even if this policy was designed for the benefit of manufactures alone, which is by no means true, it could not be said, with propriety, to be designed for capitalists, as such. Take every species of manufactures in the country, and the owners are no more wealthy than those engaged in agriculture, and are far less so than those engaged in commerce. The rich manufacturers are, comparatively, few in number; and where you find one of this description, you will usually find him associated with several who are comparatively poor, and whose skill has drawn the rich man's treasure from its hiding-places, and brought it into active exercise. And where all the partners are capitalists, they give employ to a large class who are comparatively poor, and who have as deep an interest in the success of the establishment as the owners themselves. Another view of this subject will show, that labor has a deeper interest in this question than capital. Take all the manufactures in the country, and the aggregate worth of the annual product will stand to the capital invested as three to two; and it should be borne in mind, that of the capital invested, a large amount is fixed capital, the interest alone of which goes into the annual fabric. We have no means of ascertaining what proportion of the capital employed in the country in manufactures, is fixed, and what floating capital; but we know that, in many establishments, the real estate, fixtures, and machinery, must absorb a great part of the capital invested. We know, also, that, in some species of manufactures, there is but little capital employed, either fixed or floating; and hence, the fabric is mainly the product of labor. From this glance at the subject, it will be seen that, if the protective system was beneficial to manufactures alone, it could not be said that it tended to promote the interest of capital rather

than of labor. Labor is the great ingredient which goes into the manufactured articles; and hence it is labor, rather than capital, which is interested in this system.

When, therefore, we plead for a protective tariff, we plead for the laborer, rather than for the capitalist. Not that we have any hostility to the rich; we would protect the wealthy in their possessions, and especially in those investments into which we have invited them by our legislation. We would protect all property, because it was originally, in a great degree, the product of labor, and because this protection furnishes a stimulant to industry. We would protect property, because upon that must fall most of the taxes and public burdens. But the industry of the country is of much more consequence than the few millions which are hoarded by rich capitalists. The amount of capital invested in manufactures in the country, is about $300,000,000; and the labor of the country in a single year, allowing only one in four to be laborers, and reckoning their labor at fifty cents per day, would amount to more than twice that sum. Labor is the great source of wealth and prosperity; and that system of policy which stimulates industry, and gives to the laborer the reward of his toil, is best adapted to the wants of the country. The protective system is purely democratic in its tendency. It fosters industry, and enables the poor man, who has no capital but his own labor, no surplus but what is found in his sinews, to acquire a competency to support and educate his family. It is designed not for the few, but for the many; and though it will be productive of the common good, its peculiar blessings will fall upon the laboring classes.

Having made these preliminary statements, we now proceed to consider more particularly the character and advantages of this system, and to adduce arguments in its support. But here we are met at the threshold, with a constitutional objection. We are told that a *protective* tariff is unconstitutional; that we may lay duties for revenue, but not for protection. We confess that we feel mortified in being called upon, at this late day, to prove that the founders of our republic knew the import of the instrument of their own forming. The doctrine of protection has been avowed and urged by every president, and sanctioned by every congress, since the establishment of our government. There has not been a single moment, since the passage of the first public act by the first congress under the constitution, when discriminating duties for protection's sake have not been a living law upon the statute book. This fact, alone, ought to silence every objection of this sort.

But if the enemies of protection will, like the king at the feast, "fight the battle o'er again," we have no disposition to shrink from the contest. We have already said that our constitution was ordained and established "to provide for the common defence, and to promote the general welfare." This was the great object of the constitution—the end which its framers had in view. The government is not only authorized, but required by the organic law, to provide for the common defence—for the defence of our soil and its products, of our citizens and their industry. Government is bound by the constitution itself to promote the common good. "To provide for the general welfare," is one of the enumerated powers expressly delegated to congress. The phrase "general welfare," includes all the blessings of a free people; and whatever tends to national wealth and prosperity, is among those blessings. But in what does national wealth

consist? Principally, in the productive labor of the people. When government, therefore, protects our labor, it takes the most effectual step to promote our prosperity. If our industry is paralyzed by foreign competition, the wealth and resources of the country can never be fully developed. Our prosperity in peace, and our success in war, our general welfare and common defence, require that the active energies of our people should be brought into exercise; and this can be done in no way so effectually as by protecting our industry against the restrictive laws and pauper labor of Europe. Instead, therefore, of a protective tariff's being unconstitutional, it is one of the principal means of securing the great end for which the constitution was established.

But let us look at this portion of the constitution more particularly. The eighth section of the first article of the constitution, commences the enumeration of the delegated powers in these words: "Congress shall have power to levy and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the United States."

This portion of the constitution is capable of two distinct constructions, either of which is full to our purpose. One construction is, that congress shall have power to lay taxes, duties, &c., and shall also have power to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States. This construction gives to congress two substantive powers—the power to impose taxes and duties, and the power to pay the debts and provide for the general welfare. On this construction, the taxing power is unlimited; and the power to provide for the general welfare is left entirely to the discretion of congress. On this construction, no one can doubt the power of congress to impose discriminating duties; but the other construction, which is perhaps more in accordance with our institutions, makes the latter clause dependent upon the former, and a qualification of it. On this construction, congress has power to lay taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, *for the purpose* of paying the debts and providing for the general welfare. This construction gives but one substantive power—the power of laying taxes and duties, to the end that the debts shall be paid and the general welfare promoted. On this construction, congress has the power to lay duties, and this power is no otherwise limited, than by the objects for which the duties are imposed, viz: to pay the debts, and to provide for the common defence and general welfare. If the nation is in debt, congress has full power to impose duties, to the end that the debt may be paid. If the great interests of the country are languishing, congress has power, equally plenary, to impose such duties as will revive the languishing interests of the country, and promote the general welfare. The taxing power is given for the public good, and is to be exercised to that, and that alone; but certainly the public good is promoted by encouraging the industry of the country, as much as it would be by paying the public debt. All will allow, that congress has full power to impose duties to pay the debts of the nation; but the same clause which gives this power, gives the power of imposing duties to promote the general welfare. It would be absurd to say that congress has the former power, but not the latter; and especially as protecting our interests and encouraging our industry would enable us to pay those duties, which will enable congress to discharge the public debt. The limitation in the last clause, "that the duties

shall be uniform throughout the United States," strengthens the view we have taken; for it is a sound rule of interpretation, that one express limitation negatives, by implication, all others.

Here, then, we have full power for the imposition of duties without limitation, so far as the subject before us is concerned. If congress may constitutionally impose a duty of 5 per cent, it may one of 50, or of 500. The whole subject is within the discretion of congress. On all questions of expediency, they are the sole judges. But this power is not only given in this general manner, but it is given for the purpose of being exercised. The sole object of the government is, to protect the people—"to provide for the common defence and general welfare;" and congress would be wanting in duty, if it did not exercise the power in question to this end.

But the power to lay discriminating duties, does not depend upon this clause of the constitution alone. The commercial clause is equally full and conclusive on this subject. The third granted power is, "to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes." Duties on imports, discriminating and countervailing duties, are among the most important regulations of commerce, and have been adopted by all commercial nations. The want of this power in the general government, under the confederation, contributed, more than any other cause, to the formation of the constitution. Under the confederation, the power to regulate commerce, or *trade*, as it was then frequently denominated, was left to the states. Having different interests, they adopted different regulations. Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania, imposed protective duties for the avowed purpose of encouraging their manufactures. Other states, having different interests, adopted a different policy, and hence, confusion and jealousy among the states ensued. Foreign nations took the advantage of this state of things, and imposed embarrassing restrictions upon the trade of the states. This difficulty became so serious, that many of the states felt the necessity of adopting some new policy in relation to their trade. Virginia and Maryland were the first to move on this subject. They appointed commissioners, in 1785, to form a compact relative to the navigation of the river Potomac, and Roanoke, and the Chesapeake bay, and also to establish a tariff of duties upon imports. The attempt proving, in a great measure, abortive, owing to their limited powers, Virginia, in the year following, proposed a convention of all the states, for the purpose of taking into consideration the state of trade, and the propriety of a uniform system of commercial regulations, which should promote the common interest of the states. This proposition led to the convention which formed our constitution.

As the constitution transferred the commercial power from the states to the general government, we can easily learn the extent of this power in congress by ascertaining what it was when exercised by the states. As exercised by the states, the commercial power consisted, not only in imposing duties for revenue, but for the express and avowed purpose of *protecting and encouraging domestic manufactures*. This power, in all its fullness, was transferred to the general government. Congress, then, has, on this subject, all the power which was ever exercised by the states. That the states do not possess this power since the formation of the constitution, will be readily admitted; and if it is not given to the general government, we present the anomaly of a great nation, stripped of a power which has ever been regarded as essential, not only to nation-

al prosperity, but to national existence. This argument has been put forth triumphantly by Mr. Madison, General Jackson, and others, and is entirely unanswerable.

No man acquainted with the history of the times, can doubt but that the framers of the constitution intended to incorporate, in that instrument, full power on this important subject. In denying the commercial power to the states, they deprived them of the right of imposing protective duties; and in giving this power to congress, they invested them with ample authority to protect all our interests, by discriminating and countervailing duties. All this is implied in the phrase, "*to regulate commerce.*"

Mr. Madison, the father of the constitution, in a letter to Mr. Cabell, of Virginia, written in 1828, gives a "confident opinion" on the full power of congress to protect manufactures. He tells us that the phrase, "to regulate trade," must be understood as including the power to encourage manufactures; because that had been the use of the phrase among all nations, and particularly with "Great Britain, whose commercial vocabulary is the parent of our own;" that such was the use of this power by the states, while retaining the power over their foreign trade; that, in giving the commercial power to the general government, the people supposed that they had given them authority to protect our own industry; and that the exercise of this power by the first congress, is conclusive evidence that they believed that the constitution granted it.

Such is the substance of Mr. Madison's argument, and it appears conclusive on the subject. It would seem superfluous to attempt to sustain the positions laid down by this distinguished statesman. But it would be an easy task to show, from the writings of that day, that the phrase, "to regulate trade, or commerce," was as well understood, and had as clear and definite a meaning, as any other phrase whatever; and that protecting our own manufactures was considered as one important branch in the regulation of trade. As early as 1766, when Dr. Franklin was examined before the house of commons, in answer to a question propounded, he said: "I never heard an objection to the right to lay duties *to regulate commerce.*" In our controversy with Great Britain, in relation to taxation, which preceded the revolution, we find the phrase, "to regulate commerce," used by both parties to include the power to protect manufactures; and after the peace of 1783, this was the uniform use of the phrase in our own country. In a work called the "American Museum," which embodies the spirit of the American press, from 1783 to 1788, a period immediately preceding the adoption of the constitution, we find many articles on this very subject; and we notice them here, for the twofold purpose of showing what were the wishes and expectations of the people, and also of showing the sense, in the writer's use of the phrase, "to regulate commerce or trade."

A writer in Maryland, on the subject of manufactures, urges the importance of "regulating our trade" for the express purpose of building up our infant manufactures. He combats "free trade" in the following able manner: "If trade will regulate itself, why do the wisest and most prosperous governments make laws in favor and support of their trade? Why does the British parliament employ so much time and pains in regulating their trade, so as to render its advantages particularly useful to their own nation? Why so preposterous as to abide by and enforce their boasted navigation act? But so far is trade from regulating itself, that it contin-

ually needs the help of the legislation of every country, as a nursing father. If we Americans do not choose to regulate it, it will regulate us, till we have not a farthing left in our hands. Unless we shortly regulate and correct the abuses of our trade, by lopping off its useless branches and establishing manufactures, we shall be corrected, perhaps, even to our very destruction. The mechanics hope the legislature will afford them that protection they are entitled to; for, as the present hateful *system of trade* and scarcity of cash, occasions numbers of them to want employment, though they are able and ready to furnish many articles which are at present imported, they conceive that duties ought to be laid on certain imported articles, in such a manner as to place American manufactures on the same footing as the manufactures of Europe, and enable them to procure bread and support for their families."

A writer from North Carolina, under the signature of "Sylvius," after adverting to the appalling increase of our foreign debt, by large importations of what we can produce at home, says: "Let us turn our attention to manufactures. By this expedient, instead of using fictitious paper, we shall soon obtain hard money sufficient; instead of toiling in the field, and becoming poor, that we may enrich the manufacturers of other countries, we shall prosper by our own labor, and enrich our own citizens. All wise governments have thought it their duty, on special occasions, to offer bounties for the encouragement of domestic manufactures; but an excise on foreign goods must operate as a bounty. There never was a government in which an excise could be of so much use, as in the United States. In all other countries, taxes are considered as grievous. In the United States, an excise on foreign goods would not be a grievance; like medicine to a sick man, it would give us strength. It would close that wasteful drain by which our honor and our wealth are consumed. It is the duty of the statesman either to check or to promote the several streams of commerce by taxes or bounties, so as to render them profitable to the nation. Thus it has happened in Massachusetts. A tax of 25 per cent was lately imposed on nails, and the poor of Taunton were immediately restored to life and vigor."

A writer in South Carolina, who signs himself "American," says: "It is in vain for any people to attempt to be rich, or to have a sufficient circulating specie among them, whose imports exceed their exports; the hand of the manufacturer, in a distant land, seems to act upon gold and silver as the loadstone does on the needle." Again, after adverting to a revenue of three and a half millions, raised by Great Britain by monopolizing our trade, he says: "A great part of this may be saved to these states by our becoming our own merchants and carriers; and a great part of the remaining sum may be saved, in a few years, by *encouraging our manufactures;* and even this encouragement will be of service to our revenue—I mean, laying a duty on our imports, and giving a small part, in bounties, to our own tradesmen. The planters that buy the manufactures of America stop so much money in the country, which must return again to the planter's hands, as long as traders eat."

These extracts show that the people, at that time, regarded the encouragement of manufactures as a subject of the utmost importance, and that they considered this as a branch of the commercial power. These extracts also show the sense in which the phrase, "to regulate commerce," was then understood; but there is evidence still more conclusive on this

subject. When the new constitution was submitted to the people, its merits were discussed, and the import of its provisions fully analyzed. The commercial power, which we are now considering, underwent a strict scrutiny, and was understood by the people themselves as including the power to encourage and protect our own industry.

In an Address to the People of New Jersey, on the subject of the new constitution, by a "Jerseyman," we find this striking passage: "The great advantages which would be the result of the adoption of the proposed constitution, are almost innumerable. I will mention a few among the many. In the first place, the proper regulation of our commerce would be ensured; the imposts on all foreign merchandise, imported into America, would still effectually aid our continental treasury. This power has been, heretofore, held back by some of the states, on narrow and mistaken principles. The amount of duties since the peace, would probably, by this time, have nearly paid our national debt. By the *proper regulation of our commerce*, our own manufactures would be also much promoted and encouraged. Heavy duties would discourage the consumption of articles of foreign growth. This would induce us to work up our raw materials, and prevent European manufacturers from dragging them from us, in order to bestow upon them their own labor and a high price, before they are returned into our own hands."

About the same time, an Address to the People of Pennsylvania was put forth by "One of the People," in which the same views are fully expressed.

"The people of Pennsylvania, in general, are composed of men of three occupations—the farmer, the merchant, and the mechanic. The interests of these three are intimately blended together. A government, then, which will be conducive to their happiness, and best promote their interests, is a government which these people shall adopt. The constitution now presented to them is such an one. Every person must long since have discovered the necessity of placing the exclusive power of *regulating the commerce* of America, in the same body; without this, it is impossible to *regulate their trade*. The same imposts, duties, and customs, must equally prevail over the whole; for no one state can carry into effect its impost laws. No state could effectually *encourage its manufactures; there can be no navigation act.* Whence comes it that the trade of this state, which abounds with materials for ship-building, is carried on in foreign bottoms? Whence comes it that shoes, boots, made-up clothes, hats, nails, sheet-iron, hinges, and all other utensils of iron, are of British manufacture? Whence comes it that Spain can regulate our flour market? These evils proceed from a want of one supreme controlling power in these states. They will all be done away by adopting the present form of government. It will have energy and power to regulate your trade and commerce—to enforce the execution of your imposts, duties, and customs. Instead of the trade of this country being carried on in foreign bottoms, our ports will be crowded with our own ships, and we shall become carriers for Europe. Heavy duties will be laid on all foreign articles which can be manufactured in this country, and bounties will be granted on the exportation of our commodities; the manufactories of our country will flourish; our mechanics will lift up their heads, and rise to opulence and wealth."

In the year following, a "Bostonian" gives the people his sentiments in nearly the same strain. "The ill-policy," says he, "of our commercial

arrangements has served to impoverish us in our finances, by the enormous remittances of our currency, occasioning an almost general bankruptcy; and has had the pernicious tendency to discourage our enterprise in manufactures, and ruined many of those branches which, during the war, had arisen to a flourishing state. Our trade with Great Britain has been the principal source of our misfortunes. It has thrown a number of our best estates into the hands of British merchants; has occasioned a most rapid decrease of our medium; has ruined our manufactures; and will, if pursued, sap the foundation of the best government that ever can be established in America. The first object, therefore, of the federal government must be, to restrain our connections with Great Britain, unless on terms of reciprocity. While they continue their duties and prohibitions, we must lay similar restrictions and embarrassments on their trade; and prevent, by excessive duties, the redundance of their manufactures."*

These extracts are full to the purpose for which we have made them. They show us most conclusively, that, at the time of the adoption of the constitution, the people desired the protection of their manufactures, and regarded that protection as one of the elements of the commercial power. These writers speak of "regulating trade, so as to encourage our manufactures;" and when they complain of the decline of the manufacturing interest, they all ascribe it to some defect in the commercial arrangements of the states. Hence, we feel authorized in saying that the phrase "to regulate commerce," was, when it was incorporated with the constitution, as clear and as well-defined in its meaning, as any other phrase whatever; and was understood by all to include the power to lay discriminating duties for the protection of home industry. Mr. Madison himself, who drafted the constitution, assures us that this was the acknowledged import of the phrase; and the examples we have given are full to that point. Now, under these circumstances, can there be any doubt as to the extent of the commercial power touching the subject of protection? A single glance at the facts in the case, will remove all such doubts. Look at them for a moment. The people are depressed in their business. They find their manufactures and mechanic arts declining. They are sensible that these interests must have more permanent protection than the states can give them. They call a convention of the people for the express purpose of investing the general government with full power to protect all their interests, whether agricultural, commercial, or manufactural. The convention meet, and form a constitution, giving to congress, as they supposed, full authority on the subject of protection; and that there may be no mistake or misunderstanding in this case, they employ the well-defined phrase "to regulate commerce." This constitution is submitted to the people. They see the commercial power given to congress. They know the import of the language employed; and they readily adopt the constitution, believing that their manufacturing interests will be attended to.

The subject is too clear for further comment. Unless a fatal delusion had taken possession of the patriots who framed, and the people who ratified the constitution—and this hallucination has afflicted all our wisest and ablest statesmen, from that day to this—we may rest satisfied that congress is invested with full power to protect our own industry against the

* For authorities and sound views on this subject, see Mr. Choate's speech in the Senate of the United States, March 14, 1842.

commercial restrictions and pauper labor of the old world. We have seen that this power is granted, in the taxing and in the commercial clauses of the constitution; and, in fact, that its existence and exercise are essential to our national prosperity and independence.

But we have another argument in support of our position which we regard as conclusive of itself. Cotemporaneous construction has always been considered one of the soundest rules of interpretation; and when this cotemporaneous construction is acquiesced in by all departments of the government for more than half a century, the question, on every sound principle of constitutional law, should be regarded as settled.

What, then, was the construction put upon the constitution by the first congress? It will be recollected that General Washington, who was the president of the convention which framed the constitution, was President of the United States when the first congress assembled; and that Mr. Madison, who drafted that instrument, and by whose powerful aid it was carried through the convention of the people, was a member of the house of representatives. We also find the names of Sherman, Clymer, Fitzsimon, Carroll, Baldwin, Williamson, and others, in the house, all of whom were members of the convention. The senate, at that time, consisted of twenty-two members, nine of whom were in the convention that framed the constitution. Now, when we consider that these distinguished men were in the convention and assisted in framing our fundamental law, and that many of them were members of the state conventions which ratified it, we must allow that they were the best judges of its import. Whatever construction they put to the mark of their own hands, ought to be received as its true meaning. Now, what was the action of the first congress, and what construction did they give to the constitution, in relation to the subject before us? Their first object was, to provide for the qualification of their own members, and the officers of the government; consequently, the first act which they passed, provided for the oaths of office to be administered to themselves and others. And it is worthy of special notice, that, on the 8th of April, 1789, *immediately* after they had taken upon themselves a solemn oath to support the instrument of their own forming, Mr. Madison moved that the house resolve itself a committee of the whole on the subject of duties on imports. "I take the liberty, at this early stage of the business," said Mr. Madison, "to introduce to the committee a subject which appears to me to be of the greatest magnitude; a subject, sir, which requires our first attention and our united exertions." The subject being thus introduced, Mr. Fitzsimon, of Pennsylvania, one of the delegates from that state, in the convention which framed the constitution, said: "I earnestly wish for such a system as will be in some way adequate to our present situation, as it respects our agriculture, our *manufactures*, and our commerce. I have prepared an additional number of articles; among those are some calculated to encourage the productions of our own country, and *to protect our infant manufactures.*"

These remarks were followed by a regular debate on the subject of a protective tariff, in which all the principal members participated; and it is worthy of special remark, that no one raised his voice against the doctrine of protection. They differed, of course, as to the rate of duty, and the articles upon which they should impose protective duties; but no one was anti-American enough to doubt the expediency of protective duties—no one was presumptuous enough to call in question the constitutionality of

protection. The debate ended in the production of a bill with the following preamble, setting forth its character and design; and it was the first *general* act passed by that congress: "Whereas it is necessary, for the support of the government, for the discharge of the debt of the United States, and *for the encouragement and protection of manufactures*, that duties be laid upon goods, wares, and merchandise, imported: *Be it enacted*, &c."

Here we have a protective tariff, passed by the first congress—by the very men who framed the constitution; and signed by the father of his country, who had presided in the convention where the constitution was formed. But the opinions of these distinguished patriots, thus fully expressed at their first session, was not renounced when this bill was passed. At their next session, in 1790, President Washington, in his annual address, commended the protective policy to the consideration of congress. The address was referred, in the senate, to Messrs. King, Izard, and Patterson, who, in their report, responded to the sentiment of the president on the subject before us, in the following language: "Agriculture, commerce, and *manufactures*, forming the basis of the wealth and strength of our confederated republic, must be the subject of frequent deliberation, and *shall be advanced by all the proper means in our power.*" When we consider that two of this committee were members of the convention in which the constitution was formed, we cannot suppose them ignorant of its provisions; and as they speak of "advancing the interests of manufactures," we are led to believe that they had no doubt of their constitutional power so to do. The committee of the house, consisting of three, one of whom was a member of the convention, reported an address to the president, in which are these remarkable words: "We concur with you in the sentiment that agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, are entitled to legislative protection." This address, containing this full avowal of the doctrine of protection to manufactures, was unanimously adopted.* At the same session, the house adopted a resolution referring the president's address to the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, calling upon him to present a plan of finance and protection, in conformity with the views of the president. This drew from the secretary his able and elaborate report on manufactures, in which he advocates a protective tariff. Mr. Hamilton was a man of distinguished ability; and when we consider that he was a member of the convention, and contributed more to recommend the constitution to the people than any other man, Mr. Madison, perhaps, excepted, his opinion is entitled to great weight.

Now, if cotemporaneous construction—that sound and important rule of interpretation can ever decide a case—if those who frame an instrument are ever able to expound it, we think this question is put forever at rest. But this is not all. This construction of the constitution, which was given by the authors and finishers of that sacred instrument, has been acquiesced in for more than half a century. Not only Washington and Madison, but Jefferson, and Monroe, and Adams, and Jackson, and Van Buren, and Tyler—all these have advocated protection, and recommended this policy to congress. In fact, this policy has been advocated and sustained by almost every statesman of which our country can boast. It seems, therefore, to be too late in the day to call in question the power of

* See Gales and Seaton's Debates, Old Series.

congress to protect our own industry. We might as well deny to congress the power to support our army or navy, to establish post-offices and post-roads, or to coin money, as to deny the power to foster our own labor and protect our own interests. If the language of the constitution itself, sustained by the construction of its framers, and acquiesced in, for more than half a century, by all departments of the government—if this does not settle the question, it can never be settled by any means whatever. We lay it down, then, as a point not to be controverted, that congress has full power and authority to impose discriminating duties to protect our own industry.

Having, in this number, established this position, we will, in our next, attempt to show that the great interests of the country require, at the hands of congress, the exercise of this power. C. H.

Art. IV.—CANAL COMMERCE OF NEW YORK.

The eminent success of the New York system of internal navigation, has had the most beneficial influence, not only on her own happy destinies, but also upon those of the whole nation. It has more than accomplished the predictions of its most sanguine advocates. As one of the bonds of union, between the western and Atlantic states, (and it was the precursor and the cause of many such bonds,) it is cherished by every patriot. As the means of communication between the Hudson, the Mississippi, the St. Lawrence, the great lakes of the north and the west, it is creating the greatest inland trade of the world. It has given high value, not otherwise attainable, to the surplus products of a vast and fertile region, whether such products be of the soil, the forest, the mines, the waters, or of the arts. It is making the city of New York the granary of the world, the emporium of commerce, the seat of manufactures, the focus of great monied operations, and the concentrating point of vast accumulating and disposable capital. It has converted the prophecies of its great supporter, (Clinton,) long before the period appointed for their fulfilment, into history. But it has had a still greater effect, the scope of which is scarce appreciable. It has demonstrated that a people self-governed, and enlightened by a knowledge of their true interest, have a power in the execution of useful public works, infinitely greater than the governments directed by individuals, who claim to have been created for dominion. No event has contributed more to establish the superiority of popular institutions, than the completion of an enterprise, surpassing in extent and utility any which honors the old world—completed by a state, which, at its commencement, had a population under a million and a half—completed without taxation—and paid for within ten years after it had become operative. It is not, therefore, surprising, that many competitors have appeared for the honor of originating so great a work; nor that numerous volumes have been filled with the history of its progress.

The Annual Report of the Commissioners of the Canal Fund, of tolls and tonnage of the State of New York, for 1842, furnishes a variety of statistical information, in relation to the trade of the canals, not strictly required by the terms of the law of April, 1831, that will be found at once interesting and useful. From this, and other data at hand, we proceed to

lay before our readers a sketch of the commerce of the canals of the state. The Erie canal is, we believe, the only one in the country which yields a profit on its construction.

This great work, by far the most important canal in the United States, extends from the tide waters of the Hudson river, at the city of Albany, to Lake Erie, terminating at the city of Buffalo. Its general course from Albany is a little north of west, passing up the valley of the Mohawk river, which it crosses at the lower aqueduct, then follows the left or north bank of the Mohawk for 13 miles, when it recrosses at the upper aqueduct; thence pursues the south bank of the above river, through the counties of Schenectady, Schoharie, Montgomery, Herkimer, and Oneida, where it leaves the Mohawk valley, and continues west through the counties of Madison, Onondaga, Cayuga, the northeast angle of Seneca, Wayne, touching Ontario on the north at Port Gibson, Monroe, Orleans, Niagara, and Erie, where it terminates. Its whole length, including the basin at Albany, is 364 miles; passing through several flourishing cities and villages, many of which have sprung into existence since its completion. It is intersected by several lateral canals of much importance, all of them communicating with other navigable waters. At the Cohoes, in the town of Watervliet, it forms a junction with the *Champlain canal;* at Utica, it connects with the *Chenango canal;* at the village of Rome, with the *Black River canal* and *Feeder;* in the town of Vernon, with the *Oneida Lake canal;* at the village of Syracuse, with the *Oswego canal;* at the village of Montezuma, with the *Cayuga* and *Seneca canal;* and at the city of Rochester, with the *Genesee Valley canal.* From Albany west there are a succession of locks, until what is termed the 'long level,' is reached, in the town of Frankfort, Herkimer county, elevated 425 feet above the Hudson, extending to Syracuse, a distance of 69½ miles, without any intervening lock; from thence the line descends, and then reascends until it reaches Rochester, elevated 506 feet, where there is another continued level of 64 miles; when at Lockport the canal ascends the mountain ridge, by five double combined locks, each 12.4 feet rise; nine miles west of Lockport the canal enters the Tonawanda creek, with which for a distance of about 10 miles it is identified; at a further distance of 12 miles this magnificent work unites with Lake Erie. Total rise from the Hudson river to Lake Erie, 560 feet; rise and fall, 692 feet. It was commenced in 1817, and finished in 1825, at a total cost of $10,731,595.

By an act of the legislature in relation to the Erie canal, passed May 11, 1835, directing the canal commissioners to enlarge and improve the Erie canal, the project of enlarging this before great work, was adopted; the want of additional facilities for conducting the increased trade flowing through this channel having become apparent. Considerable progress has now been made on this stupendous undertaking, which, when finished, will command the admiration of the civilized world. There was put under contract prior to January, 1839, over 100 miles of the enlarged canal, including the heavy rock cutting at Lockport, with all the mechanical structures thereon, comprising more than 50 double and single locks, besides the five double combined locks at Lockport; the aqueduct over the Genesee river at Rochester; the two aqueducts over the Mohawk river; one over the Schoharie creek, and many other over smaller streams, including culverts, bridges, &c. The estimated cost of all the work for the enlargement of the Erie canal, is $23,284,931, of which there was put under con-

tract up to 1841, $11,021,932, on which there has been paid $10,011,146; leaving a further expenditure of $13,273,784 to be provided for. The size of the *Enlarged Erie Canal*, is to be 7 feet deep, and 70 feet wide on the surface, with a slope of 2 feet to 1 in the banks, leaving a width at the bottom of 42 feet; with double locks 18 feet wide, and 110 feet long. The present width of the old Erie canal is 40 feet on the surface, and 28 on the bottom, and 4 feet deep; the locks 15 feet wide, and 80 feet long.*

The following table exhibits the amount of revenue received on each canal, during the season of navigation, in 1841 and 1842:—

	1841.	1842.
Erie canal,	$1,813,650 58	$1,568,946 56
Champlain canal,	117,841 14	95,957 54
Oswego canal,	38,344 22	31,222 19
Cayuga and Seneca canal,	23,583 37	16,948 16
Chemung canal,	9,396 42	7,702 05
Crooked Lake canal,	2,017 32	989 39
Chenango canal,	18,815 48	13,615 38
Genesee Valley canal,	9,927 69	13,204 11
Oneida Lake canal,	462 02	462 63
Seneca River towing-path,	844 58	149 51
Total,	$2,034,882 82	$1,749,119 52

It will be seen by the above table, that there is a diminution in tolls, in 1842, as compared with 1841, of $285,685. Of this diminution, $130,921 is on descending, and $194,764 on ascending freight.

The following statement exhibits the total movement of property on all the canals for the year, of navigation, of 1842, showing the value at the place of shipment, the tons of, and the tolls on each article. The total tons of all descriptions of property which moved on the canals, is shown to be $1,236,931; and the total value of the same property, $60,016,608:—

Statement of the Tons and value of, and the Tolls paid on each Article transported on all the Canals during the year 1842.

BOATS.				*Tolls.*
Toll at 2 cents,				$123,464
Toll on packets,				17,715
Total boats,				$141,179
PASSENGERS.				
Statements, and reported,				$24,336
Total passengers,				$24,336
Articles.	*Quantity.*	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Tolls.*
THE FOREST.				
Fur and peltry,	pounds 2,568,000	1,284	$2,561,669	$2,321
Product of Wood.				
Boards and Scantling,	feet, 178,678,200	297,797	1,687,409	109,048
Shingles,	M., 54,806	8,221	125,087	10,239
Timber,	cub. ft. 1,521,200	30,424	110,617	12,594
Staves,	pounds 59,086,000	29,543	201,642	34,084
Wood,	cords, 44,608	124,919	96,913	15,389
Ashes,	barrels, 49,636	12,409	1,173,882	28,304
Total forest,		504,597	$5,957,219	$211,979

* For a list of the places on the Junction and Erie canal, see "Railroad and Canal Statistics," in the present number of this Magazine.

Statement of the Tons and value of, etc.—Continued.

AGRICULTURE. *Product of Animals.*	*Quantity.*	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Tolls.*
Pork,.....barrels,	100,060	15,009	$754,389	$38,151
Beef,..... "	27,133	4,070	157,621	5,730
Cheese,.....pounds	19,574,000	9,787	1,046,737	13,060
Butter and Lard,..... "	18,964,000	9,482	1,881,131	20,883
Wool,..... "	4,342,000	2,171	1,168,628	3,827
Total product of animals,....	.....	40,519	$5,008,506	$81,651
Vegetable Food.				
Flour,.....barrels,	1,915,829	206,908	$7,914,361	$503,606
Wheat,.....bushels	2,689,200	80,676	2,298,897	103,121
Rye,..... "	32,323	906	17,821	480
Corn,..... "	369,933	11,098	152,273	29,751
Barley,..... "	491,920	12,298	186,662	17,820
Other Grain,..... "	916,480	20,621	276,982	33,801
Bran and Shipstuffs,..... "	1,973,600	19,736	154,092	18,705
Peas and Beans,..... "	34,700	1,041	24,343	1,668
Potatoes,..... "	34,840	871	6,622	860
Dried Fruit,.....pounds	1,896,000	948	90,328	3,078
Total vegetable food,.....	.....	355,103	$11,122,381	$712,890
All other Agricultural Products.				
Cotton,.....pounds	2,812,000	1,406	$274,913	$1,614
Tobacco,..... "	2,214,000	1,107	268,354	2,934
Clover and Grass seed,..... "	2,854,000	1,427	172,940	3,782
Flax seed,..... "	2,610,000	1,305	45,895	2,019
Hops,..... "	818,000	409	94,854	486
Total all other agricul. prod.,.	.....	5,654	$856,956	$10,835
Total agriculture,.....	.....	401,276	$16,987,843	$805,376
MANUFACTURES.				
Domestic Spirits,.....gallons	791,200	3,956	$186,412	$8,868
Leather,..... pounds	2,270,000	1,135	483,401	1,206
Furniture,..... "	16,866,000	8,433	1,740,313	15,392
Bar and Pig lead,..... "	1,568,000	784	55,836	1,132
Pig iron,..... "	14,628,000	7,314	221,890	6,600
Iron ware,..... "	8,264,000	4,132	347,414	6,549
Domestic Woollens,..... "	576,000	288	550,675	360
Domestic Cottons,..... "	1,442,000	721	435,213	976
Salt,.....barrels,	481,366	72,205	414,135	29,528
Total manufactures,.....	.....	98,968	$4,435,289	$70,611
Merchandise,.....pounds	202,892,000	101,446	$30,042,153	$393,875
Other Articles.				
Stone, lime, and clay,.....pounds	96,220,000	48,110	$177,217	$9,430
Gypsum,..... "	47,750,000	23,875	83,345	6,843
Mineral coal,..... "	53,466,000	26,733	106,008	18,101
Sundries,..... "	63,852,000	31,926	2,227,534	67,466
Total other articles,.....	.....	130,644	$2,594,104	$101,840
Grand total,.....	.....	1,236,931	$60,016,608	$1,749,196

The foregoing embraces the merchandise and all other articles going from, as well as the products coming to tide water.

The following table gives the total tonnage of all the property transported on the New York canals, ascending and descending, its value, and the amount of tolls collected for six years, from 1836 to 1842, inclusive:—

Year.	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Tolls.*
1836,.....	1,310,807	$67,634,343	$1,614,342 46
1837,.....	1,171,296	55,809,288	1,292,623 38
1838,.....	1,333,011	65,746,559	1,590,911 07
1839,.....	1,435,713	73,399,764	1,616,382 02
1840,.....	1,416,046	66,303,892	1,775,747 57
1841,.....	1,521,661	92,202,929	2,034,882 82
1842,.....	1,236,931	60,016,608	1,749,196 00

The total tons coming to tide water, for each of the last nine years, from 1834 to 1842, and the aggregate value thereof in market, was as follows, viz:—

Year.	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Year.*	*Tons.*	*Value.*
1834,.....	553,596	$13,405,022 00	1839,.....	602,128	$20,163,199 00
1835,.....	753,191	20,525,446 00	1840,.....	669,012	23,213,573 00
1836,.....	696,347	26,932,470 00	1841,.....	774,334	27,225,322 00
1837,.....	611,781	21,822,354 00	1842,.....	666,626	22,751,013 00
1838,.....	640,481	23,038,510 00			

The following statement shows the whole quantity of wheat and flour that came to the Hudson river, from 1834 to 1842, inclusive, with the aggregate market value of the same, and the amount of tolls received on all the wheat and flour transported on the canals in each year, from 1837 to 1842, inclusive:—

Year.	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Tolls.*	*Year.*	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Tolls.*
1834,...	130,452	$5,719,795	Not asc'd.	1839,...	124,683	$7,217,841	$404,525
1835,...	128,552	7,395,939	"	1840,...	244,862	10,362,862	700,071
1836,...	124,982	9,796,540	"	1841,...	201,360	10,165,355	621,046
1837,...	116,491	9,640,156	$301,739	1842,...	198,231	9,284,778	606,727
1838,...	133,080	9,883,586	380,161				

The number of tons going from tide water in 1842, is as follows, viz:—

Cleared at—	*Merchandise.* *Tons.*	*Furniture.* *Tons.*	*Other art's.* *Tons.*	*Total.* *Tons.*
Albany,.....	43,678	2,502	13,513	59,693
West Troy,.....	50,106	865	11,681	62,652
Schenectady,.....	429	216	304	949
Total,.....	94,213	3,583	25,498	123,294

The number of tons coming to tide water in 1842, is as follows, viz:—

Arrived at—	*Erie canal.* *Tons.*	*Champlain canal.* *Tons.*	*Total.* *Tons.*
Albany,.....	309,790	103,330	413,120
West Troy,.....	166,293	83,147	249,440
Schenectady,.....	170	.....	170
Waterford,.....	.....	3,896	3,896
Total,.....	476,253	190,373	666,626
Add the number of tons going from tide water,.....			123,294
Total number of tons ascending and descending,.....			789,920

It will be noticed by the above tables, that there is a decrease of merchandise going up the canals of 38,628 tons, and a decrease in the quan-

tity of other articles of 793 tons, making a total decrease in the ascending tons, comparing 1841 with 1842, of 39,421 tons.

The tons coming to tide water have decreased 107,708, comparing the present with the preceding year.

The merchandise cleared at Albany, West Troy, and Schenectady, in 1842, (94,213 tons) was left on the several canals, in the following proportions, viz:—

On the Erie canal,	tons	59,925	On the Crooked Lake canal,	tons	1,137
" Champlain canal,	"	10,395	" Chenango canal,	"	3,082
" Oswego canal,	"	9,245	" Genesee Valley canal,	"	2,459
" Cayuga & Seneca can.	"	6,760			
" Chemung canal,	"	1,210	Total,	"	94,213

Large quantities of the products of the western states, pass over the canals of New York, by way of Buffalo, Black Rock, Oswego, &c. The following is a statement of the tons and different classes of property, as products of the forest, agriculture, manufactures, &c., coming from other states and shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock, during the last six years, from 1836 to 1842, inclusive:—

Year.	*Products of the Forest.*	*Agriculture.*	*Manufact's.*	*Other art's.*	*Total.*
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
1836,	3,755	31,761	641	116	36,273
1837,	7,104	34,196	454	475	42,229
1838,	4,615	62,568	489	515	68,187
1839,	22,835	66,649	801	438	90,723
1840,	18,133	105,251	1,200	955	125,530
1841,	35,126	139,180	3,696	1,535	179,537
1842,	26,229	148,798	2,632	1,778	179,437

Tons of property coming from other states, by way of Oswego:—

Year.	*Products of the Forest.*	*Agriculture.*	*Manufact's.*	*Other art's.*	*Total.*
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
1836,	1,645	4,708	13	49	6,415
1837,	533	5,929	17	126	6,605
1838,	4,616	3,132	11	15	7,774
1839,	5,809	4,567	.....	419	10,795
1840,	3,108	3,319	67	85	6,579
1841,	10,272	3,606	6	104	13,988
1842,	4,840	4,277	27	73	9,217

The tons of wheat and flour shipped at Buffalo and Oswego, from the year 1835 to 1842, and at Black Rock, from 1839 to 1842, inclusive, and the total tons of wheat and flour which arrived at the Hudson river, were as follows:—

Year.	*Buffalo.*	*Black Rock.*	*Oswego.*	*Total.*	*Tot. tons arr. at tide water.*
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	
1835,	15,935	.....	14,888	30,823	128,552
1836,	24,154	.....	13,591	37,745	124,982
1837,	27,206	.....	7,429	34,635	116,491
1838,	57,977	.....	10,010	67,987	133,080
1839,	60,082	7,697	15,108	82,887	124,683
1840,	95,573	12,825	15,075	123,473	244,862
1841,	106,271	24,843	16,677	147,791	201,360
1842,	107,522	13,035	14,338	134,895	198,231

The following is a statement of the quantity of merchandise and furni-

ture going to other states, by the way of Buffalo, from 1834 to 1842, inclusive :—

Year.	*Merchandise.* Tons.	*Furniture.* Tons.	*Year.*	*Merchandise.* Tons.	*Furniture.* Tons.
1834,.....	17,401	4,149	1839,.....	29,699	2,188
1835,.....	18,466	4,674	1840,.....	18,863	1,600
1836,.....	30,874	4,935	1841,.....	25,551	1,047
1837,.....	22,229	5,338	1842,.....	20,525	2,372
1838,.....	32,087	3,500			

The merchandise and furniture going to other states by the way of Buffalo, during the year 1842, was distributed as follows, viz :—

States, &c.	*Merch'dise.* Tons.	*Furnit'e.* Tons.	*States, &c.*	*Merch'dise.* Tons.	*Furnit'e.* Tons.
Pennsylvania,.....	539	28	Missouri,.....	14	7
Ohio,.....	10,038	619	Wisconsin,.....	1,410	575
Indiana,.....	785	42	Iowa,.....	4	3
Michigan,.....	4,915	618	Upper Canada,.....	29	49
Illinois,.....	2,490	429			
Kentucky,.....	295	1	Total,.....	20,525	2,372
Tennessee,.....	6	1			

The following table has been compiled from the returns of the collector at Buffalo, and shows the quantity of wheat, flour, beef, and pork, and pot and pearl ashes, coming from other states, and cleared at that office on the Erie canal, during the year 1842 :—

From—	*Wheat.* Bushels.	*Flour.* Barrels.	*Beef & Pork.* Barrels.	*Pot and Pearl ash.* Barrels.
Pennsylvania,.....	.....	1,274	312	590
Ohio,.....	707,352	443,358	35,638	10,277
Michigan,.....	103,669	186,468	7,617	3,689
Indiana,.....	77,442	11,038	4,069	43
Illinois,.....	329,624	7,254	9,035	55
Wisconsin,.....	8,848	462	653	69
Total,.....	1,226,935	649,854	57,324	14,723

The tonnage of the canals, whether in boats or rafts, having reference to its source, naturally falls under the following five general heads of classification :—1st. The products of the forest. 2d. Agriculture. 3d. Manufactures. 4th. Merchandise. 5th. Other articles.

In reference to this division of the commerce of the canals, we give the following statements from the report of the commissioners, who viewed it, as not without interest to institute a comparison, for a series of years, of the tons, value, and tolls of each head of transportation, above given, in view of ascertaining the increase or diminution of the tons, value, or tolls, of the different classes of articles, as well as the increase or diminution of the tons, value, or tolls of the total movement. The tons classified as above of the *total movement* on all the canals, from 1836 to 1842, is as follows :—

Year.	*Prod. of the Forest.* Tons.	*Agricul-ture.* Tons.	*Manu-fact's.* Tons.	*Merch'n-dise.* Tons.	*Other Articles.* Tons.	*Total.* Tons.
1836,.....	755,252	225,747	88,810	127,895	113,103	1,310,807
1837,.....	618,741	208,043	81,735	94,777	168,000	1,171,296
1838,.....	665,089	255,227	101,526	124,290	186,879	1,333,011
1839,.....	667,581	266,052	111,968	132,286	257,826	1,435,713
1840,.....	587,647	393,780	100,367	112,021	222,231	1,416,046

Year.	*Prod. of the Forest.* Tons.	*Agricul-ture.* Tons.	*Manu-fact's.* Tons.	*Merch'n-dise.* Tons.	*Other Articles.* Tons.	*Total.* Tons.
1841,.....	645,548	391,905	127,896	141,054	215,258	1,521,661
1842,.....	504,597	401,276	98,968	101,446	130,644	1,236,931
Total for 7 years,.....	4,444,455	2,142,030	711,270	833,769	1,293,941	9,425,465
Yearly average for 7 yrs.,.	634,922	306,004	101,610	119,109	184,848	1,346,495
Per cent of each class,....	47.15	22.72	7.55	8.85	13.73	100.
Annual aver. from 1836 to 1839, both yrs. inclusive,	676,666	238,767	96,010	119,812	181,452	1,312,707
Annual aver. from 1840 to 1842, both yrs. inclusive,	579,264	395,654	109,077	118,174	189,377	1,391,546

The particular articles which are classed as "other articles," in the foregoing statement, are as follows:—

Year.	*Stone, lime, and clay.* Tons.	*Gypsum.* Tons.	*Mineral coal.* Tons.	*Sundries.* Tons.	*Total.* Tons.
1836,.....	58,820	24,577	6,258	23,448	113,103
1837,.....	112,640	23,983	7,012	24,365	168,000
1838,.....	132,295	23,153	7,325	24,106	186,879
1839,.....	192,540	30,669	8,410	26,207	257,826
1840,.....	165,307	22,991	10,416	23,517	222,231
1841,.....	130,310	30,886	24,697	29,365	215,258
1842,.....	48,110	23,875	26,733	31,926	130,644

The annual average of the *total movement* in tons from 1840 to 1842, is seen to be.....	1,391,546
From 1836 to 1839, do.....	1,312,707
Increase in the last three years,.....tons,	78,839

Or two per cent annually.

The average increase or decrease of *each class* of articles for the same period, which results in the above total increase, is as follows:—

Class of Articles.	*Decrease. Tons.*	*Increase. Tons.*
Products of the forest,.....	97,402	
Agriculture,.....	.....	156,887
Manufactures,.....	.....	13,067
Merchandise,.....	1,638	
Other articles,.....	.....	7,925
Total,.....	99,040	177,879
		99,040
Increase,....		78,839

The following results are the average decrease or increase of the tolls on each class of articles for the two periods, viz: from 1837 to 1839, both inclusive, three years, and from 1840 to 1842, both inclusive, three years:—

Class of Articles.	*Decrease. Tolls.*	*Increase. Tolls.*
Boats and passengers,.....	$18,978	.....
Products of the forest,.....	.....	$9,500
Agriculture,.....	.....	360,625
Manufactures,.....	.....	3,424
Merchandise,.....	21,126	.....
Other articles,.....	.....	21,913
Total,.....	$40,104	$395,462
		40,104
Increase,....		$355,358

The average of the tolls for each year of the two periods above given, is as follows:—

Annual average from 1840 to 1842, both inclusive,.....	$1,853,275
" " 1837 to 1839, "	1,497,917
Difference in the average of the two periods,.....	$355,358

Or about 7 per cent annually.

Thus it appears that, comparing the last three with the previous three years, while the average annual increase of the tolls is 7 per cent, the average annual increase of the total movement of tonnage, or of the matter which fills up the canals, is only 2 per cent. The reason for this is found in the fact that the forest, which for the last seven years has furnished 47 per cent of the tonnage, has contributed about 14 per cent of the tolls; and that agriculture, which has furnished but about 22 per cent of the tonnage, contributes now nearly 50 per cent of the tolls; and that while the tonnage of the forest decreases 2, that of agriculture increases 3. The reason for the small increase in the *tolls* on the products of the forest, while there is a decrease in the *tons*, may be that a less number of tons was transported a greater number of miles, the natural consequence of a supply which must continue in every locality to be in an inverse ratio to the demand. The diminution of about $20,000 in the tolls on "boats and passengers," is mainly, if not wholly, on passengers alone, the toll on the passengers having been reduced, in 1841, from two mills per mile to one mill per mile on each person carried on board of packet or freight boats.

The annual average of the total *tons arrived at the Hudson river*, is as follows:—

From 1840 to 1842, three years,.....	tons,	678,025
" 1835 to 1839, four years,.....	"	675,449
Increase in the last four years,.....	"	2,576

Or about $\frac{11}{100}$ of one per cent per annum.

The average increase or decrease of *each class* of articles, for the same period, is as follows:—

Class of Articles.	*Decrease. Tons.*	*Increase. Tons.*
Products of the forest,.....	82,440	.....
Agriculture,.....	.....	87,998
Manufactures,.....	.....	2,693

Class of Articles.	*Decrease. Tons.*	*Increase. Tons.*
Merchandise,.....	752	.....
Other articles,.....	4,923	.....
Total,.....	88,115	90,691
		88,115
Increase,....		2,576

That portion of the Erie canal over which the largest volume of tonnage passes, and which of course requires the largest capacity, is between Utica and the Hudson river. It is over this portion of the canal that most of the tonnage moves which reaches tide water.

It is seen that of this tonnage, the forest furnishes about 60 and agriculture about 31½ per cent, in all 91½; that the forest decreases and agriculture increases in nearly the same proportion, keeping the tonnage just about stationary, the annual average of the last four years, being 675,449 tons, and the annual average of the last eight years, being but 676,736 tons.

One ton of the products of agriculture pays about four times as much toll as one ton of the products of the forest; and it is shown in a preceding statement, that by the change of the character of the tonnage from the "forest" to "agriculture," without any change in the rates of toll, and with an addition of only $\frac{11}{100}$ of one per cent per annum to the tonnage arriving at tide water, there is an average absolute addition to the tolls in the last three years of $355,000.

Another evidence of the course of the tonnage between Utica and Albany is furnished by the lockages at Alexander's lock, the first lock west of Schenectady, and which passes more tonnage than any other lock on the canals. The lockages in the last eight years have been as follows:—

1835.....	25,798	1839.....	24,234
1836.....	25,516	1840.....	26,987
1837.....	21,055	1841.....	30,320
1838.....	25,962	1842.....	22,869

Annual average from 1839 to 1842, four years,.....	26,102
" " 1835 to 1838, "	24,583
Increase,..	1,519

Or equal to $1\frac{53}{100}$ per cent per annum.

The average of the up tonnage for the preceding eight years, is to the down tonnage, about as 1 to 5. As the up tonnage is merchandise, mainly, and the down tonnage is principally the product of the forest and of agriculture, it is not probable the former will ever equal the latter.

The thoroughfare of the Erie canal, or that portion of it over which the largest number of tons passes and which of course demands the largest capacity, is between Utica and Albany. The condition of the tonnage on that section during the last ten years, may be judged from the number of boats which arrived at and cleared from Albany and Troy. They were as follows:—

In 1833.....	31,460	In 1838.....	32,120
1834.....	32,438	1839.....	31,882
1835.....	36,690	1840.....	30,456
1836.....	34,190	1841.....	33,782
1837.....	31,082	1842.....	32,840

Annual average for first five years,..... 33,172
" " last " 32,216

Decrease,.. 956

Equal to a decrease in the last five years, of $\frac{59}{100}$ of one per cent per annum.

One ton of the products of agriculture pays more than four times as much toll as one ton of the products of the forest. The tons of the products of the forest which came to tide water in 1842, were 321,480, or about one-half the tonnage which came to tide water. If, hereafter, none of the products of the forest should reach tide water, and its place should be supplied by only 80,000 tons of the products of agriculture, the canal might lose nothing in tolls, and would get rid of 240,000 tons, or more than one-third of the tonnage arriving at tide water. Thus it will be seen that the tonnage may very sensibly diminish, and the tolls may, at the same time, and at the present rates, increase.

Owing to the internal demand of New York for bread-stuffs, consequent upon the increase of population, it is not probable that the delivery at tide water, of the surplus of wheat and flour, the *growth of New York*, will much, if any, exceed that of past years. The increased delivery at tide water for the last three years, doubtless has been, and that of future years probably will be, wholly of the growth of western states. And this increased delivery, it should be borne in mind, is not to be proportioned to the capacity of those states to produce, but to the demand for consumption at tide water on the Hudson river. This lengthened transportation of the products of agriculture, which pay nearly half the tolls, will thus increase the revenue much beyond the relative increase of the tons arriving at tide water.

That the increase of delivery of flour and wheat, at tide water, is the product of western states, is evidenced by the following statement:—

TONS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT FIRST CLEARED.

Year.	*Prod. of this State.*	*Prod. of western States.*	*Total tons first cleared.*	*Tons arriving at tide water.*
1836,.....	134,507	25,241	159,748	124,982
1837,.....	124,769	31,933	156,702	116,491
1838,.....	128,290	60,925	189,215	133,080
1839,.....	145,090	64,196	209,286	124,683
1840,.....	220,840	99,507	320,347	244,862
1841,.....	178,724	120,258	298,982	201,360
1842,.....	163,317	124,267	287,584	198,231

Thus it appears, comparing 1836 with 1842, that while the increased delivery at tide water of flour and wheat, is about 75,000 tons, the increase from western states is about 100,000 tons. It will be seen also that the products of this state, and the delivery at tide water in 1840, exceed that of either of the two subsequent years, while the product of western states steadily increases.

As the toll upon freight boats has been uniformly two cents per mile

upon each mile of the passage of each boat, for the last six years, the miles run in each year are shown by adding two cyphers to the total tolls of each year, as given in dollars, and dividing it by two, the rate of toll per mile. The results are as follows:—

In 1837,	number of miles run,	.....	5,566,950
1838,	" "	.....	6,126,800
1839,	" "	.....	5,785,850
1840,	" "	.....	5,953,300
1841,	" "	.....	7,103,550
1842,	" "	.....	6,173,200

The toll on packet boats was eight cents per mile in 1837, 1838, and 1839. In 1840, it was six cents, and in 1841 and 1842, five cents.

Taking the total toll of each year, adding two cyphers and taking the rate of toll for each year as a divisor, the results in miles are as follows:—

1837,	number of miles	run,	(toll	8	cents,)	.....	405,050
1838,	" "	"	"	8	"	.....	400,250
1839,	" "	"	"	8	"	.....	290,900
1840,	" "	"	"	6	"	.....	258,880
1841,	" "	"	"	5	"	.....	322,860
1842,	" "	"	"	5	"	.....	344,300

The total miles run in each year by all boats, is as follows:—

Year.	*Packets.*	*Freight Boats.*	*Total Miles.*
1837,.....	405,050	5,556,950	5,972,000
1838,.....	400,250	6,126,800	6,527,050
1839,.....	290,900	5,785,850	6,076,750
1840,.....	258,880	5,953,300	6,212,180
1841,.....	322,860	7,103,550	7,426,410
1842,.....	354,300	6,173,200	6,527,500

The annual average of the last three years, is.....		6,722,030
" first "		6,191,933
Increase,.....miles,		530,097

Or equal to an increase of $\frac{276}{100}$ per cent per annum.

The following is a statement of the toll on *all persons* carried on board of packets or freight boats in the last six years:—

Year.	Erie canal.	Champ'n canal.	Oswego canal.	Cay. and Sen. can.	Chem'g canal.	Crooked L. canal.	Chenan. canal.	Genesee Val. can.	Total.
1837,....	$47,829	$2,771	$835	$101	.....	$111	$96	.....	$51,765
1838,....	51,624	2,928	806	95	$16	117	313	.....	55,899
1839,....	43,230	2,606	1,496	123	54	28	186	.....	47,723
1840,....	46,353	2,060	1,652	130	15	42	105	$63	50,420
1841,....	18,904	891	1,207	42	10	1	42	197	21,294
1842,....	21,891	1,482	811	18	8	1	37	88	24,336

Previous to 1841, the toll was two mills per mile for the passage of each person. In 1841, the toll was reduced from two mills to one mill per mile, and the permission which had theretofore existed, allowing freight boats to commute for the tolls payable on passengers, by paying an additional toll of one cent and a half on each mile of the passage of the boat, was repealed. The consequence is seen to be a reduction in the toll from an average of over $50,000 in and preceding the year 1840, to an average of less than $23,000 in 1841 and 1842.

Art. V.—MISSOURI AND ITS RESOURCES.

Missouri is the second, in extent of territory, of the United States, Virginia being the first. It is situated between 36° and 40° 40′ north latitude, and 11° 45′ and 17° 30′ west longitude, bounded on the north by the Iowa territory, on the east by the Mississippi river, separating it from Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee, on the south by the State of Arkansas, and on the west by the Indian territory. Its permanent boundaries, as described by the constitution adopted in 1820, are as follows:—

Beginning in the middle of the Mississippi river, on the parallel of 36° north latitude; thence west along said parallel to the mouth of St. Francois river; thence up and following the course of that river, in the middle of the main channel thereof, to the parallel of 36° 30′; thence west along the same, to a point where the said parallel is intersected by a meridian line passing through the middle of the mouth of the Kansas river, where the same empties into the Missouri river; thence from the point aforesaid, north along the said meridian line, to the intersection of the parallel of latitude which passes through the rapids of the river Des Moines, making the said line correspond with the Indian boundary line; thence east from the point of intersection last aforesaid, along the said parallel of latitude to the middle of the channel of the main fork of the said river Des Moines; thence down along the middle of the main channel of the said river Des Moines to the mouth of the same, where it empties into the Mississippi river; thence due east to the middle of the main channel of the Mississippi river; thence down and following the course of the Mississippi river, in the middle of the main channel thereof, to the place of beginning.

Territory since acquired changes these boundaries, so as to take in all the territory embraced, by running a line from the northwestern corner of the state west, to the middle of the main channel of the Missouri river; thence down along the middle of the main channel thereof, to the mouth of the Kansas river, which constitutes what is called the Platte country.

Part of the territory on the north, is claimed by the Territory of Iowa, on the ground that the "rapids in the river Des Moines," mean the Des Moines rapids in the Mississippi, and not the rapids of the Des Moines river itself. The claim of Missouri is supported both by justice and common sense, and also by the general understanding of the people at the time of the adoption of the constitution, as to the meaning of the words, rapids of the river Des Moines.

The soil and climate of Missouri are capable of producing all the agricultural products of any of the states, with the exception of sugar from the cane. The face of the country is generally rolling, with the exception of the southeastern part of the state, which may be called hilly. All that part of the state north of Missouri river, and that south of the Missouri and west of the Gasconade, may be called rolling prairie, nearly the whole of which is capable of cultivation. That part of the state between the Gasconade and Mississippi rivers, may be called hilly, but it affords good grazing and abounds in mineral wealth. The soil generally, throughout the state, is deep and rich, produced by the decayed vegetable matter of centuries. Wherever the prairie fires are kept down, there springs up a thick underbrush, which, in a few years, is converted into a forest. Some parts of St. Louis county, which, a few years ago, were prairie, are now covered with timber, so that hardly any prairie can now be found in the

county. And so it is throughout the state. The country on the St. Francois river, which was formerly capable of cultivation, has, by the effects of the earthquake which destroyed New Madrid, become marshy, but it might again be capable of cultivation, by clearing out the St. Francois, and by draining; but at present, while so much good land is to be obtained at the government price, it would be unprofitable. There is no doubt, however, that this part of the country will, in the course of time, be all drained and cultivated. Timber is found in larger or smaller quantities throughout the state. The river bottoms throughout the state, are covered with a thick growth of cotton wood, oak, elm, ash, black and white walnut, hickory, &c. The head waters of the Gasconade are covered with a thick growth of the yellow pine, of which large quantities are sawed into lumber, and floated to market. The value of lumber produced, according to the census of 1840, in the state, was $70,355, of which Pulaski county furnished $25,300, and Cooper $10,580. The amount has more than doubled since that time, and the annual value produced for 1842, was at least $200,000. In 1840, 356 barrels of pitch, tar, &c., were produced.

The statistics of agriculture show that there were, in 1840—

Horses and mules 196,032, of which Boone county had the largest number, 8,753; Pike, 7,375; Callaway, 7,177.
Neat cattle . . 433,875, St. Louis 1st, 22,877; 2d, Cooper; 3d, Pike.
Sheep . . . . . 348,018, Clay 1st, 18,166; 2d, Pike; 3d, Callaway.
Swine . . . . . 1,271,161, Callaway 1st, 38,528; 2d, Boone; 3d, Lafayette.
Poultry, estimated value, $270,647.

The agricultural products of the state, are wheat, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, Indian corn, hops, potatoes, hay, hemp, flax, tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar, &c. According to the census, the number of bushels of the different kinds of grains, were—

						Value.
Wheat,	1,370,386	bush.	at 30	cents	p. bush.	$311,115
Barley,	9,801	"	50	"	"	4,900
Oats,	2,234,947	"	20	"	"	446,989
Rye,	68,608	"	20	"	"	13,721
Buckwheat,	15,318	"	20	"	"	3,065
Indian corn,	17,332,524	"	15	"	"	2,599,878
Potatoes,	783,768	"	15	"	"	117,665
Hops,	789	lbs.				
Wax,	56,461	"	25	"	lb.	14,165
Wool,	562,265	"	25	"	"	140,566
Hay,	49,083	tons	$10		p. ton	490,830
Hemp and flax,	18,010¾	"				
Tobacco,	9,067,913	lbs.	3	"	lb.	272,037
Rice,	50	"				
Cotton,	121,121	"	5	"	"	605,605
Silk cocoons,	70	"				
Sugar,	274,853	"	5	"	"	13,747
Dairy products,						100,432
Orchard "						90,878
Will,	22	gall's.				
Gardens, market						37,181
Nurseries and florists,						6,205

There are but few manufactories yet in Missouri, except those of more immediate importance, carried on with a small capital, and by few hands. Hardly any state, however, affords better opportunities for manufacturing. Nearly all the small rivers emptying into the Mississippi and Missouri, afford good water power, and some of them to an indefinite extent. The Gasconade, Niangua, a branch of the Osage, Platte, and Grand rivers, afford excellent mill sites. The upper and lower Niangua springs, are good mill streams, and the lower one is occupied by a company engaged in the manufacture of iron. Coal abounds in many parts of the state, and is obtained with little difficulty. According to the census, there are nine woollen manufactories in the state, six of which are in Calloway and three in Pike. The value of goods manufactured, was $13,750; number of persons employed, 13; capital invested, $5,100. There are no manufactories of cotton or silk. A large quantity of cotton, however, is used in family manufactures, a great deal of which is brought from the Ohio river, under the name of spun yarn, to make common domestic goods. The value of home made or family goods, in 1840, was $1,149,544. There are several manufactories of bale rope and bagging on the Missouri river, and two in St. Louis. The value of the produce of the mixed manufactures, in 1840, was $11,115; number of persons employed, 40; capital invested, $4,885. The whole of this was in Franklin county.

Hemp, which was but little attended to when the census was taken, is now extensively cultivated; and if the plan proposed by the general government, of procuring all the articles for the use of the navy, from our own country, should be carried into effect, there is no doubt that Missouri will produce a large quantity of hemp for this purpose. The soil and climate are well adapted to the cultivation, both of hemp and flax; and as our farmers acquire experience, they will raise and prepare an article of the best quality. Several machines, for the purpose of cleaning and preparing hemp, have lately been invented; and if the manufacture is encouraged, we shall be able to furnish it at a much cheaper rate than it can be imported. Flax can also be cultivated for the purpose of manufacturing linen, which would be of great advantage to the state and the community, in general, as we should supply ourselves as far as possible. The value of hats and caps manufactured, was $111,620; straw bonnets, $100; capital invested, $30,195; number of persons employed, 82.

The number of tanneries, was 155; sides of sole leather tanned, 31,959; sides of upper leather, 55,186; number of men employed, 325; capital invested, $208,936. The other manufactories of leather, saddlery, &c., 340; value of manufactured articles, $298,345; capital invested, $179,527.

Soap and candles were manufactured only in St. Louis. The number of pounds of soap manufactured, 138,000; the number of pounds of tallow candles, 243,000; number of men employed, 15; capital invested, $16,700.

The number of distilleries, 293; gallons produced, 508,368; number of breweries, 7; number of gallons produced, 374,700; number of men employed, 365; capital invested, $189,976.

Powder mills, 1; pounds of gunpowder made, 7,500; men employed, 2; capital invested, $1,050.

	Value produced.	*Men employed.*	*Capital invested.*	*No. of factories.*
Drugs, &c.	$13,500	8	$7,000	..
Earthenware,	12,175	33	7,250	12

	Value produced.	*Men employed.*	*Capital invested.*	*No. of factories.*
Confectionary,	$1,000	1	$500	1
Cordage,	98,490	139	71,589	21 ropew'ks.
Musical instrum'ts,	500	2	50	...
Carriages, &c.,	97,112	201	45,074	...
Flouring mills,	960,058	1,326	1,269,019	64
Grist "				636
Saw "				393
Oil "				9

Daily newspapers, 26; weekly, 24; semi and tri-weekly, 5.

Brick and stone houses built, 413; wooden houses, 2,202; men employed, 1,966; cost of building, $1,441,573.

Value of all other manufactures not enumerated, $230,083; capital invested, $282,965; total capital invested in manufactures, $2,704,405.

The value of skins and furs obtained, amounted to $373,121; but in this is included the value of those obtained by the fur traders of St. Louis, which amounted to $306,300, nearly the whole of which is the product of the territories north, west and north, as far as the Rocky mountains, and even as far as the Columbia river.

The number of men employed in the manufacture of machinery, was 191; and the value produced, amounted to $190,412.

The number of small arms manufactured was 950, and the number of men employed in the manufacture was 48. The value of manufacture of the precious metals, was $5,450; number of men employed, 12. Value of other metals manufactured, $60,300; men employed, 72. The value of stone, marble, &c., manufactured, $32,050; men employed, 73. Value of bricks and lime, $185,234; men employed, 671.

These statistics are all under, rather than over the truth; and the value much greater than that assigned. Many things are entirely omitted, for instance, furniture, in which a large capital is employed in St. Louis, and many men engaged. Tobacco and hemp will, in all probability, become the staple articles of export products of Missouri, as the soil and climate are well suited to their production. The number of pounds produced in 1840, according to the census, was 9,067,913, which, estimating the hogshead at 1,400 lbs., would make 6,477 hhds. The crop for 1841, was about 9,000 hhds. of which 8,500 passed St. Louis. The following estimate, taken from the St. Louis Republican, will show the different quality and estimated value for 1841:—

2,000 hhds.,	Strips	worth in	Europe	$175=$350,000
2,500 "	1sts.	"	New Orleans	130= 300,000
2,500 "	2ds.	"	"	70= 175,000
1,500 "	⋈	"	"	50= 75,000
500 "	Bull's eye	"	"	25= 12,500
			Total value,	$912,500

The crop for 1842 is estimated at 15,000 hhds., but the prices have fallen off from that of 1841. These estimates are made by a house who took out an open policy of insurance on tobacco for $500,000. The crop of 1843 is estimated at 20,000 hhds. More than 5,000 hhds. were inspected at the tobacco inspection warehouse the past year, although the

inspection had been established but little over a year. Strips are not included in this, as they are mostly shipped directly to Europe. A large quantity of chewing tobacco is manufactured in the state, some of which, manufactured in St. Louis by T. Campbell, a little age being given it, is equal to any of Jesse Hares, or Langham & Armisteds. The capital invested in this manufacture, in 1840, was $51,755; number of men employed, 188; value produced, $89,996. Since that time, however, it has more than doubled.

Wheat, grain, pork, bacon, &c., which were imported into the state, a few years ago, from the Ohio river, are now extensive articles of export to the south and east; and the St. Louis flour takes a high stand in the eastern market. In 1841, 80,000 bushels of wheat, and 110,000 barrels of flour, were shipped from St. Louis to New Orleans, worth in St. Louis, at the time, $610,000.

In mineral wealth, probably no state of the Union excels Missouri. Iron, lead, copper, coal, &c., are found in inexhaustible quantities. Salt springs are found in almost all parts of the state; and while boring for salt water, in Marion county, a layer of rock salt of 60 feet in thickness was found, which, on trial, was fit for the table. Silver is sometimes found in the galena or lead ore, but not enough to make it profitable working. One or two specimens of virgin gold have been found, but where they came from we cannot say.

Iron and lead are the two principal minerals. The latter has been procured since the first settlement of the state; the former, except for domestic purposes, has not been sought for until within the last few years. Iron is found in many different counties; in some of those on the Osage and Niangua rivers, in Crawford, New Madrid, St. Charles, St. Francois, St. Genevieve, Stoddard, and Washington. The principal works for the smelting and preparation of iron, are in Crawford and Washington. In 1840, there were in Crawford county, 1 furnace, 3 bloomeries and forges, producing 50 tons of bar iron, and consuming 300 tons of fuel, employing 50 men, with a capital of $75,000. The manufacture has much increased since that time, but the amount produced is not known. In Washington county there was, in 1840, 1 furnace producing 180 tons, 1 forge producing 68 tons of bar iron, employing 30 men, with a capital invested of $4,000.

Massie's iron works, in Crawford county, have been in operation for many years, and produce a metal of most excellent quality. This establishment is situated on one of the principal branches of the Maramec, near the head spring, which deserves the name of a river where it bursts out of the earth.

In Washington county, there is a vein of micaceous oxide of iron, yielding about 75 per cent of fine iron, and to an indefinite amount. It is 500 feet broad from east to west, and 1,900 in the other direction, when it disappears beneath the soil. Connected with this locality, is found a great deal of hematite, or bog iron ore. An instance of this is found on the Castor, a branch of the St. Francois river, where it is said to lie in such masses as to be used for building mill dams. In Washington and Madison counties may be found the most remarkable localities of iron in the world, being what may be fairly called mountains of iron. The Iron mountain, in Washington county, is about 1 mile broad at the base, 400 feet high, and 3 miles long, and has the appearance of being composed of

masses of iron ore. It is literally a mountain of magnetic iron ore, so pure, that it yields from 70 to 80 per cent of metal under the ordinary process for converting ore into malleable iron. At the base, the ore lies in pieces from a pound weight upward, but increase in size as you ascend, until they assume the appearance of huge rocks, which would remind the beholder of those "fragments of an earlier world" of which the Titans made use. Six miles south, in Madison county, is another mountain called the Pilot Knob, composed of a micaceous oxide of iron, lying in huge masses. This ore will yield about 80 per cent of metal. A full description of the iron ore of these counties, and of the Iron mountain and Pilot Knob, will be found in No. — of "Silliman's Journal of Science," by Professor Shepherd, of Yale College.

In the days of speculation, some most extensive plans, connected with these mountains, were formed. A charter was obtained from the legislature, for the Missouri Iron Company, and the plan for a large city was laid out at the base of the Iron mountain; maps were drawn, with plenty of square miles upon them; colleges, both medical and literary, were sprinkled over the map with great profusion; a railroad ran from this large city on paper, to another large city on paper, located on the banks of the Mississippi, which was likewise on paper; another railroad ran to St. Louis, which had a real bona fide existence. All these speculations, however, fell to the ground, in the general crash that overtook all such plans. The cities, which were like a dandy's whiskers, extensively laid out but thinly settled, have now no existence. A charter for another company, has been obtained from the present legislature; and it is to be hoped that, as it tends to develop the resources of this large and growing state, that it will meet with a prosperous issue.

Lead is found in many different parts of the state. It is found in Cole, Franklin, Jefferson, Madison, St. Francois, St. Louis, Washington, and several other counties. The number of pounds produced in 1840, was 5,295,455, from 21 smelting houses, employing 252 hands, with a capital of $235,806. Of this, Washington county produced 1,107,000 lbs.; St. Francois, 1,155,000 lbs.; Madison, 1,263,455 lbs. Some lead is also found on the Osage; how much has been shipped from there is not known. The amount of lead produced from the United States lead mines, in this state, from 1825 to 1835, when the superintendence was transferred to the War Department, was as follows:—

In the year ending	September	30th,	1825,	lbs.,	386,500
"	"	"	1826,	"	1,374,962
"	"	"	1827,	"	910,380
"	"	"	1828,	"	1,205,920
"	"	"	1829,	"	1,198,160
"	"	"	1830,	"	8,060
"	"	"	1831,	"	67,180
			Total,		5,151,252

Washington county is one of the most productive in this mineral; in fact, the whole may be called one large lead mine. The ore, by the former process of smelting, yielded from 65 to 70 per cent, but much of the metal was wasted; while, by the present method, at least 80 per cent is

procured. In fact, Missouri, if required, could supply the whole country, and we might almost say the world, with lead.

Copper is also found to a considerable extent, in several counties, although it has been worked but to a small extent until within the last few years. There are several furnaces now engaged in smelting copper at the present time. Madison county produced, in 1840, 150,000 lbs. of copper ore, and the quantity has much increased since that time. This ore is found in Madison, Washington, Wayne, St. Genevieve, St. Francois, and several other counties, though in smaller quantities. The copper made in this state is said to be of an excellent quality, and free from foreign matter.

Bituminous coal is found in St. Louis, St. Charles, Pulaski, Gasconade, Cole, Chariton, Salina, Howard, Cooper, Boone, Lafayette, and in almost all the counties in the state. No anthracite coal has, as yet, been found in the state, and in all probability never will be. A mine of coal has lately been opened in Cole county, near the Osage river, which is said very much to resemble the cannel coal of England. It is very light, black, no lustre, and looks almost like pure bitumen. When you find a good specimen, it may be lighted in the flame of a candle, when it will burn until it is consumed. If this can be procured in sufficient quantities, it will be very valuable, as it is an excellent coal for furnaces, and for manufacturing purposes generally. The coal formation is supposed to underlie nearly the whole state. The number of bushels raised in 1840, was 249,302, giving employment to 69 men, and with a capital invested of $9,488. Of this quantity, St. Louis raised 233,000 bushels. Sufficient coal can be produced for nearly all manufacturing purposes.

Salt springs are found in nearly all parts of the state, but, as yet, little is manufactured. Cooper, Howard, Randolph, and Salina, are the only counties that show any return by the census. The number of bushels produced was 13,150, giving employment to 36 hands, with a capital invested of $3,550. Enough salt could be made in the state to supply all its wants, if capital and industry were applied to its production. The vicinity of Salt river abounds with mineral springs, which produce salt of an excellent quality.

Marbles are found in many different parts of the state. Some of them possess great beauty, with veins of different colors—red, green, blue—and some of them almost deserve the name of verd antique. They are generally of a highly crystalline character, containing, frequently, crystals of carbonate of lime, of some size. There is a quarry of marble, a few miles south of St. Louis, which is very beautiful, and well suited for mantel-pieces, center-tables, and the like. Marbles are also found on the Osage and Niangua rivers, in the counties of Howard, St. Francois, and St. Charles.

Saltpetre is found in caverns on the banks of the Maramec, Current, and Gasconade rivers. Sulphate of barytes, or heavy spar, is found at the lead diggings, in Washington, Jefferson, and St. Francois counties. Plaster of Paris is found in the cliffs, on the banks of the Kansas river. Potters' clay and fullers' earth, are also found. Specimens of antimony, manganese, and zinc, are also found. The latter is found as a sulphuret, at the lead mines, in Washington, Jefferson, and St. Francois counties. It exists in considerable quantities, and may hereafter be found worth working.

The commerce of this state is, for a state so very young, very extensive. There are 3 houses engaged in foreign trade, and 39 commission

houses, with a capital of $746,500. The retail drygoods, grocery, and other stores, number 1,107, with a capital of $8,158,802. The number of men employed were 345. The number of men employed in internal transportation, 79. Butchers, packers, &c., 128, with a capital of $173,650. Hardly any interior state of the Union possesses greater advantages than Missouri. Its whole eastern border is washed by the great father of waters, while the muddy Missouri rushes madly through the interior, bisecting the state, and furnishing the means of navigation for more than a thousand miles from its mouth. Several of the branches of the Missouri can be made navigable at a small expense. The Osage is navigable for boats of a light draught, for about 200 miles, at high water; and a few locks and dams would render it navigable at all seasons of the year. The Grand river, on the north, can also be improved. In 1839 and 1840, surveys were made by order of the state, and estimates made for a scheme of internal improvements. It was proposed to improve the North, Grand, Osage, Salt, and Maramec rivers, and to build a railroad from the city of St. Louis to the Iron mountain. Nothing, however, has as yet been done, as the state was unwilling to embarrass herself with a heavy debt for internal improvements, in times of such pecuniary pressure. In this, experience shows that she has acted wisely. While other states are loaded with debts, which it will require years to pay, Missouri is comparatively clear of debt; and if times should improve, and the country become prosperous, she can then undertake works of internal improvement, with the hope of carrying them through. At present, she "bides her time."

The estimates made of the cost of the Osage improvement, were		$204,600
"	for Grand river,	19,787
"	Salt "	399,080
"	Maramec, (with a canal,)	3,440,000
"	Iron mountain railroad,	2,942,723

The Osage and Grand river improvements, will be those first made. That of the Osage is important, as it waters a large and fertile territory, producing heavy crops of wheat, tobacco and hemp, and is capable of supplying large quantities of beef and pork. The engineer estimated that the improvement of this river would save the people residing within the district of territory it waters, $329,594 annually.

The total population of Missouri, according to the census, was 383,702; of which 58,240 were slaves, 1,574 free colored, the rest white inhabitants.

White males,	173,470	; free colored males,	883	; slaves, males,	28,742
" fem's,	150,418	" fem's,	691	" fem's,	29,498
Total,	323,888		1,514		58,240

Of this population, 742 are employed in mining, 92,408 in agriculture, 2,522 in commerce, 11,100 in manufactures and trades, 39 in navigating the ocean, 1,885 in navigating the rivers, and 1,469 in the learned professions and engineering.

Of the deaf and dumb, there are whites 126, blacks 27. Blind whites 82, blacks 42. Insane and idiots at public charge, whites 42, blacks 50; at private charge, whites 160, blacks 18.

The number of pensioners, for revolutionary and military services, was

122. The subject of education has not as yet received that attention it demands. If colleges and universities were all that is required, it might do, as there are no less than six in the state, which is five too many. The State University was established several years ago, at Columbia, in Boone county; that having subscribed more for the purpose than any other in the state. It is to be hoped that party and sectarian feelings will never touch the sacred subject of education, but that all will unite in training the minds of the young, so that they may become good and industrious citizens. The total number of students, in colleges, was 495. Two medical schools have been established in St. Louis, within the past two years, which are quite prosperous, with an excellent faculty, and a large number of students. The number of academies and grammar-schools was 47, with 1,926 students; primary and common schools 642; students attending the same, 16,786. The number of scholars at public charge was 526; and the number of white persons, over twenty years of age, who cannot read and write, 19,457.

Many thriving towns have sprung up, within a few years, in this state, and which bid fair to become of some importance—situated on the banks of our large rivers, and shipping ports for large and fertile districts of country. Among these may be mentioned Hannibal, Booneville, Independence, Weston, Rocheport, and several others. St. Louis, however, is destined to be the largest city in the state; and, in all probability, will become the largest west of the Alleghanies, next to that of New Orleans. Any one who will glance at the map of the Mississippi and Missouri valleys, will see that its geographical position, and natural advantages, ensure this. Situated on the first bluff below the mouth of the Missouri, it is the first point, below that stream, that affords a good site for a city. The Mississippi, below this point, is navigable for boats of the largest class, at nearly all seasons of the year; some of which carry from eight hundred to a thousand tons of freight, down stream. Above this point, the rivers are shallower, so that freight, to be sent either up or down, must be here landed and reshipped. The Missouri, a few miles above, runs westwardly—navigable for steamboats for a thousand miles, draining one of the most fertile states of the Union. North, runs the Mississippi, to the Falls of St. Anthony, between the fertile and rapidly growing territories of Iowa and Wisconsin, and the state of Illinois. A few miles above the mouth of the Missouri, is the Illinois river, running for three hundred miles to the northeast, through the fertile state of Illinois. It is to be hoped that, in the course of a few years, a canal will unite this river with the waters of Lake Michigan; which will open the trade of the eastern part of Wisconsin, and western part of Michigan, to the markets of St. Louis. The trade of the whole of this part of country passes by St. Louis, and it is constantly increasing. Groceries of all kinds will seek this market, to be reshipped to the north, east, and west. Instances have been known of persons purchasing cigars and coffee in St. Louis, shipping them to Peru, on the Illinois, by steamboats, and waggoning thence to Chicago; and selling them there at lower prices than those brought from New York, by a continuous water navigation. From this point is shipped nearly all the lead produced at the mines in Illinois and Wisconsin.

The population of St. Louis, within the present city limits, is more than thirty thousand; when, by the census of 1840, it was but little above twenty-four thousand. The imports and exports, for 1841, exceeded

$30,000,000. From the 1st of January, 1841, to the 1st of January, 1842, the number of steamboats visiting St. Louis amounted to 1,928, with an aggregate tonnage of 262,281 tons. The number of boats, in 1842, was 2,050, with a tonnage of 302,698 tons.

The following, taken from the St. Louis New Era, shows the amount of produce received at the port of St. Louis, during the week ending February 2, 1843:—

"Tobacco, 106 hhds., 58 boxes, and 2,000 lbs.; Lead, 788 pigs; Flour, 4,068 bbls., 65 casks; Wheat, 4,267 bbls., 1,699 sacks; oats, 115 sacks; Corn, 44 sacks; Buckwheat Flour, 33 bbls.; Beans, 34 bbls.; Bacon, 179 casks, 13 boxes, 9,000 lbs.; Lard, 960 bbls., 784 kegs, 55 casks; Pork, 677 bbls.; Beef, 164 bbls.; Sausages, 127 kegs; Tallow, 32 bbls.; Hides, 315; Whiskey, 165 bbls.; Butter, 23 bbls., 48 kegs; Soap, 35 boxes; Honey, 8 bbls.; Ale, 50 bbls.; Green Apples, 65 bbls.; Onions, 6 bbls., 19 sacks; Dried Fruit, 20 bbls., 14 sacks; Bale Rope, 69 coils; Beeswax, 8 casks, 5 sacks, 1 bbl.; Flax-seed, 64 bbls.; Hemp-seed, 41 bbls.; Feathers, 18 sacks; Rags, 11 sacks; Furs, 10 bales; Lard Oil, 8 kegs, 15 bbls.; Peltries, 14 bales; Straw Brooms, 458 doz."

Within the same week, upwards of 9,000 barrels of flour went south; while, but a few years since, flour was an article of import from the Ohio river.

The commerce of St. Louis has hardly begun to develop itself. But, as the resources of the country, in all directions, are opening and increasing, year by year, it is but fair to presume, that the commerce of St. Louis will only be surpassed by that of New Orleans; unless her own citizens basely throw away the advantages nature has given her, or she be crushed by the jealousy of the legislators from the interior of the state.

Art. VI.—COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The Eleventh Annual Report made by the Board of Trade to the Coal Mining Association of Schuylkill county, in the month of February, 1843, a document abounding with statistical information, touching not only the coal trade of that region, but of the state and the country, together with other data at hand, will furnish the basis of the present notice of this important branch of our commercial resources.

The report alluded to reviews the coal operations of the past season, and, in connection, presents other subjects, which, from their intimate relation to the vital interests of the coal trade, deserve attention. It appears from this report, that the results of the operations of the last season have afforded no adequate remuneration to the industrious collier. Owing to the universal depression and embarrassment which has pervaded every other species of business, manifold difficulties and losses, incident to recent coal operations, have been experienced.

The expedient put forth by the governor of Pennsylvania, in his last annual message, for increasing the public revenue by the imposition of a tax on coal, is repudiated with a show of justice that cannot, we think, well be resisted or controverted. Against such an expedient, it is the duty of the friends of free trade, equal rights, and equal laws to remonstrate. On this head the Report of the Schuylkill Board of Trade takes ground as follows:—

"With due deference to the chief magistrate, we may assert that the proposition is fraught with inequality and injustice, in its consequences, both to the collier and consumer; and being based on unsound principles of political economy, directly tends to the destruction of the best interests of Pennsylvania. In support of these positions, the clearest evidence may be adduced from fixed principles and indisputable facts; whilst the reasons which have been urged in favor of this measure, carry no conviction to unprejudiced minds. The principal ground assumed by the advocates of the measure, is, that the commonwealth has expended large sums of money in the construction of public works for the benefit of the coal trade, and, therefore, this trade should be singled out as a special object of taxation, to relieve the pecuniary difficulties of the commonwealth. Unfortunately, however, for the validity of this argument, the assertion of expenditures, by the commonwealth, for the benefit of the coal trade, is without the slightest foundation in truth, so far as the same is applicable to the Schuylkill coal region. *Millions have been thus expended by individuals*, but not a dollar by the commonwealth. Extensive private and public improvements have been erected in this region, at an immense expenditure of individual capital, but without the slightest pecuniary assistance from the public treasury. By the exclusive efforts of individual capital and enterprise, those two great public improvements, the Schuylkill navigation and Philadelphia and Reading railroad, were projected and completed. Nor can we discover, in the midst of the numerous railroads which intersect our region for the transportation of our coal, a single foot constructed at the expense of the commonwealth. Individual enterprise and industry having thus reclaimed and enriched an extensive district of barren and uncultivated lands, constructing, at an immense outlay of private capital, all the existing facilities for the developments of its mineral resources, and, instead of deriving large profits from these expenditures, hitherto having only encountered ruinous losses, it may be asked, upon what principles of justice or expediency a coal tax can be recommended?

"The idea suggested, that this tax would fall chiefly upon the consumer at home, and in the neighboring states, is quite erroneous. It may be demonstrated, that the principal ultimate effect of such a tax would be, to depress to a still lower point the wages of labor. Neither the consumer in New York or Massachusetts, would quietly submit to taxation for the payment of the public debt of Pennsylvania. This principle, which lies at the root of the proposition, is repugnant to every feeling of common honesty, as well as sound policy. Regulations of trade, if these could be constitutionally effected to compel the citizens of other states to pay our debts, would be productive of severe measures of retaliation.

"As a preliminary step, by the citizens of these states, the repeal of the duty on the foreign article, in order to fill their wharves with Nova Scotia and English coal, to the exclusion of Pennsylvania coal, would be immediately insisted upon and probably accomplished. As the consumption of coal throughout the country would be diminished, because hundreds would give a preference to wood as a fuel, over coal, burdened with what they would deem to be unjust taxation, it follows, that the coal trade would sustain a blow from the spirit of resistance and hostility thus enkindled, both at home and abroad, that might result in its utter overthrow and prostration.

"The selection of the article of coal as a subject of taxation, would involve a principle of glaring injustice, supposing the tax to fall only upon

that class of our citizens interested in the mining and consumption of the article. Equality requires the same measure of taxation to all classes in similar circumstances; why, then, should the payment of an undue proportion of the state debt devolve upon a single class of citizens, interested in the coal district? Why not lay a tax upon some other products of land, or upon all other products of land, which, by reason of universal consumption, would produce greater equality of taxation? As coal lands are assessed at their full value, they contribute their full quota of taxes with other real estate, and there is surely no good reason why they should pay a greater proportion of taxes than any other lands of similar value in this commonwealth. And as the coal trade, from its earliest infancy, has been assailed with numerous projects of taxation, the injustice and impolicy of which have been repeatedly exposed and demonstrated, we confide in the wisdom and intelligence of the present representatives of the people, believing that, in imitation of their predecessors, they will stamp the measure with their disapprobation, as at war with the sacred rights of a large and meritorious class of citizens, and highly detrimental to the true interests of the state."

The amount of coal sent to market from the Pennsylvania mines, during the past year, will be seen by the following table:—

Schuylkill.	*Tons.*
By the canal,	491,602
By the Reading railroad,	49,290
Total,	540,892
Lehigh.	
Mauch Chunk,	163,762
Beaver Meadow,	45,422
Hazleton,	31,012
Sugar Loaf, &c.,	31,933
Lackawanna,	205,253
Pine Grove,	32,381
Shamokin,	10,000
Wilkesbarre,	47,346
Total,	1,108,001
Add remaining on hand the 1st of April, 1842,	100,000
Grand total,	1,208,001

From the above amount of 1,108,001 tons of coal, sent from the different coal districts during the season of 1842, it will be necessary to deduct the quantity sold along the different lines of improvements, to get accurately at the amount that went forward to shipping markets. Of the coal sent from the Schuylkill region, 34,619 tons were distributed along the line of canal and railroad.

The quantity of coal that reached Havre-de-Grace from the Pine Grove, Shamokin, and Wilkesbarre regions, was 47,267 tons, showing that 42,460 tons must have been sold along the lines of those improvements.

In the absence of official information, the quantity sold along the line of the Lehigh and Lackawanna improvements, may be set down at 75,000 tons, which, added to the quantity stated as being left on the other routes, will make up a total of 152,000 tons of coal that did not reach tide water; and by deducting this from the gross amount in the preceding table, we shall find there are 1,055,922 tons of anthracite coal, to supply the demand for the year ending on the 1st April, 1843.

The following table, which we have compiled from the United States census of 1840, exhibits the location of the coal regions, and the quantity of anthracite and bituminous produced in each state in 1839:—

States.	*Anth'cite.*	*Bitum'ous.*	*States.*	*Anth'cite.*	*Bitum'ous.*
New Hampshire,....	.....	29,920	Kentucky,.....	2,125	583,167
Rhode Island,.....	1,000	.....	Ohio,.....	296	3,513,409
Connecticut,.....	.....	38,000	Indiana,.....	.....	242,040
Pennsylvania,.....	859,686	11,620,654	Illinois,.....	132	424,187
Maryland,.....	.....	220,000	Missouri,.....	.....	249,302
Virginia,.....	200	10,622,345	Arkansas,.....	.....	5,500
North Carolina,.....	50	75	Iowa,.....	.....	10,000
Alabama,.....	.....	23,650			
Tennessee,.....	.....	13,942	Total,.....	863,498	27,603,191

The following table exhibits the quantity of coal shipped for the different mining regions of Pennsylvania, from the commencement of the trade, together with the annual amount of increase and consumption, and quantity remaining over unsold, and disposed of on the line of the canal:—

Year.	Schuylkill. Tons.	Lehigh. Tons.	Pine Grove. Tons.	Shamokin. Tons.	Wilkesbarre. Tons.	Lackawanna. Tons.	Aggregate. Tons.
1820,.....	.....	365	.....	.....	.....	.....	365
1821,.....	.....	1,073	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,073
1822,.....	.....	2,240	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,240
1823,.....	.....	5,523	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,523
1824,.....	.....	9,541	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,541
1825,.....	6,500	28,393	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,593
1826,.....	16,776	31,280	.....	.....	.....	.....	48,047
1827,.....	31,360	32,074	.....	.....	.....	.....	63,434
1828,.....	47,284	30,232	.....	.....	.....	.....	77,516
1829,.....	79,973	25,110	.....	.....	.....	7,000	112,083
1830,.....	89,984	41,750	.....	.....	.....	43,000	174,734
1831,.....	81,853	40,966	.....	.....	.....	54,000	176,520
1832,.....	209,271	70,000	.....	.....	.....	84,600	363,871
1833,.....	252,971	123,000	.....	.....	.....	111,777	487,748
1834,.....	226,692	106,244	.....	.....	.....	43,700	376,636
1835,.....	339,508	131,250	.....	.....	.....	90,000	560,758
1836,.....	432,045	146,522	.....	.....	.....	103,561	682,428
1837,.....	523,152	225,937	17,000	.....	.....	115,387	881,476
1838,.....	433,875	214,211	13,000	.....	.....	78,207	739,293
1839,.....	442,608	221,850	20,639	11,930	.....	122,300	819,327
1840,.....	452,291	225,288	23,860	15,505	.....	148,470	865,444
1841,.....	584,692	142,841	17,653	21,463	.....	192,270	958,899
1842,.....	540,892	272,129	32,381	10,000	47,346	205,253	1,108,001
Total,..	4,791,719	2,128,099	127,533	58,898	47,346	1,399,825	8,550,420

Table—Continued.

Year.	Annual Increase. Tons.	Consum'd. Tons.	Unsold April 1. Tons.	Sold on Canal. Tons.
1820,...	.....	.....	.....	.....
1821,...	708	.....	.....	.....
1822,...	1,167	.....	.....	.....
1823,...	3,598	.....	.....	.....
1824,...	3,718	.....	.....	.....
1825,...	25,352	.....	.....	.....
1826,...	13,154	.....	.....	3,154
1827,...	15,837	.....	.....	3,372
1828,...	14,082	.....	.....	3,322
1829,...	34,567	.....	.....	5,321
1830,...	62,651	.....	.....	6,150
1831,...	2,086	177,000	.....	10,048
1832,...	187,051	298,871	None.	13,429
1833,...	123,877	434,986	65,100	19,429
1834,...	Dec'se.	415,186	117,762	18,571
1835,...	184,122	635,935	79,212	17,863
1836,...	121,670	632,428	4,035	21,749
1837,...	199,048	680,441	54,035	28,775
1838,...	Dec'se.	788,968	255,070	30,390
1839,...	80,034	867,000	205,395	28,924
1840,...	46,087	973,136	157,622	41,223
1841,...	93,485	958,899	100,000	40,584
1842,...	149,102	.....	100,000	34,619

In the Report of the Board of Trade of Schuylkill county, made in the early part of 1842, sanguine anticipations were indulged of an entire consumption, during that year, of the coal then in market. "But, owing to the unprecedented warmth of the latter part of the winter, a large excess remained on hand on the 1st of April. This circumstance, in connection with the derangement of trade generally throughout the country, had the effect of keeping down the prices of coal so low, that, instead of a profit, there was generally a loss sustained by mining. Fair remunerating prices would be the result of a proper regulation of the supply. And, as an excess is injurious to the collier, and a deficiency prejudicial to the consumer, it is desirable that both extremes should be avoided."

There have been 126,554 tons of coal shipped during the past season from this region direct to New York, in 2,243 canal boats. This shows a very large increase over the shipments of the previous year, which only amounted to 78,296 tons. This direct trade to New York has rapidly grown into importance, and is destined to become a very important branch of the Pennsylvania coal trade.

The following comparative table, from the Miners' Journal, will show the quantity of coal imported into this country from 1821 to 1842, both years inclusive; also, the quantity of bituminous coal mined and shipped at Richmond, Virginia, and the anthracite coal trade of the United States for the same periods. The importation of foreign coal is official, from the Register of the Treasury:—

Year.	Foreign. Tons.	Virginia. Tons.	Anthracite. Tons.	Year.	Foreign. Tons.	Virginia. Tons.	Anthracite. Tons.
1821,.....	22,122	.....	1,073	1832,.....	72,987	117,878	363,871
1822,.....	34,523	48,214	2,240	1833,.....	92,432	142,587	487,748
1823,.....	30,433	39,255	5,823	1834,.....	91,626	110,714	376,636
1824,.....	27,228	59,857	9,541	1835,.....	49,969	96,438	560,758
1825,.....	25,645	59,571	34,893	1836,.....	108,432	110,714	682,428
1826,.....	35,605	79,143	48,047	1837,.....	152,450	100,000	881,479
1827,.....	40,257	75,643	63,434	1838,.....	129,083	96,428	739,293
1828,.....	32,303	89,357	77,516	1839,.....	181,521	85,714	819,327
1829,.....	45,393	83,357	112,083	1840,.....	162,867	78,571	865,414
1830,.....	58,136	91,786	174,734	1841,.....	155,394	71,071	958,899
1831,.....	36,509	93,143	176,520	1842,.....	103,247	68,750	1,108,001

As matter of importance to those engaged in the coal trade, we give a table, showing the periods at which the Schuylkill opened and closed, from 1834 to 1842, inclusive:—

When Opened.	*When Closed.*	*No. of Days open.*	*Remarks.*
1834—March 13.....	December 6.....	268.....	Closed by frost.
1835— " 24.....	November 28.....	250.....	" "
1836—April 6.....	December 10.....	248.....	" "
1837— " 1.....	" 9.....	253.....	" "
1838—March 25.....	November 28.....	248.....	" "
1839— " 29.....	" 30.....	247.....	" "
1840— " 16.....	December 5.....	265.....	" "
1841—May 15.....	" 14.....	213.....	" "
1842—March 10.....	November 28.....	263.....	" "

The following statistics of the comparative operations of the Lehigh and Schuylkill coal regions, are derived from the Miners' Journal, published at Pottsville:—

"Although we commenced mining coal for shipment in the Schuylkill region in 1825, five years later than the Lehigh, there has been 1,080,552 tons more sent to market from this region, than from all the other anthracite regions in the states combined. Thus:—

Total amount of coal sent to market from the Schuylkill region since the commencement of the trade, in 1825, to the close of navigation, December, 1842,	tons	4,791,719
Total amount sent to market from all other anthracite regions,	"	3,711,067
Excess in favor of Schuylkill region,	"	1,080,552

"During the last year also, the Schuylkill region furnished more than one-half the anthracite coal sent to market, as the following will show:—

Schuylkill region,	tons	540,890
All other regions,	"	519,763
Excess in favor of the Schuylkill region,	"	21,128

"In 1825, the amount of coal mined in the Schuylkill region was only 5,306 tons; in 1830, it had increased to 89,984; in 1835, to 335,685; and in 1842, to 540,890. At the same ratio of increase, there will be mined, in 1845, over *one million* of tons; and, in 1850, 1,750,000 tons.

"The magnitude of this trade well corresponds with the amount of capital invested in the different improvements of the region. Upwards of *four millions of dollars* have been invested in the following manner:—

65 miles of incorporated railroads.
40 " individual "
50 " " " under ground.
2000 railroad cars.
1500 drift cars.
17 collieries *below* water level, with steam engines, pumps, &c.
100 collieries *above* water level.
80 landings.
850 canal boats.
900 boat horses, &c.

"There are thirty-one steam engines in the county, including colliery engines, amounting to upwards of *one thousand horse power*. Twenty-three of these engines were manufactured in Schuylkill county.

"Previous to 1841, the horse power was only 350; during the last two years there was an addition of 370 horse power, making, in the aggregate, 720 horse power engaged in collieries."

The quantity of coal received in Boston, for the years 1837, 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, and 1842, including all kinds, anthracite, domestic, and foreign bituminous, was as follows:—

Year.	Anth'cite.	Domestic. Bitum.	Foreign. Bitum.	Year.	Anth'cite.	Domestic. Bitum.	Foreign. Bitum.
1837,.....tons	80,557	3,903	50,047	1840,.....tons	73,847	3,298	42,221
1838,..... "	71,364	5,986	31,765	1841,..... "	110,938	4,330	47,708
1839,..... "	90,485	5,159	39,658	1842,..... "	90,276	4,350	34,748

The anthracite coal, in 1842, was received from the following places:—

Philadelphia,.....	tons	76,604	Havre-de-Grace,.....	tons	1,561
Rondout,.....	"	8,917	Other places,.....	"	709
Kingston,.....	"	2,485			

The foreign coal, in 1842, was received from the following places:—

Places.	*Tons.*	*Chald.*	*Places.*	*Tons.*	*Chald.*
Liverpool,.....	2,070	.....	Cumberland,.....	.....	156
Newcastle,.....	7,518	1,288	Halifax,.....	.....	83
Hull,.....	690	.....	St. John,.....	.....	40
Glasgow,.....	666	.....	Dorchester,.....	.....	15
London,.....	70	.....			
Sidney,.....	.....	6,780	Total,.....	12,014	18,460
Picton,.....	.....	10,098			

Art. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

THE LATE SAMUEL WARD.*

The record of a good man's life, while it soothes the affections of all who loved and survive him, has the higher merit of encouraging the struggles and sustaining the virtue of those who, entering upon life with no other reliance than their own strong arms and resolute hearts, and honest principles, are cheered on their way by the example of success achieved and high character established, under like circumstances, by others.

It is a brief record of this sort, and not a eulogy, that is here attempted of the late Samuel Ward. The pompous funeral orations which commemorate the death of the great ones of the earth, too often, by the very exaggeration of their praise, mark a painful contrast between the actions of the man, and the votive offerings that decorate his tomb. The reader, while his taste is gratified by splendid perorations and his imagination is excited by brilliantly drawn pictures, yet feels his moral sense shocked at the discovery, that flattery stops not even at the grave; and although it cannot "sooth the dull, cold ear of death," that it yet finds profit in ministering to the vanity of the living.

Ours is a humbler and more honest task—that of satisfying the feelings of private friendship, while we adhere to the impartiality of unadorned narrative.

Mr. Ward was a native of Rhode Island, and sprang from a race illustrious in the annals of that renowned commonwealth. The founder of the family, Thomas Ward, of Gloucester, England, was a soldier in the armies of Cromwell, who, after the accession of Charles II., in 1660, retired to this country, and settled at Newport, Rhode Island. He married Amey Smith, a grand-daughter of Roger Williams, and left an only son, Richard, who was subsequently governor of Rhode Island. His sons, Thomas and Henry, were successively secretaries of the plantation for half a century, and his son Samuel was governor thereof for several years. Samuel was also a member of the continental congress from 1774 to March 1776, when he died at Philadelphia. Of this gentleman, old John Adams, a member of the same congress, thus wrote: "He was a gentleman in his manners, benevolent and amiable in his disposition, and as decided, ardent and uniform in his patriotism as any member of that congress. When he was seized with the small-pox, he said, that if his vote and voice were necessary to support the cause of his country, he should live; if not, he should die. He died, and the cause of his country was supported; but it lost one of its most sincere and punctual advocates. He was an ingenious man, and well informed."

Samuel, the son of this gentleman, and the father of the subject of our notice, early took part with his country against the oppression of England. At the breaking out of the revolutionary war he commanded a company, and was one of those who made the perilous march with Arnold, through the unbroken forests of New England, to Quebec. He was subsequently a lieutenant-colonel in the Rhode Island line, and served with distinction throughout the war. He was a gentleman and a scholar, and passed through a long life with unblemished reputation.

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* Originally written for the American Biographical Annual, by Charles King, Esq.

Samuel Ward, his son, was born 1st May, 1786, soon after which the family, in 1790, removed to this city. A narrow income and a large family prevented the father from gratifying the wish, early expressed by his son, for a collegiate education; and therefore, at the age of fourteen, having received only the ordinary instruction of an English school, he entered as a clerk in that banking-house of which he eventually became the head. In 1808, at the age of twenty-two, he was taken into partnership by Mr. Prime; and from that time till the period of his death, he continued an active and influential man of business.

Money was the commodity in which Mr. Ward dealt; and if, as is hardly to be disputed, money be the root of all evil, it is also, in hands that know how to use it worthily, the instrument of much good, There exists, undoubtedly, in regard to the trade in money, and respecting those engaged in it, many and absurd prejudices, inherited in part from ancient error, and fomented and kept alive by the jealousies of ignorance and indigence. It is, therefore, no small triumph to have lived down, as Mr. Ward did, this prejudice, and to have forced upon the community, in the midst of which he resided, and upon all brought into connexion with him, the conviction that commerce in money, like commerce in general, is, to a lofty spirit, lofty and ennobling; and is valued more for the power it confers, of promoting liberal and beneficent enterprises, and of conducing to the welfare and prosperity of society, than for the means of individual and selfish gratification or indulgence.

The incidents of such a career as that of Mr. Ward are necessarily few; and as he was of remarkably unobtrusive disposition, though of great firmness of purpose and well-settled notions of duty, the impress of his character upon those around and in contact with him, though sure and salutary, was yet silent and gradual.

Mr. Ward was married to Miss Cutler, in October, 1812—a lady of great beauty and fine understanding. The years of his married life, though few and fleeting, were bright and joyous. A liberal and elegant hospitality presided over his household, while the domestic hearth was gladdened with the merry voices of the children of their marriage.

In the year 1824, death took from him the wife of his affections, leaving him with the charge of a family of three sons and three daughters.

Affliction, like adversity, tries and proves the character. Mr. Ward, stunned for a while by the blow which had scattered, in an instant, his dreams of human happiness, soon recovered the tone of his mind, by looking to that religion which heretofore, perhaps, had occupied too small a portion of his thoughts, and which alone can adequately console the broken heart.

He roused himself to his duties as a father, as a member of society, and, above all, as a Christian; and after the lapse of a few years, he became zealous and active in his efforts to advance the objects of various literary institutions and associations for promoting the growth of morality and religion.

In 1828, the Historical Society—which, though early founded, had struggled along through a precarious existence, and without other local habitation than such as the indulgence of the corporation of the city allowed it, in the building known as the old Alms-house—was, in the progress of the city's growth, which required the application to city purposes of all their buildings, turned out of doors. Mr. Ward immediately interested him-

self, earnestly and successfully, in procuring for it, and its already valuable collection, a safe and convenient retreat, in the new building then just erected by Mr. Peter Remsen, on the corner of Broadway and Chambers-street.

In 1830, in connexion with Albert Gallatin, Rev. Drs. Wainwright, Matthews, and others, Mr. Ward was exceedingly active in founding the New York University, towards which he himself subscribed $2,500, and was mainly instrumental in inducing other large subscriptions.

The subject of sound and liberal education, to be placed within the reach of all, or as nearly so as possible, was one particularly near to his heart, the rather that he himself had been balked in his favorite wish of obtaining such an education. This loss was, to the day of his death, a source of regret to him, although assiduous self-culture and much reading, in the intervals of a very busy life, had, in the estimation of others, left him little to regret on this point. He therefore followed up, with ardor, the plan of the University, took part in the proceedings of the literary convention which, in 1830–31, was held in this city, and over which John Q. Adams presided—having, for its object, inquiries into the state of education among us, and as to the best modes of advancing it; and he persevered until the New York University was established.

About the year 1831, Mr. Ward turned his attention more especially to the moral and religious condition of the poorer classes, in this great city, and entered warmly into the efforts then making in behalf of the cause of temperance, so intimately connected with morality; and in behalf of mission churches in those parts of the city where there was most need of, and least opportunity for, religious instruction.

Of the City Temperance Society, which was then formed, he became the president, and so continued until the day of his death, directing its operations with the well-known energy of his character; but, at the same time, with the discretion and forbearance that could alone conciliate friends to this new and most beneficent reform. It is mainly owing to the good sense and sound judgment which Mr. Ward exhibited in this situation, resisting the extreme demand of total abstinence, and the more injurious pretension to interfere with the divine institution of the Eucharist, that the New York City Temperance Society has maintained its ground unshaken amidst the perils resulting from *ultra* and unpopular doctrines. In addition to his personal services, Mr. Ward's pecuniary contributions to this society were from $300 to $500 per annum.

The establishment of the Mission church, in Vandewater-street, the first in connexion with the protestant episcopal church, attested his efficiency in this cause. It was upon his indication and recommendation that the Rev. B. C. Cutler (his brother-in-law) was brought from Quincy, Massachusetts, to take charge of this free church; and the success with which he ministered there, until called to a sphere of wider usefulness, in Brooklyn, amply justified the choice. Mr. Ward's contributions in money, large as they were, to this object, and large as were the sums which he prevailed upon others to give, were hardly more important than his punctual and diligent personal attendance, once or twice weekly, at the meetings held to advance the interests of this evangelical undertaking.

It was about 1831, that, after years of self-examination and study and meditation, he determined to join the church. From the period of Mrs. Ward's death, his mind had been turned to this result; but he was too

conscientious to act in so grave a matter, without due preparation and certain convictions. Having at last arrived at his own conclusions, which, because adopted with caution, were rarely indeed altered, he took the final pledge; and he lived up to it, so far as fallible human judgment may decide, for the remainder of his days. Among the aids to which he was indebted for a right decision, on this momentous subject, was Butler's Analogy of Revealed Religion; and Mr. Ward would sometimes dwell with emphasis upon the satisfaction with which, after repeated trials, and a good deal of intense study, he finally mastered that most powerful, consistent, and logical treatise upon Christianity.

The prosperity which rewarded his labors, as a man of business, seemed only to impose on him the desire, as it afforded the means, of being more extensively useful. Without neglecting any former objects, he extended the field of his labors and benefactions. He took a lively interest in Kenyon college, Ohio, of which Bishop McIlvaine had recently become president; he made a donation to it of $1,000, and loaned it a very large sum besides, on the security of its lands. He also gave liberally to Bishop Kemper, for his college, and to Bishop Smith, of the diocese of Kentucky, for the spiritual wants of the west. His money, however, as before remarked, was perhaps the least valuable part of his services; for he took a personal interest in all these subjects, consulted about and contrived means for advancing them, enlisted the active support of many, and the sympathy of all, in their behalf—and thus literally went about doing good.

In 1836, Mr. Ward, in conjunction with other public-spirited individuals, founded the Stuyvesant Institute, and erected the fine edifice bearing that name in Broadway; which, it was fondly hoped, like the Athenæum in Boston, might become a centre for literature, art, and science, in the upper part of our wide-spreading city. The political and financial reverses, that soon followed, defeated, at least for the present, this expectation; and annihilated for Mr. Ward the large sum of $4,000, he had contributed to this enterprise. After-years, however, may yet realize the benefits which he and his associates meditated for their day and generation; and the noble fabric still stands, and long may it stand, a monument to the liberal spirit of its founders.

With very clear and decided notions on political subjects, Mr. Ward had yet kept himself—as was, indeed, until 1834, the case with very many of the leading and active commercial men in New York—free from party strife. As an American, he felt bound to take an interest in the elections, as they recurred, and never omitted to fulfil the obligation of voting; but in the mere scramble for office, the contest between the *ins* and the *outs*, he neither felt nor feigned any concern. When, however, in 1834, that series of disastrous measures commenced, which, under the auspices of Gen. Jackson and his successor, have caused such accumulated ruin and misery, Mr. Ward, with his wonted decision and vigor, entered the political arena, and incited and encouraged all, who had the welfare of the country at heart, to do likewise. The removal of the public deposits from the Bank of the United States, he pronounced to be, at the time, and never faltered in the belief, an act so lawless, violent, and fraught with disaster, that it would and must eventually overthrow the men and the party that resorted to it. He did not live to witness, as we do, the entire and literal verification of this sagacious opinion.

The winter of 1836–7 was one that called forth, in the highest degree,

the exercise of Mr. Ward's principles as a commercial man, proud of the great city with whose growth his own was identified, and whose honor was to him dear as his own. Long and strenuously he strove to avert the financial crisis then impending, declaring himself ready to put all his own earnings at hazard, rather than witness the dishonor of the banks of New York. Individual effort, however, was vain, and the 10th of May saw all the banks reduced to suspend specie payments; and upon no man did that disastrous day close with deeper mortification than upon the subject of this notice. Personally, and in his business relations, this event affected Mr. Ward as little possibly as any one at all connected with affairs; but, in his estimation, it vitally wounded the commercial honor and character of the city. He was not, however, a man to waste in unavailing regrets, hours that might be more advantageously employed to repair the evil, and he therefore at once set about the arrangement of measures for inducing and enabling the banks to resume at the earliest possible moment. The public mind was far from sound on this topic; the business of banking had been made a sort of mystery, and ideal difficulties, and interested objections, and timid anticipations, were again and again the sole replies to the direct and manly suggestions of common sense, honesty, interest, and duty, which Mr. Ward from day to day, in season and out of season, in the street, in his office, and in bank parlors, iterated and reiterated, about the absolute necessity and certain practicability of an early resumption. So much earnestness, however, backed by so much good sense and untiring perseverance, could not fail to obtain a hearing, and gradually to make proselytes. Little by little the circle of sound thinkers and correct reasoners was enlarged, until early in the year 1838, the sentiment that the banks could and should return to specie payments, became more and more irresistible. Opposition from elsewhere only induced greater efforts on the part of Mr. Ward, and those who shared his councils and coincided in his views, to sustain the confidence of the New York institutions in their ability to carry out their honest purposes. After these banks had announced their determination to resume within a year from the day of suspension, Mr. Ward was active in organizing the public meeting which pledged the merchants and traders to stand by the banks. They did resume; and as Mr. Ward had again and again predicted, specie, instead of being drawn from, flowed into the banks. All difficulties were overcome, and the path of honor and duty was once more entered upon by those institutions. Mr. Ward, overwrought as he had been by the almost exclusive charge of the extensive business of the house—his partner, Mr. King, being in Europe—and by his great efforts out of doors, in bringing back specie payments, fell sick. It was on a bed of suffering that he first received from his partner in London, the gratifying intelligence that the Bank of England, influenced by a wise and provident desire to restore the currency of our country, so intimately connected in business with Great Britain, had determined to confide to their house for that purpose a loan of nearly $5,000,000, in gold. This extraordinary mark of confidence, this well-earned tribute to the prudence and integrity of the house, Mr. Ward did not affect to undervalue; and confirming, as it did, the sagacity of his own views, and the results which he had so confidently foretold, it was not lost upon the community in the midst of which he lived.

It was shortly after this period, that the law of the State of New York was passed permitting private associations or individuals to transact the

business of banking. Mr. Ward conceived this to be a good occasion for establishing a bank on what, from long experience, he deemed to be sound principles; and the result of his cogitations and consultations, frequent, though not with many persons, was the establishment of the Bank of Commerce, which, in its constitution and bye-laws, may, it is believed, be truly described as presenting a model bank.

The health of Mr. Ward, which had undergone several violent shocks from the painful and exhausting disease of inflammatory gout, began to give way under the severe trials and constant fatigues to which he exposed himself; and when, therefore, on the declension of Mr. Gallatin, by reason of advanced age, to accept the presidency of the Bank of Commerce, the station was pressed upon him, both his shattered constitution and the unaffected diffidence which instinctively held him back from accepting prominent station, combined to urge him to refuse. But when he was solicited with increased earnestness to accept the post, and appeals were made to his sense of duty, he yielded his consent to take the helm, until the new bank should be fairly afloat, and under full and successful headway, stipulating, with that rare disinterestedness that entered so largely into his character, not to receive any compensation for his services. Unhappily, the rooms in the new Exchange, in which the business of the bank was transacted, were yet damp from recent plastering, and two successive attacks of his ancient malady, were thereby induced in the spring of 1839, which, by their severity and rapid succession, fatally undermined his health. But he yet struggled against disease and debility, giving all the energy of a mind that soared above the influence of bodily suffering, to perfect and consolidate an institution, by the enduring, just, and beneficent operations of which he might reasonably hope to be remembered in after years among men.

In July of that year, feeble and emaciated, he made his accustomed summer visit to Newport, but not with the accustomed result of renovated strength and spirits; the recuperative powers of the system seemed exhausted, while, from the critical condition of the commercial and financial affairs of the country, he, from his connection with the Bank of Commerce, was not allowed the respite from business, which, at Newport, he had hitherto been wont to enjoy. He kept up an active daily correspondence with the bank, took a lively interest in all its transactions, and when, in October, the banks of Pennsylvania, and of the states south thereof, suspended specie payments, and clamors almost amounting to menace, were heard against the declared purpose of the New York banks to maintain at all hazard their payments, Mr. Ward hurried back, valetudinarian as he was, to the city, threw himself at once into the conflict, sustained, encouraged, and convinced the timid and the doubting, replying with truth and energy to a friend who admonished him of the peril to his exhausted frame of such exertions, that "he would esteem life itself not unworthily sacrificed, if, by word or deed, he could aid the banks in adhering faithfully to their duty." For nearly two weeks he gave up his time, thoughts, and labor to this object; and when, at last, he saw that it was accomplished, and that the honor and fair fame of the much-loved city in which, and with which, he had grown from boyhood to mature age, were to be inviolably maintained, he went home to die. It was literally so; the bed which received him after the accomplishment of this his last labor, he never again left alive.

Enduring pain without a murmur—patient, gentle, humble, and resigned—looking death steadfastly in the face, as one whose features he had accustomed himself to contemplate—leaning for support upon the Rock of Ages—consoled by the memories of a well-spent life—at peace with himself and with the world—he expired in the midst of his family and friends, on the 27th of November, 1839.

In his personal intercourse with the world, Mr. Ward was direct, almost to abruptness. Sincere and decided in his own views, he was impatient of circumlocution and indecision in others. He was a stickler for punctuality, not only as an act of politeness, but as economizing what he deemed a precious possession—time.

Having early proposed to himself a particular aim in life, he never lost sight of it until success crowned his efforts. Of this singleness of purpose and unwavering determination, this anecdote is told by an elderly lady, still living: that upon her questioning him while yet a lad, as to what he meant to be, his immediate reply was, "I mean to be one of the first bankers in the United States."

In the intercourse with his family and friends, he was eminently confiding, generous, and tender. As son, brother, parent, and friend, he was not irreproachable merely, but admirable; and in all the relations of life, he exemplified and adorned the character of a good citizen, an humble Christian, and an honest man.

If we have not wholly failed in our sketch of such a character, it will not be without its moral and encouragement for others.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

IMPORTANT CASE TO COTTON-BROKERS AND BUYERS.

At the last assizes held in Liverpool, England, the following interesting mercantile trial took place:—

Ormrod *v.* Huth *and others.*—This was an action brought by the plaintiff, Peter Ormrod, against the defendants, Frederick Huth, John Frederick Gruming, Charles Frederick Huth, Daniel Meinertzhagen, Augustus Herman Kinderman, and Alfred Castellain. The declaration stated that the plaintiff bargained with the defendants for certain bales of cotton; that the defendants exhibited samples, and represented that the cotton was equal to the samples; that the plaintiff, upon this representation, bought the cotton and paid for the same; that the quality was not equal to the samples; and that the plaintiff suffered great loss in consequence, and brought the present action for the recovery of that loss.

Mr. Wortley and Mr. Cowling appeared for the plaintiff, and Mr. Dundas and Mr. Crompton for the defendants.

Mr. Wortley stated the case. The plaintiff was a cotton-spinner at Bolton, in this county, who was seeking to recover from Messrs. Huth & Co., who were cotton-merchants at Liverpool, the difference between the price of good Orleans cotton, which the cotton he purchased was represented to be, and the price for which it was possible to sell it for afterwards, when it was discovered not to be good Orleans cotton at all. The action was one of very considerable importance to that great and staple trade, the cotton-trade of the country; for the case would probably give rise to a question, which the v rdict of the jury would decide, materially affecting transactions in that trade between

merchants in Liverpool. The cotton-trade was of the utmost importance, not only to Liverpool, but to the country generally; and it was with the greatest pleasure he now learned that that trade was reviving, and assuming a state of activity which was peculiarly gratifying. Connected with that trade the present case assumed an importance far beyond the money in dispute, which was only about £136; and the principle involved, as regulating the mode of dealing between cotton-merchants in England, was of the utmost importance. It appeared that, on the 9th of April, 1840, Mr. Bower, of Liverpool, of the firm of Bower & Son, cotton-brokers, and who was the buying-broker for Mr. Ormrod, met Mr. Earle, who was a partner in the house of Salisbury, Turner, & Earle, cotton-brokers, of Liverpool. They met on the Liverpool exchange; and, in the course of conversation, Mr. Bower asked Mr. Earle if he had any good Orleans cotton to dispose of. Mr. Earle replied in the affirmative; and said that, if Mr. Bower came over to his place of business, he could see the samples. Mr. Bower accordingly went, saw the samples, and said, "If you send those samples across to my place of business I shall examine them, and in the course of an hour you shall have my answer." The samples were then sent over; Mr. Bower examined them; they appeared to be good Orleans cotton, such as he wished to buy for the plaintiff; accordingly, a bargain was made; he intimated to Mr. Earle that he would take the cotton; and a parcel of that cotton was afterwards invoiced to the value of £1,646 15*s*. Everything was done in the transaction as it usually is done in Liverpool. The course of business seemed to be this: there was no written contract whatever between the parties, but, in the ordinary course of business, the buying-broker for the merchant in the country communicated with the selling-broker of the seller in Liverpool in the way Mr. Bower did with Mr. Earle. When the bargain was concluded, and the buying-broker had intimated to the selling-broker that he would take the parcel, all that was done afterwards was, that a clerk of the buying-broker was sent to the warehouse where the cotton lay, not for the purpose of examining the bulks or taking fresh parcels, but merely to see that the samples in the hands of the buying-broker were samples taken from the goods in the warehouse. After that, an invoice was sent in, which contained nothing respecting the quality of the cotton, but merely the quantity and the price. This being the ordinary course of business, there was no written contract to which the parties could resort for the purpose of ascertaining the terms upon which it had been made. In the present case, after a considerable lapse of time the cotton still remained in the same warehouse where it had been when purchased. It was simply transferred to the name of Mr. Ormrod, and held for his benefit. The jury were aware that there had been a long and an unprecedented pressure in the cotton-trade for the last year or two, and therefore it was that there was no occasion to remove the cotton in question; and it was not until the month of June, 1842, that the cotton was unpacked, and the mischief discovered which formed the ground of the action. When Mr. Ormrod had taken the cotton to work it up in his own spinning-manufactory, and when he had come to unpack it, to his great surprise he found that out of 144 bales purchased—two bales had been rejected when they were first discovered to be dissimilar to the sample—that out of the remaining 142 bales, 45 of them were what is technically called badly packed—something like strawberries in a pottle, which, when you take off the top, you find nothing but rotten rubbish underneath. In some of the bales there was good Orleans cotton to the depth of about three inches; but in the centre there was an inferior article, such as Mr. Ormrod never intended to purchase. It was for the difference between the value of the good and inferior cotton that the present action had been brought. There could be no doubt but the defendants were liable, inasmuch as they had represented the bulk of the cotton to be similar to the samples. The learned counsel concluded by stating, that if the plaintiff did not obtain a verdict, the

result of the action would be to clog cotton transactions in future with written guarantees, and to abolish the present custom.

William Bower, William Ashcroft, and William Sugden, were the only witnesses. They proved the sale of the cotton, and the quality of the bales when opened.

As soon as the plaintiff's case had been concluded,

Mr. DUNDAS submitted that there was no case to go to the jury, there not having been any proof of the knowledge of the defendants.

The JUDGE said there certainly was not any proof of knowledge upon their parts.

Mr. WORTLEY admitted that there was no such proof.

The JUDGE said that proof upon the point in question was a necessary ingredient.

Mr. WORTLEY said it should be taken that it was the duty of the defendants to know, and that it lay on them to show that they had no knowledge of the fact.

The JUDGE said he would tell the jury that the plaintiff must make out that the defendants knew of the fraud committed, or he could not recover.

Mr. WORTLEY.—Perhaps you will give me leave to enter a verdict?

The JUDGE—I think not, as the value is not the question.

Mr. WORTLEY.—My client prefers to take the matter further, and under those circumstances I accept your lordship's summing up on those terms.

The JUDGE, in addressing the jury, said that, in point of law, it was his duty to state to them that, unless the defendants were shown to have been aware of the fraud committed by the false packing, the plaintiff could not recover.

The jury immediately found for the defendants.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

SINCE our last number, the symptoms of reviving commerce are such as are highly gratifying. The internal navigation has recommenced with a more promising aspect than has been the case for many years. The quantity of produce stored at the several ports along the line of the canal, and throughout the whole route of the great lake navigation, is immense, and its receipt upon the Atlantic border produces a downward tendency in prices. This, however, is a temporary effect. The great abundance of money here and in England, which has continued for many months, is at last beginning to exert its natural influence in stimulating trade. The spring sales of drygoods have been good, and imports are increasing. The crops of the United States have mostly gone forward; and, under the action of the present onerous tariff, united with the low range of prices for goods, full 25 per cent, or near $20,000,000 of the proceeds, have been received in specie, mostly from Great Britain, without producing any visible effect upon the market there. On the contrary, the bullion in the bank has continued to increase in quantity until it is now over $55,000,000, an amount higher than it has reached for many years. The low rate of money in London, being near 1½ a 1¾ per cent for commercial bills, has operated to sustain the prices for American produce in the face of most abundant crops, and therefore to enhance the amount due this country. The various branches of industrial employments in England are also improving. In the manufacturing districts, a more healthy business is doing than has been the case for some years. Exchanges are much in favor of England from the continent of Europe; and, with the improvement in her manufacturing exports, the present abundance of money may be expected to continue until absorbed by the slow process of returning confidence in mercantile enterprises. The steamers that have arrived within the month have brought $4,000,000, and other vessels at different ports in the United States half as much more, making near $6,000,000. The great points of concentration for this are New York and New Orleans. The banks of this city hold in the neighborhood of $12,000,000, a larger sum than ever before ac-

cumulated in their vaults. The import has, however, now nearly ceased. The crops have nearly all gone forward; and the increasing import of goods which is now taking place, notwithstanding the onerous nature of the high cash duties imposed by the tariff of the extra session, causes a demand for bills greater than the diminished supply can meet, and the rates are rapidly rising, as follows:—

TABLE OF THE RATE OF STERLING BILLS IN NEW YORK MONTHLY, FOR A SERIES OF YEARS, WITH THE IMPORT AND EXPORT OF SPECIE IN EACH YEAR.

	1836.	1837.	1841.	1842.	1843.
January,.....	8¼ a 8½	7½ a 8	8¼ a 9	8 a 8½	5⅛ a 5¾
February,.....	9½ a 10	9¾ a 10¼	7⅞ a 8	8 a 8¼	5 a 5¼
March,.....	9 a 9¼	8½ a 9	6¾ a 7⅛	7⅜ a 8¼	3½ a 5½
April,.....	7¾ a 8	10½ a 11½	7½ a 7¾	5½ a 7¼	5½ a 5¾
May,.....	7¾ a 8	10 a 12½	8½ a 8¾	8 a 8¾	8¼ a 8½
June,.....	6¾ a 7	12 a 16	8½ a 8⅝	6¾ a 7	.....
July,.....	7½ a 7¾	20 a 22	8⅝ a 8¾	6½ a 7	.....
August,.....	7¼ a 7⅛	19 a 20	8¾ a 9	6 a 6½	.....
September,.....	7½ a —	20 a 21	9½ a 9¾	8 a 8½	.....
October,.....	8 a 8½	14 a 15	9¾ a 10¼	7 a 7½	.....
November,.....	7¾ a 8¼	15½ a 16	10 a 10¼	5 a 5¼	.....
December,.....	9¼ a 9¾	14 a 14½	8¾ a 9¼	5 a 5¼	.....
Imp. of specie,.	$13,400,881	$10,516,414	$4,908,482	$10,000,000	11,000,000
Exp. of "	4,324,336	4,692,730	10,020,044	3,000,000	1,000,000

These rates will no longer allow of the import of specie to advantage. The low stocks of foreign goods consequent upon the small imports since August, 1842, render increased orders imperative to make up assortments. This the banks and large depositories of money encourage, in order to find legitimate employment for the large amount of funds lying idle. The probability is that the imports, impelled in this manner, will reach an extent that will carry back some portion of the specie lately imported before the bills from the new crop shall have come forward in sufficient abundance to supply the demand thus created.

In the meantime, money finds temporary employment in stock operations. The state of New York has recently obtained two loans, at the following rates:—

	Rates.		*Redeemable.*	*Buyer.*	*Terms.*
April 4,.....	$300,000	6 per cent.	1861	Commercial Bank, Albany	102½
May 5,.....	320,000	6 "	1860	Bank of New York,.....	106 52-100

This is higher than any stocks have been negotiated since 1840, and the last is higher than the market rate, notwithstanding the rapid rise which has taken place in most of the stocks marketable in New York under the temporary loans of the banks. As the rise in some cases has been very perceptible since our last number, we will give the corrected rates up to this time, as follows:—

PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	Rate.	*Redeemable.*	*Feb.*, 1842.	*Dec.*, 1842.	*April*, 1843.	*May*, 1843.
Unit. States,	5¼	1844	96 a 97	97 a 99	— a —	100 a 101¼
"	6	1844	97 a 99	99 a 100	— a —	101 a 102
"	6	1862	— a —	100 a 101½	112 a 113	111¾ a 113
New York,..	7	1848-49	— a —	103¾ a 104	105 a 106	106 a 106½
"	6	1850-54-60	79 a 80	96¾ a 99	103 a 105	105½ a 106
"	6	1861-62-67	78 a 80	96¾ a 98	103 a 105	106¼ a 106½
"	5½	1860-61-65	71 a 73	88 a 90	97 a 98	100 a 101
"	5	1845	80 a 87	92 a 93¾	97 a 98	96 a 98
"	5	1846-7-8-9	80 a 87	86 a 90	— a —	95 a 96
"	5	1850-1-7	80 a 87	85 a 86	— a —	95 a 95½
"	5	1855-58	68 a 72	84¾ a 86	93 a 94	95¼ a 95½
"	5	1859-60-61	68 a 72	85 a 86	94 a 95	93 a 95
"	4½	1849-58	53 a 56	79 a 82	87 a 88	88 a 91
Ohio,.....	6	1850	68 a 70	74½ a 75	69 a 70	84 a 85
"	6	1856-60	67 a 68	72 a 72¼	67 a 68	86½ a 86¾

PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET—*Continued.*

	Rate.	*Redeemable.*	*Feb.*, 1842.	*Dec.*, 1842.	*April*, 1843.	*May*, 1843.
Ohio,.....	5	1850–56	— a —	60 a 65	54 a 55	70 a 75
Kentucky,...	6	——	67 a 68	78 a 78½	89 a 89½	94 a 95
Illinois,.....	6	1870	18 a 19	18 a 18¾	23 a 23½	29½ a 30¼
Indiana,.....	5	25 years.	19 a 20	20 a 21¾	25 a 26	28 a 30
Arkansas,...	6	——	35 a 45	28 a 30	28½ a 30	32 a 35
Alabama,....	6	——	— a —	65 a 80	50 a 60	65 a 70
"	5	——	50 a 55	65 a 75	— a —	55 a 60
Pennsylvan.,	5	——	44 a 49	38 a 39½	41 a 42	45 a 46
N. Y. City,.	7	1857	— a —	106½ a 108	107 a 110	110 a 112
"	7	1852	— a —	105 a 106	106 a 108	107½ a 109
"	5	1850	72 a 76	85 a 87	94 a 95	95 a 96
"	5	1858–70	77 a 78	84½ a 85	94 a 95	93½ a 94

The rise here, it will be observed, is very rapid and great. The average rise in all those stocks since February, 1842, is 13 per cent, which, on the capital of the stocks affected, in the aggregate $152,000,000, is equal to an improvement of $19,760,000 in the property of the stockholders. The value of money continues very low, as yet; and the Secretary of the Treasury, pursuant to a late law of congress, has issued the following notice:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 26, 1843.

Notice of Redemption of Treasury Notes.—Notice is hereby given, that this Department is ready to redeem all the Treasury notes of the United States heretofore issued bearing date on, or any day before the first of day July, eighteen hundred and forty-two, and which have become due or shall become due before, or on the thirtieth day of June, eighteen hundred and forty-three; and that, according to the provisions of different acts of Congress, interest upon all the notes herein described, will cease on the thirtieth day of June next. Any notes that may be offered under this notice at the Depositories of the United States in the city of New York, or at the city of Washington, or at the Treasury, will be redeemed in money, and not otherwise.

J. C. SPENCER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

The quantity of treasury notes outstanding, and affected by this notice, is as follows:—

TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING.

	March 1.	*April* 1.	*May* 1.
Issues under act prior to January, 1842,.	$8,666,936	$8,686,104	$8,674,984
Issues of January, 1842,.....	.....	.....	.....
Redeemed of that issue,.....	23,934	.....	.....
Issues of act of August, 1842,.....	3,025,554	3,925,554	3,017,740
Redeemed,.....	11,964	25,272	60,650
Grand total outstanding,.....	$11,656,387	$11,686,387	$11,632,075

The law of the late session makes it optional with the secretary, either to receive the notes that fall due, or to fund them in a stock of not more than 6 per cent interest. The old 6 per cent stock is, however, as seen above, at a premium of 11 to 12 per cent; consequently it is understood that the market will first be tried, with a view to ascertain if the necessary amount can be obtained on a 5 per cent stock, which is highly probable. At the worst, however, the money can be got on a 6 per cent stock, and the notes retired. The stock will, perhaps, be the best form of investment for large capitalists; but the treasury notes have been an exceedingly useful form of indebtedness to the public. They have been a most excellent medium of exchange from one point to another, and being always available with the accumulated interest in the market, they have been to small capitalists exceedingly desirable. These are some advantages which the notes possess over stock. The finances of the government are rapidly improving, with the returning activity of business. It is understood that there is now in the treasury near $4,000,000 of revenue; and the customs, at all points, are increasing. The following official table of the business of the port of Charleston, is an index to the progressive increase of trade on the Atlantic border:—

COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON, S. C., FOR JANUARY, FEBRUARY, AND MARCH, 1843.

	To Jan. 31.	*February.*	*March.*
Dutiable imports,.....	$38,164	$39,032	$50,958
Free "	3,650	40,547	49,563
Specie "	15,725	58,373	60,060
Total imports,.....	$57,539	$137,952	$160,581
Exports, foreign goods,.....	$362	$1,998	456
" domestic goods,.....	1,224,139	1,375,675	901,165
Total exports,.....	$1,224,501	$1,377,673	$901,621

Under the present system, the accumulation of government funds, in the banks, impels them to make temporary investments in stocks, as there presents itself no other means of employment, and consequently of deriving benefit from the deposits. Loans have been made freely upon all stocks, and this is the moving cause of the great rise evinced in the above table. Independently of this, however, the general movement made by the indebted states towards compromising their debts, has been conducive of the best effects. In the State of Arkansas, one of those that repudiated that portion of their debts, illegally issued, a compromise has been effected, by which the stockholders of the banks, in favor of whom the stocks were issued, can make all the bonds available in the discharge of their debts to the banks. Through this channel, probably, the outstanding bonds will be absorbed. Illinois was one of the first of the repudiating states, because she was one of those that had suffered the most wrong from her rulers, by being plunged into debt above her means. In a former number, we alluded to the proposed compromise, by which a portion of her debt, and ultimately, the whole, is to be liquidated. A law was passed at the late session of the legislature, to carry that proposition into execution. The debt of Illinois is as follows:—

STATE DEBT OF ILLINOIS, JANUARY, 1843.

Total Bank stock,.....	$2,665,000
" Internal Improvement debt,.....	5,614,195
" Canal debt,.....	4,338,907
" State house,.....	116,000
" School, college, and seminary funds,.....	808,085
" Due State bank for warrants,.....	294,190
Total debt upon which interest accrues,.....	$13,836,379

The bank stock has been cancelled by the liquidation of the banks. The remaining debt due abroad, is, therefore, the improvement debt and the canal debt. The former depends solely upon the faith of the state for its redemption. The canal debt has a lien upon the canal and its lands, which are as follows:—

230,467 acres land on the border of the canal,.....	$2,304,670
Lots in the cities of Chicago, La Salle, Lockport, Ottawa, Juliet, and La Page,.....	1,800,000
Total value,.....	$4,104,670

The canal requires $1,600,000 to finish it, and open a communication for the whole trade of the chain of lake navigation with the valley of the Mississippi. To obtain this, the new canal law proposes to the holders of the canal bonds that they shall advance the necessary sum, and to secure them they shall be put in possession of the canal and its lands, the latter to be sold within three months from the completion of the canal, the proceeds to reimburse the new loan, principal and interest, after which the balance of lands and revenues of canal shall pay the interest on the canal bonds, then that upon the improvement bonds, next the principal of the canal bonds, and, finally, that of the

improvement bonds. Every disposition is manifest among the holders of the bonds here, to favor the project which is negotiated by the new commissioners, Messrs. Ryan and Oakely, who go out in the packet of the 25th, to lay the state of affairs before the London bond-holders. Under these dispositions it will be observed, in the above table, that the stocks have risen 50 per cent of their price some weeks since, although the banks do not loan on this description of stock. A meeting of the bond-holders, in this city, has been called, who expressed a disposition to subscribe to the loan for which books have been opened. Pennsylvania and Maryland have also made movements towards compromise, although not of so decided and feasible a character as those of Illinois. These attempts to settle, combined with the plenteousness of money, here and in England, have produced a much better feeling in relation to American credit generally, and of course acts beneficially upon its trade.

The whole country is now abounding with produce, and its average money value is rapidly rising; that is to say, as the quantities in store, at the western points of accumulation, move forward to market, the rates at the west rise, while those at the Atlantic fall. This latter favors the continued export of the surplus, while a rise of 15 to 20 per cent, in the money value at the west, affords the farmers a profit, and enables them to purchase goods in exchange, thereby laying the foundation of an immense business. The rapid change which is continually going on in the western country, is indicated in the fact, that, in 1837, pork and bread-stuffs were actually imported into Chicago, Illinois, from Ohio, the former at $14, and the latter at $10 per bbl. This year, Illinois will export 4,000,000 bushels of wheat, at its present rate of 62½ cents per bushel, worth $2,500,000. This is the result of the industry of immigrants. On their first arrival, they were obliged to buy provisions to eat until their lands were cleared. The surplus is now sufficient to feed the constant tide of immigration, and export an immense surplus in addition.

In all sections of the country, the people are comparatively out of debt; and the proceeds of their industry is flowing back upon them, in money, to supply a circulation rendered deficient by the liquidation of a large amount of bank capital in all sections of the country. The rise of prices, consequent upon the influx of money, will naturally stimulate a return of trade; but the machinery by which that trade was formerly conducted is shattered, and, in many states, destroyed. The banks, which were then the medium of discount and collection, have, in whole and populous sections, been put in liquidation; leaving the field open, not only to a new currency, but to a new system of business. It was the old practice, in the great centres of business, to sell on the long-dated paper of the country dealers, made payable at the bank in the town or county of their residence. These notes, endorsed by the seller and discounted by the banks, enabled him to realize his money; while the maturity of the note, at the residence of its maker, brought the necessity of providing for it more immediately before him, because his credit would be more affected by a protest, under such circumstances, than if it took place at a distance from him, and where he was less known. The working of this system, however, experience has shown that, although it seemingly insured the more prompt payment of isolated notes, yet its general operation was to accumulate the indebtedness of one section against another. When country dealers can buy goods freely, on long dates, they are apt to buy more than they really want, in the hope of selling them. To encourage consumption, they, in their turn, trust the farmers. When the six months comes round, it is too frequently the case, that the dealer has not collected the amount requisite to take up his note, which, however, must be paid; and it is done either by an accommodation note or a renewal. In this case, although the individual merchant has obtained his payment, yet the balance actually due, from the west to the Atlantic, has not been settled. Now it may be assumed that the amount, which the country dealer could not actually

pay on his note, is so much purchased more than he ought to have done; and makes a demand for exchange beyond what the resources of the soil have supplied.

Instead of realizing the amount from his sales, he borrows it of the banks. At the expiration of the succeeding term, the result is the same; and the suspended amount constantly swells, until general disaster is inevitable. The terrible insolvency which has overtaken so many of the western and southern banks, has grown out of this method of business, in connection with the spirit of speculation which existed in former years. The banks, which formerly were the focus, both for these collections and discounts, have now, in extensive sections, ceased to exist. Alabama, Florida, Illinois, Arkansas, Michigan, and Mississippi, with the Territories of Wisconsin and Iowa, comprising a population of 2,210,190 souls, are comparatively without banks, where, formerly, a capital equal to $43,000,000 was in active operation. This hiatus, in what was a necessary means of trade, compels a change in the method. Accordingly, we observe that, in all those sections, the exchange and collection business is falling into private hands. The exchanges are now lower, andmore regular than ever before, and, in the hands of individual dealers, are likely so to continue. Private houses have a great advantage over corporations, in the economy, precision, and skill, with which the business is conducted. They contain within themselves, also, a conservative principle, which constantly counteracts a tendency to overtrading. The facilities they offer for the collection of debts actually due, is greater than that of banks; but, on the other hand, they afford no means to the debtor to evade payment or renew an obligation. Hence, when bills are due against any section for goods purchased, the whole amount must actually be paid. By a necessary consequence, the dealer, aware that the only means in his power to meet this obligation, is by making cash sales to a corresponding amount, becomes very careful not to buy more than he thinks he can sell. When, therefore, a draft is made upon him, he has the means of meeting it; and as his sales have been governed by the actual means of the producers to buy, the means of remittance is always commensurate to the sum of the drafts. The bills of the produce-shipper always find ready sale with the holder of the draft upon the dealer. Every mail from the seaboard, which brings to the western house drafts for collection, carries back produce bills in liquidation of those drafts. This seems to be the direction which business is now to take, more especially in those districts to which we have alluded, where banks have ceased to exist.

The prevailing feeling in the commercial circles, seems to be, that property and prices, which have had so long a downward tendency, are, at last, fairly on an upward movement. The fact of such an opinion being generally entertained, would restore confidence, in some degree, and produce the result anticipated. The great abundance of money, however, the vast accumulations of specie, and the immense natural and industrial productions of the soil, must inevitably cause a season of prosperity, with an ascending scale of prices. The position of the United States, in relation to other countries composing the great markets for its commodities, has much changed for the better. The whole commercial policy of England has undergone a radical change. It has so far modified its restrictions, in regard to the agricultural products of this country, as to afford a broad and deep channel of outlet for the proceeds of western industry, through the Canadas and down the St. Lawrence. This insures to the agriculturists of the country a continued outlet, whereby a steady range of prices at remunerating rates, may reasonably be expected. As long as the vast quantities of produce which are raised can profitably be disposed of, the great business of the country will advance to an indefinite extent. The following table will show the progress of the trade in breadstuffs and provisions, to Great Britain and its dependencies, for a series of years:—

VALUE OF PROVISIONS, AND WHEAT AND FLOUR EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Year.	Total to Great Britain. *Flour & Wheat.*	*Provisions.*	Total to British Colonies. *Corn & Wheat.*	*Provisions.*	Total to Britain & Dependenc's.	Total from United States.
1841,	$1,132,774	$359,391	$4,201,307	$1,754,108	$7,667,570	$12,613,797
1840,	4,072,952	32,113	4,448,692	1,086,503	9,630,260	14,508,106
1839,	1,337,700	18,937	2,281,105	808,301	4,446,053	9,343,807
1838,	62,510	73,532	817,955	484,374	1,477,371	5,600,192
1837,	6	139,682	830,075	497,174	1,466,937	5,795,593
1836,	1,134	91,884	801,935	424,611	1,319,528	5,771,153
1835,	25,241	57,201	1,204,288	715,969	2,001,697	7,026,484
1834,	96,834	133,533	440,384	897,878	2,468,629	7,301,698

This gives a steady and remarkable increase, in the trade to Great Britain and its dependencies, as expressed in value. It shows, also, that the western farmers are dependent entirely upon England for an extensive sale of the products of their industry, because the general amount of exports has increased, only in proportion to the purchases of Great Britain. The following table will show the progressive increase, in the quantities, taken by the British colonies:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO BRITISH COLONIES.

	Flour. *Bbls.*	Rice. *Tcs.*	Beef. *Bbls.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Tobacco. *Hhds.*
1828,.....	96,719	1,239	707	3,983	.....
1829,.....	91,088	1,087	814	10,446	.....
1830,.....	149,966	2,052	494	6,035	.....
1831,.....	251,187	5,432	6,877	14,754	.....
1832,.....	237,807	7,955	11,604	42,982	.....
1833,.....	268,184	8,102	13,107	71,671	.....
1834,.....	230,791	8,413	7,012	44,510	916
1835,.....	193,713	6,543	6,585	25,554	1,081
1836,.....	112,605	8,596	9,351	5,683	917
1837,.....	91,639	10,310	4,614	13,236	2,127
1838,.....	104,115	7,118	7,012	44,510	865
1839,.....	288,747	6,713	4,499	28,669	685
1840,.....	664,685	6,003	4,833	42,157	1,286
1841,.....	761,271	6,125	7,000	93,799	955

We may now look at the general state of trade at different periods:—

VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO THE BRITISH COLONIES, AT DIFFERENT PERIODS—ALSO, THE WHOLE EXPORT OF THE SAME ARTICLES FROM THE U. STATES.

	1829.	1834.	1840.	1841.
Candles,.....	$1,846	$6,547	$10,793	$14,569
Lumber,.....	175,410	526,491	447,292	704,365
Naval stores,.....	15,950	18,423	37,032	36,308
Beef, &c.,.....	91,417	274,417	311,900	432,056
Pork, &c.,.....	213,593	614,988	661,876	1,734,304
Horses, &c.,.....	9,120	179,206	204,765	245,453
Flour,.....	585,782	1,176,106	3,371,402	3,239,885
Wheat,.....	.....	.....	1,671,054	799,360
Corn,.....	169,046	100,568	164,769	180,800
Rye and Indian meal,.	139,591	373,706	800,180	115,320
Bread,.....	13,709	116,308	280,260	352,000
Apples and potatoes,..	3,326	9,300	34,060	34,700
Rice,.....	22,522	139,498	120,820	135,240
Other articles,.....	1,344,255	1,024,617	2,055,193	3,922,087
Total export,.....	$2,725,567	$5,009,809	$8,803,550	$11,639,627
In American vessels,.	2,656,293	3,560,245	6,655,224	8,884,881
In foreign "	69,274	1,449,564	2,148,326	2,754,746
Tot. exp. from U. S.	14,599,218	20,040,880	19,559,748	26,907,076

If the progress of the trade with the British colonies, has been thus rapid, under the proclamation of 1828, the extent to which the trade with the mother country may be extended down the channel of the St. Lawrence, under the extensive and magnificent improvements which are making in the navigation of that noble river, backed by the proposed liberal policy of the English government, is scarcely calculable.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

CANADIAN TARIFF OF FREIGHT.

A Tariff of Freight on the navigation between Canada East and West, by the Ottawa River and the Rideau Canal, and the River Saint Lawrence, during the season of 1843.

Upwards.	*Salt in bulk or bbls., coals, & Pig iron, per ton.*	*Heavy Groceries and Hardware, per cwt.*	*Teas, Loaf Sugar, Earth'n and Glassware, per cwt.*	*Drygds, and all light and bulky pkgs., per cwt.*
Montreal to Kingston,.....	30*s.*	2*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.*	3*s.* 9*d.*
And, in addition, to cover the greatly augmented tolls on Rideau canal,.	10*s.*	6*d.*	6*d.*	6*d.*
Apart from the actual transport, they will act only as ag'ts or warehousemen, with respect to goods received and stored by them, and charge for storage, &c. at Montreal, 2*s.* 6*d.* per ton, and at Kingston, 2*s.* 6*d.*, being	5*s.*	3*d.*	3*d.*	3*d.*
In all,.....	45*s.*	3*s.* 3*d.*	3*s.* 9*d.*	4*s.* 6*d.*

From Montreal—	*Flour, per bbl.*	*Pork, per bbl.*			
To Bytown,....	2*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* 9*d.*	25*s.*	2*s.*	2*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* 3*d.*
" L'Original,.	2*s.*	3*s.*	22*s.* 6*d.*	1*s.* 10*d.*	2*s.* 3*d.*	2*s.* 10*d.*
" Grenville, .	1*s.* 9*d.*	2*s.* 6*d.*	20*s.*	1*s.* 8*d.*	2*s.*	2*s.* 6*d.*
" Carillon,....	1*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* 3*d.*	15*s.*	1*s.* 2*d.*	1*s.* 8*d.*	2*s.* 2*d.*

And, in addition, as agents or warehousemen, charge on goods destined for either of these places, 5*s.* per ton, or 3*d.* per cwt, 3*d.* per barrel on flour, and 4*d.* per barrel on pork. Goods to places beyond Bytown, on the Rideau canal, the same in all respects as to Kingston.

Downwards.	*Flour, per bbl.*	*Pork, per bbl.*	*Ashes, per bbl.*	*Tobacco, per hhd.*	*Butter or Lard, per keg.*
Kingston to Montreal,	2*s.*	3*s.*	5*s.*	10*s.*	10½*d.*
" Bytown,.	1*s.* 9*d.*	2*s.* 8*d.*	.....	.....	.....
Prescott or Brockville to Montreal,.....	1*s.* 10*d.*	2*s.* 9*d.*	4*s.* 7*d.*	9*s.* 2*d.*	9½*d.*
Bytown to Montreal,.	1*s.* 9*d.*	2*s.* 8*d.*	4*s.* 6*d.*	.....	8*d.*
Grenville "	.....	.....	4*s.*	.....	6*d.*
Carrillon "	.....	.....	3*s.* 9*d.*	.....	5*d.*

And additional charge as agents or warehousemen, for storage, &c., of 3*d.* per barrel of flour, 4*d.* per barrel of pork, 6*d.* per barrel of ashes, 1*s.* per hogshead of tobacco, and 2*d.* per keg of butter or lard.

TABLE—Continued.

Downwards.	*Wheat, per 60 lbs.*	*Other Grain, per bushel, stand'd wt.*	*Standard staves, per M.*	*Puncheon staves, per M.*	*Pkgs., wt. or measurem't, per ton.*
Kingston to Montreal,	7½*d.*	7½*d.*	$30	$10	25*s.*
" Bytown,.	6½*d.*	6½*d.*	.....	.....	25*s.*
Prescott or Brockville to Montreal,.....	6¾*d.*	6¾*d.*	$26	$8¾	23*s.* 4*d.*
Bytown to Montreal,.	6½*d.*	6½*d.*	.....	.....	25*s.*
Grenville "	.....	.....	.....	.....	20*s.*
Carrillon "	.....	.....	.....	.....	15*s.*

And additional charge as agents or warehousemen, for storage, &c., of 1*d.* per 60 lbs. wheat, 1*d.* per bushel other grain, standard weight, 20*s.* per M. standard staves, 7*s.* 6*d.* per M. puncheon staves, and 5*s.* per ton packages, weight or measurement.

All other downward freight, not described, to be charged at rates in proportion to, or corresponding with, the above.

The company do not guarantee the safe delivery of goods carried from Montreal to Kingston or intermediate places, or to Brockville or Prescott. The owners of property bear the responsibility arising out of the risks or dangers of the navigation upwards, unless upon payment, in addition to the freight, of a rate of premium for insurance, which may be established by an insurance company. With regard to property downwards, according to established custom, it will in all cases be covered by insurance, when orders are not given to the contrary.

The tariff in the foregoing table is in the Canadian currency of 20 cents to a shilling, or 5 shillings the dollar.

JAMAICA IMPORT DUTIES.

The following is a list of the Jamaica duties, or as many of them as interest shippers of the United States. The duties recently established by the legislature of Jamaica, based upon an act of the British parliament, were to go into operation on the 5th of April, 1843; which duties, be it remembered, are in addition to those established by parliament.

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Ale, beer, cider, porter, &c., in bulk, ... per tun	3	3	0
Ale, beer, &c., in quart bottles, ... per dozen	0	0	6
Asses, ... per head	0	10	0
Beef and pork, salted or cured, foreign, ... per barrel	1	0	0
Bread or biscuit, foreign, ... per cwt.	0	5	0
Bricks, ... per 1000	0	4	0
Butter, ... per firkin of 64 lbs.	0	4	0
Candles, wax, sperm or composition, ... per box of 56 lbs.	0	3	6
Candles, tallow, ... " "	0	1	6
Cattle, neat, ... per head	1	0	0
Coals, (except Royal Mail Company,) ..... per ton	0	0	6
Cocoa, ...	0	0	0
Cheese, ... per cwt.	0	5	0
Fish, dried or salted, of foreign taking and cure, ... per bbl.	0	2	0
Fish, pickled, " " " ..... "	0	4	0
Fish, herrings, smoked, ... per box	0	1	0
Flour, wheat, foreign, ... per bushel	0	4	0
Hams, bacon, dried beef, dried tongues, ... per cwt.	0	8	0
Horses, mares, and geldings, ... per head	2	0	0
Lard, ... per firkin of 70 lbs.	0	3	0
Meal, or other flour, not wheat, foreign, ... per bbl.	0	3	0
Mules, ... per head	1	10	0
Oil, blubber, fins, skins, &c., of foreign fishing, ... per cwt.	4	0	0
Peas, beans, barley, oats, Indian corn, ... per bushel	0	0	3
Rice, ... per cwt.	0	4	0
Salt, ... per bushel	0	0	9
Sheep, ... per head	0	3	0
Soap, ... per box of 56 lbs.	0	2	0
Swine, ... per head	0	2	0
Tea, ... per lb.	0	2	0
Tobacco, manufactured, ... per £100 value	25	0	0
Tobacco, leaf or unmanufactured, ... " "	20	0	0
Wood—Pitch pine lumber, one inch thick, ... per 1000 ft.	0	12	0
" White pine lumber, ... "	0	8	0
" Shingles, all kinds over twelve inches long, ... per 1000	0	8	0
" White cedar and Boston chips, ... "	0	4	0
" Hoops, ... "	0	1	0
" Red or white oak hogshead staves and heading, ... "	0	2	0
Manufactures of glass, silk, cotton, linen, woollen, leather, paper, besides hardware, clocks and watches, corks, &c., ... per cwt.	4	0	0

Coin, bullion, diamonds, fruit, vegetables, fresh hay, straw, cotton, wool, ice, fresh fish, poultry, wheat and rye, printed books and paper, are exempt from duty.

In addition to the foregoing duties, there is a perpetual duty, subject to a reduction of 10 per cent, on beer, ale, or cider, of £1 10*s.* per tun; cocoa, 12*s.* per cwt.; and tobacco, £1 per 100 lbs.—*Balt. Com. Journal.*

RUSSIA—EXPORT OF WAREHOUSED GOODS FREE OF DUTY.

On the 8th of this month, (January, 1843,) his majesty the emperor was pleased to address to the directing senate the following ukase:—

"The classes of merchants of various nations which have the greatest trade with Russia, having expressed a particular desire, as reported to us by the vice-chancellor and the minister of finance, that permission should be given to re-export goods introduced into Russia at the will of the owners, and without paying the duties of import; and seeing no objection thereto, with a view of making a trial of a measure of that nature, for the purpose of facilitating commerce

"*We order:* 1. During the three years from the 1st of May, 1843, to the 1st of May, 1846, the re-exportation of imported goods not prohibited, which have entered the ports of St. Petersburg and Cronstadt, of Riga and Archangel, and been received into the warehouses of the crown, shall be allowed at the will of the owners, within the period fixed for their (entrepot) remaining in warehouse, and on payment of the duties to which they are subject; unless such goods be submitted to a legal sequestration.

"2. On their re-exportation the goods shall not be subject to any custom-house duty whatsoever, their owners being required to pay only what is due for their storage, in the warehouses of the crown, at St. Petersburg and at Riga, agreeably to the tariff fixed for those ports, and at Cronstadt and Archangel, where there is no such tariff, agreeably to that fixed for St. Petersburg. It is to be understood, that the navigation duties are to be paid on the departure of the goods re-exported, according to the general rules on that subject.

"3. The goods intended for re-exportation shall not be examined in detail, unless particular circumstances should render it necessary.

"4. When import duties have been paid on goods, those duties will not be returned on the re-exportation of the goods.

"5. The minister of finance will prescribe the particular rules to be observed by the custom-houses on the re-exportation of goods.

"The directing senate will take the proper measures for the execution of this decree."

The imperial ukase was promulgated by a ukase of the directing senate on the 25th of the present month of January, 1843.

CUSTOM-HOUSE VALUE OF CERTAIN FOREIGN SILVER COINS.

At the last session of the congress of the United States, an act was passed, and approved by the president March 3, 1843, fixing the value of the thaler of Prussia and Bremen, the milreis of Portugal, Madeira, and the Azores, the marc banco of Hamburgh, the ruble of Russia, and the rupee of British India. The provisions of the act are as follows:—

That, in all computations of the value of foreign moneys of account at the custom-houses of the United States, the thaler of Prussia shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of sixty-eight and one-half cents; the milreis of Portugal shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of one hundred and twelve cents; the rix-dollar of Bremen shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of seventy-eight and three-quarter cents; the thaler of Bremen, of seventy-two groats, shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of seventy-one cents; the milreis of Madeira shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of one hundred cents; the milreis of the Azores shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of eighty-three and one-third cents; the marc banco of Hamburg shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of thirty-five cents; the ruble of Russia shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of seventy-five cents; the rupee of British India shall be deemed and taken to be of the value of forty-four and one-half cents; and all former laws inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICES TO MARINERS.

Morant Lighthouse.

The situation of the Morant lighthouse, on the eastern end of the island of Jamaica, is lat. 7 deg. 55 min. 45 sec. N., and long. 40 sec. E. of the flagstaff at Port Royal navy-yard. Variation, 3 50 E. The easternmost point of the island bears from the lighthouse S. 31 55 E., distant about five hundred yards; the northeast end bears N. 33 60 W.; and the elbow of the point, to the southward, bears S. 4 5 W. (true.) The light, which is very brilliant, revolves every minute, with a continued dim light between the intervals of the flashes, and can be seen distinctly at an elevation of twelve feet above the horizon, nineteen miles from the circle, described from the northeast end of the island, to the direction of southwest and west, magnetic; consequently, vessels working to the eastward should never lose sight of the light until it bears northwest, which would avoid any chance of their falling in with the dangerous Morant keys; and when bound to the westward, after passing Port Morant, by keeping the light in sight they will avoid any chance of coming near the shoals of the southern shore, as the light is lost sight of when bearing to the eastward of northeast by east, magnetic.

Dantzic Lights.

Of the two standing lights at the harbor of Dantzic, at Neufahrwasser, the lesser one, which has been hitherto lighted as a beacon a short distance from the great light-tower, will, on the 15th of April of the present year, be discontinued, and, on the 16th, be replaced by a light of the Fresnel invention, fixed in a small iron lighthouse on the summit of the eastern harbor Mole, and, along with the large light, be kept burning every night from sunset to sunrise. This new light is situated north by compass 4,800 Rhinland feet distant from the great light-tower, is forty-three feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen in all points of the compass from W. S. W. to S. E.; and from sea, in clear weather, if the eye of the observer is about ten feet above the level of the sea, at a distance of more than two and a half German miles. Ships leaving Dantzic roads in the night, and having arrived as far as Old Weichselmunde, (the mouth of the Old Vistula,) must bring the higher or southwest light not more westerly southwest, and the light of the eastern Mole not more northerly than west, in order to avoid the shoals and the flats of the Old Vistula, which extend to a great distance at its outset. The light on the eastern Mole, bearing S. by E. S. S. E., with the soundings of five fathoms water, offers safe anchorage in the roads. Both lights, which, observed in a south direction, appear one, are at a considerable distance from each other, and the great high tower is westerly of the one at the Mole. In laying down the bearings, the variation of the compass has not been considered.

Royal Prussian Administration, Dantzic, Feb. 21, 1843.

Dunkerque and Gravelines Light.

Notice has been given by the French government, that the following lighthouses at Dunkerque and Gravelines, on the coast of France, in the Department du Nord, have been completed, and will be lighted on the first of May, 1843:—

Dunkerque Revolving Light.

The new lighthouse stands in lat. 51 deg. 3 min. N., and long. 22 min. E., on the head of the pier between the harbor and Fort Risban, and 1,531 yards in a northwest direc-

tion from l'Hengnenar tower. To a vessel distant four or five leagues, the light will appear to revolve, being eclipsed once every minute; but within that distance, a faint steady light will always be visible between the periods of the strong glare. The building is 180 feet high; and the light, being 193 feet above the level of the sea, will be visible from a ship's deck at the distance of six leagues. On the first appearance of this light, the temporary light will be discontinued.

Gravelines Fixed Light.

The new lighthouse, from which a fixed light will be shown, stands in lat. 51 deg. 18 sec. N., and long. 2 deg. 6 min. 48 sec. to the eastward of the pier heads at the entrance to the harbor. The building is 83 feet high; and the light, being 193 feet above the level of the sea, will be visible from a ship's deck at the distance of 6 leagues.

Honfleur Lights.

Information has been received by her majesty's government, that, on the first of March, 1843, the outer light Honfleur, on the outer extremity of the western jetty, was changed from the natural color to a red light.

PILOTAGE DEPARTMENT, BELGIUM.

The minister for foreign affairs of his majesty the king of Belgium has given notice, that, in compliance with the general request of the merchants, ship-owners, masters of vessels, and other persons interested in the navigation of the river Scheldt, that a new service of pilotage has been established by the Belgian government from Flushing, in and out to sea, and from Flushing, up and down to Antwerp or Ghent, for the use of all ships bound to or from Belgium.

The new Belgian pilot-boats will be found cruising outside of all dangers, between Westkappel and Schouwen, for the northeast channel; and between Blankensburg and Nieuport, for the Wielingen, or French channel. They are cutter-rigged, painted all black, and wear the name of "Antwerpen" in their mainsail. They carry at the masthead a red flag, with their number in white.

The Belgian pilots may be known by a silver medal, containing the arms of the kingdom, their number, and the station to which they belong; they are also provided with a license from the government.

Masters making use of a Belgian pilot will be enabled to pay the pilot dues in Antwerp or Ghent, their place of destination; by which they will avoid any stoppage at Flushing, and free themselves from the expensive employment of an agent in that place.

IMPORTANT DISCOVERY.

On the 18th July, 1841, the Hamburg schooner Paradise, Captain Zybrandts, on a voyage from Valparaiso to Manilla, discovered a group of six islands, thickly studded with cocoa-nut trees, and supposed uninhabited, in lat. 9 s., long. 172 w. of Greenwich, supposed not laid down in any charts. The captain named them Paradise islands. The latitude of the northernmost island, at noon, was made 9 deg. 6 sec. 20 min. s., and the longitude, by good chronometers, 172 w. The Uloe group is laid down in the English charts 23 min. too southerly, the most southerly and westerly of those islands being in lat. 7 32 N., long. 143 30 E.

CANAL AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE ERIE CANAL.

A List of the Places on the Junction and Erie Canals, and their distance from each other, as adopted by the Canal Board.

Names of Places.	Place to place.	*Distance from—* Albany.	Utica.	Rochester.	Buffalo.
Albany,	0	0	110	269	364
Port Schuyler,	5	5	105	264	359
Washington, (Gibbonsville,)	1	6	104	263	358
West Troy,	1	7	103	262	357
Junction,	2	9	101	260	355
Cahoes,	1	10	100	259	354
Lower aqueduct,	3	13	97	256	351
Willow Spring,	6	19	91	250	345
Upper aqueduct,	7	26	84	243	338
Schenectady,	4	30	80	239	334
Rotterdam,	9	39	71	230	325
Phillips' locks,	5	44	66	225	320
Amsterdam,	3	47	63	222	317
Schoharie creek,	5	52	58	247	312
Smithtown, (Auriesville,)	2	54	56	215	310
Caughnawaga, (Fultonville,)	3	57	53	212	307
Big Nose,	7	64	46	205	300
Spraker's basin,	2	66	44	203	298
Canajoharie,	3	69	41	200	295
Fort Plain,	3	72	38	197	292
Diefendorf's landing,	3	75	35	194	289
Minden dam, (St. Johnsville,)	2	77	33	192	287
East Canada creek,	4	81	29	188	283
Indian Castle, (Nowandaga cr.,)	2	83	27	186	281
Fink's ferry,	3	86	24	183	278
Little Falls,	2	88	22	181	276
Rankin's lock, (No. 7,)	3	91	19	178	273
Herkimer lower bridge,	4	95	15	174	269
Herkimer upper bridge,	1	96	14	173	268
Fulmer's creek,	1	97	13	172	267
Morgan's landing,	1	98	12	171	266
Steel's creek,	1	99	11	170	265
Frankfort,	2	101	9	168	263
Ferguson's,	6	107	3	162	257
Utica,	3	110	0	159	254
York Mills, (Wetmore's,)	3	113	3	156	251
Whitesboro',	1	114	4	155	250
Oriskany,	3	117	7	152	247
Rome,	8	125	15	144	239
Wood cr. aqueduct, (Fort Bull,)	2	127	17	142	237
Hawley's basin,	2	129	19	140	235
Stony creek,	1	130	20	139	234
New London,	2	132	22	137	232
Higgins',	4	136	26	133	228
Loomis',	2	138	28	131	226
Oneida creek, (Durhamville,)	3	141	31	128	222
Canastota,	5	146	36	123	218
New Boston, (Canasaraga,)	4	150	40	119	214
Chitteningo,	3	153	43	116	211
Pool's brook,	3	156	46	113	208
Kirkville,	2	158	48	111	206
Little lake,	2	160	50	109	204
Manlius, (Reels,)	2	162	52	107	202
Limestone feeder,	1	163	53	106	201

A List of the Places on the Junction and Erie Canals, etc.—*Continued.*

Names of Places.	Place to place.	*Distance from—* Albany.	Utica.	Rochester.	Buffalo.
Orville feeder,	2	165	55	104	199
Lodi,	5	170	60	99	194
Syracuse,	1	171	61	98	193
Geddes,	2	173	63	96	191
Belisle,	4	177	67	92	187
Nine-mile creek,	1	178	68	91	186
Camillus,	1	179	69	90	185
Canton,	5	184	74	85	180
Peru,	2	186	76	83	178
Jordan,	4	190	80	79	174
Cold Spring,	1	191	81	78	173
Weedsport,	5	196	86	73	168
Centreport,	1	197	87	72	167
Port Byron,	2	199	89	70	165
Montezuma, (Lakeport,)	6	205	95	64	159
Lockpit,	6	211	101	58	153
Clyde,	5	216	106	53	148
Lock Berlin,	5	221	111	48	143
Lyons,	4	225	115	44	139
Lockville,	6	231	121	38	133
Newark,	1	232	122	37	132
Port Gibson,	3	235	125	34	129
Palmyra,	5	240	130	29	124
Macedonville,	4	244	134	25	120
Wayneport, (Barrager's basin,)	3	247	137	22	117
Perrinton, (Lindel's bridge,)	2	249	139	20	115
Perrinton Centre, (Col. Peters',)	2	251	141	18	113
Fairport,	1	252	142	17	112
Fullam's basin,	1	253	143	16	111
Bushnel's basin,	3	256	146	13	108
Pittsford,	3	259	149	10	105
Billinghast's basin,	4	263	153	6	101
Lock No. 3,	2	265	155	4	99
Rochester,	4	269	159	0	95
Brockway's,	10	279	169	10	85
Spencer's basin,	2	281	171	12	83
Adams' basin,	3	284	174	15	80
Cooley's basin,	3	287	177	18	77
Brockport,	2	289	179	20	75
Holley,	5	294	184	25	70
Scio,	4	298	188	29	66
Albion,	6	304	194	35	60
Gaines' basin,	2	306	196	37	58
Eagle harbor,	1	307	197	38	57
Long bridge,	2	309	199	40	55
Knowlesville,	2	311	201	42	53
Road culvert,	1	312	202	43	52
Medina,	3	315	205	46	49
Shelby basin,	3	318	208	49	46
Middleport,	3	321	211	52	43
Reynold's basin,	3	324	214	55	40
Gasport,	2	326	216	57	38
Lockport,	7	333	223	64	31
Pendleton,	7	340	230	71	24
Welch's,	2	342	232	73	23
H. Brockway's,	4	346	236	77	18
Tonnawanta,	6	352	242	83	12
Lower Black Rock,	8	360	250	91	4
Black Rock,	1	361	251	92	3
Buffalo,	3	364	254	95	0

28.90 chains over, to Lake Erie—Big Buffalo creek harbor.

PROGRESS OF STEAM NAVIGATION ON THE LAKES.

Statistics of Steamers.

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser says:—The present month completes a quarter of a century since the first steamer was launched upon the western lakes. During that period changes of vast magnitude have been effected, by the application of the mighty agent steam. Dense forests, which frowned from the margin of great lakes, have been felled, to give place to thriving villages; and the moody aboriginal occupant, who gazed with wonderment at the approach of the ponderous vehicle, has become extinct, or is known only as a wanderer beyond the limits of the Mississippi. Changes like these have characterized the introduction of steam upon the lakes; and the independent, inquiring spirit, which so distinctly marks the habits of the people of this country, has kept pace with the progress of steam westwardly, and developed the fertility and abounding resources of the prairies, until they have become the granary of the world.

Of those who early participated in the effort to build up this new commerce, but few remain; still, they have vivid recollections of the undertaking, attended as it was by a heavy outlay and much solicitude for its consummation. To them, if not to those now actively engaged in its prosecution, a list of steamers down to the present season must be interesting; and we have, at no inconsiderable time and trouble, been enabled to make up the table below. In arranging it, we have endeavored to be correct; but may have fallen into mistakes, in consequence of the want of official data. Should such be the case, those at the west who have records as authority will make corrections, and call attention in some suitable manner, as we are desirous to obtain such information. The list of boats, with place and date of building, together with their tonnage, will be found annexed.

Name.	Tons.	Where and when built.		Name.	Tons.	Where and when built.	
Walk-in-the-water,	340	Black Rock,	1818	Perry,	352	Perrysburg,	1834
Superior,	300	Buffalo,	1822	Monroe,	341	Monroe,	"
Chippewa,	100	"	1824	Mazeppa,	130	Buffalo,	"
Henry Clay,	348	Black Rock,	1825	Sandusky,	377	Sandusky,	"
Pioneer,	230	"	"	Minessetunk,	250	Godrich,	"
Niagara,	180	"	1826	Jackson,	50	Mt. Clemens	"
William Penn,	275	Erie,	"	Jack Downing,	80	Sandusky,	"
Enterprise,	250	Cleveland,	"	L. Western,	60	Chatham,	"
Peacock,	120	Barcelona,	1829	Fulton,	368	Cleveland,	1835
Newburyport,	75	Erie,	"	Columbus,	391	Huron,	"
Thompson,	242	Huron,	1830	Townsend,	312	Buffalo,	"
Ohio,	187	L. Sandusky	"	United States,	366	Huron,	"
Adelaide,	230	Chippewa,	"	Chicago,	186	St. Joseph,	"
Gratiot,	63	Charleston,	1831	Taylor,	95	Silver Creek	"
Pennsylvania,	395	Erie,	1832	Thames,	160	Chatham,	"
New York,	325	Black Rock,	"	Clinton,	413	Huron,	1836
Brady,	100	Detroit,	"	J. Palmer,	300	Buffalo,	"
Uncle Sam,	280	Gros Isle,	"	Lake Erie,	149	Detroit,	"
Perseverance,	50	Erie,	"	Barcelona,	102	Dunville,	"
Washington (1st),	609	Huron,	1833	United,	37	Detroit,	"
Michigan,	472	Detroit,	"	St. Clair,	250	Sandusky,	"
Webster,	358	Black Rock,	"	Don Quixotte,	80	Toledo,	"
Detroit,	240	Toledo,	"	Crockett,	18	Brunersburg,	"
Lady of the Lake,	26	Mt. Clemens	"	Cincinnati,	116	Sandusky,	"
Marcy,	161	Black Rock,	"	Illinois,	755	Detroit,	1837
North America,	362	Conneaut,	"	Rochester,	472	Richmond,	"
Newberry,	170	Palmer,	"	Madison,	630	Erie,	"
Delaware,	170	Huron,	"	Cleveland,	580	Huron,	"
Victory,	77	Buffalo,	1834	Wisconsin,	700	Conneaut,	"
Porter,	342	Black Rock,	"	Erie,	497	Erie,	"
Jefferson,	428	Erie,	"	Constellation,	483	Charleston,	"

Name.	Tons.	Where and when built.	
B. Hill,	457	Charleston,	1837
Constitution,	443	Conneaut,	"
New England,	416	Black Rock,	"
Milwaukie,	401	Grand Island	"
Wayne,	390	Perrysburg,	"
Macomb,	101	Mt. Clemens	"
Star,	128	Belvidere,	"
Commerce,	80	Sandusky,	"
Mason,	53	Gr'd Rapids,	"
Great Western,	780	Huron,	1838
Buffalo,	613	Buffalo,	"
Chesapeake,	412	Maumee Cit.	"
Vermilion,	385	Vermilion,	"
Lexington,	363	Charleston,	"
Fairport,	259	Fairport,	"
Red Jacket,	148	Grand Island	"
Vance,	75	Perrysburg,	"
J. Allen,	250	Chicago,	"
Washington (2d),	380	Ashtabula,	"
Dole,	162	Chicago,	"

Name.	Tons.	Where and when built.	
Trowbridge,	52	Kalamazoo,	1838
Marshall,	51	Perrysburg,	"
Owashenonk,	45	Grand Hav'n	"
Patronage,	56	St. Joseph,	"
Scott,	240	Huron,	1839
Chautauque,	161	Buffalo,	"
Brothers,	150	Chatham,	"
Kent,	180	"	"
Huron,	149	Newport,	"
Harrison (1st),	63	Erie,	"
Missouri,	612	Vermilion,	1840
Harrison (2d),	326	Maumee Cit.	"
Waterloo,	98	Black Rock,	"
Minos,	400	Chippewa,	"
Indiana,	534	Toledo,	1841
Franklin,	231	Algonac,	1842
Nile,	600	Detroit,	1843
Union,	64	Black Rock,	"
Caroline,	46	Ogdensburg,	1824

Beside the above list, there are a few small boats of which nothing is known other than their names. Among those are the Pantanguishane, Cynthia, Pontiac, and Phenomenon, making, with those above given, an aggregate of 27,000 tons, at a total cost of $3,510,000—$130 a ton being what we deem true data for building and fitting out this description of vessels.

In examining the progress of steam, as applied in propelling vessels on the lakes, we are struck with the very small number of disasters when compared with other sections of the country, especially in the western waters. In the whole period of twenty-five years, there have been but four explosions which might be termed serious. It is true, there are other disasters to record, whose calamitous details are too freshly impressed upon the public mind. The following tabular view presents both these classes:—

Explosions.	Lives lost.
Peacock, September, 1830,	15
Adelaide, June, 1830,	3
Erie, August, 1840,	6
Perry, twice in 1835,	6
Total,	30

Burned.	Lives lost.
Washington, June, 1838,	50
Erie, August, 1841,	250
Vermilion, November, 1842,	5
Caroline (wilful),	5
Total,	310

The incidental disasters, such as collisions, wrecks, &c., are as follows:—Walk-in-the-water, wrecked in a gale in our offing November 1, 1821—total loss. Washington, (1st,) wrecked in a gale, near Long point, in 1833, and one man drowned. She was a splendid new boat, cost $60,000, and the first season out—totally lost. Delaware, wrecked in a gale, near Chicago, in 1834—totally lost. Crockett, wrecked in a gale, near St. Joseph, in 1834—totally lost. Detroit, ashore near Southport, on Lake Michigan, in 1836—totally lost. Adelaide, ashore in a gale, on Lake Michigan, in 1840—totally lost. Taylor, wrecked, at Michigan City, in 1838—totally lost. The Taylor took fire near the mouth of Cattaraugus creek, in the autumn of 1836, but the flames were subdued in time to save the boat. One hand jumped overboard, and was drowned. Don Quixotte, lost in a gale, on Lake Huron, in 1836. Thames, burned by the "Patriots," at Windsor, in 1838. Webster, burned to the water's edge while lying up in our harbor, January 11, 1835. Beside the explosions of the Perry, she has had two collisions with other vessels, in one of which a man was killed. The first season the Great Western came out, she was burned (September 1, 1839) while lying at Detroit. She had been to Chicago, and on returning across Lake St. Clair took fire, but the flames were

apparently extinguished until reaching Detroit, when they burst forth anew, and consumed the boat almost down to the water's edge. The Cynthia, a Canadian ferry-boat, was burned near Malden, in October, 1838. Minnessetunk, sunk by collision with the Erie, near Detroit. She has since been raised, enlarged, and is now known as the Godrich. Little Western, burned at Detroit last season. Macomb, ashore in a gale at the mouth of Detroit river last fall. Niagara, by collision with some other boat, at Huron. Ohio, sunk at Toledo, in 1837. Little Erie, totally lost in the ice last fall, near Detroit. The Sandusky, consumed by fire while lying up in our harbor, last February.

Of the old boats which have gradually gone to decay, we note the following:—Chippewa, Henry Clay, Enterprise, and Pioneer, in this harbor; Peacock and Pennsylvania, at Erie; Marcy and Brady, at Detroit; Thompson, at Huron; Newberry, at Miami City; Perseverance, at Monroe; Uncle Sam, at Charlestown; with some of the smaller boats, whose whereabouts are not distinctly known. Many of the larger class of boats, but seldom used of late, are laid up in ordinary at the places named:—Webster, Townsend, New York, Star, and Monroe, at this port; Jefferson, at Erie; United States, at Cleveland; Michigan, at Detroit; Milwaukie, at Milwaukie. The Porter is now known as the Toronto, in the service of the Canadian authorities; the Minos is the armed steamer, also in the same employ. The Superior was long since dismantled and converted into a ship, and is the only vessel of that description now on the lakes; the Julia Palmer having been converted into a steamer, and the Milwaukie lost in the disastrous gale of November last, upon Lake Michigan. The Cincinnati, Jack Downing, Barcelona, and Mazeppa, have also been converted into sailcraft. The latter is known as the schooner General Scott. The St. Clair was originally known as the Saginaw, Rhode Island, &c., of only 160 tons. During the past winter she was remodeled and enlarged at Detroit, and now rates 250 tons. The Wisconsin was originally 490 tons, but is now being lengthened sixty feet, which will add to her tonnage at least enough to meet the figure given in the table.

The Caroline, whose destruction filled so large a portion of public notice, was originally known as the Carolina, and believed to have been built at Charleston, S. C., at a very early date, as she was rebuilt at Ogdensburg, as given in the table. She was very strongly built, of Norway pine, and copper fastened. After passing down the St. Lawrence, she ran a couple of seasons on the Hudson, when her guards were shipped, so as to admit her through the Erie canal to this city. The date of her destruction is at Schlosser, Niagara county, N. Y., December 29, 1837.

The number of boats yet remaining of the whole once in commission on Lake Erie and the other upper lakes, is about sixty, with an aggregate of 17,000 tons. Of these, some thirty-five only are used when the Consolidation is in existence.

Of the whole number of boats put in commission during the above period, only *ten* were built and owned in Canada.

The first steamer known to be upon Lake Michigan was the Henry Clay. In August, 1827, an excursion of pleasure was made in her to Green Bay, where Governor Cass was holding a treaty with the Winnebagoes. After the treaty was concluded, the governor and suite returned in the Henry Clay. From that period to 1832, some of the boats went to Green Bay, but no farther. On the breaking out of the Black Hawk war, several of the larger boats were chartered by government to convey troops to the disaffected territory, and Chicago, for the first time, was greeted by the sight of one of those strange visiters.

The building of the propeller Hercules is the commencement of a new era in lake navigation, and her owners predict for that description of vessels a large share of the carrying trade, especially upon the upper lakes. The Hercules is 275 tons burthen, 135 feet long, 25 feet beam, 8 feet hold, and put together in the strongest manner. She has

fourteen state-rooms, six feet square, with sufficient additional space for the erection of forty-six berths more; and, from the peculiar symmetry of the vessel, she will doubtless afford ample accommodations for families emigrating. Her space below, for storage, is large, having almost the entire hull of the vessel appropriated for that purpose. The peculiar feature, however, of the Hercules, is her engine and its auxiliaries. On examining the machinery, all are struck with the infinite compactness of the steam apparatus and its perfect simplicity, the whole weighing but fifteen tons. The engine is simple and very small, lies close upon the kelson, and fills but a space of six feet square. It is one of Ericsson's patent, was made at Auburn, and is computed to be of 50-horse power. We might here remark, that the weight of an engine and boilers for one of our largest steamers is estimated at from 60 to 90 tons—the dead weight of which a propeller escapes carrying. The paddles are made of boiler iron, $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch thick, 18 inches broad by 30 long, and are placed on two long wrought-iron shafts, protruding from either side of the stern post. The diameter of the paddles are 6 feet 4 inches. From the superb manner in which the Hercules is built and fitted out, having cost nearly $20,000, it is apparent that the Messrs. Hollisters are determined to give the experiment a full and fair trial. Another boat of the same tonnage, for the same owners, is now being built at Perrysburg, and will be out next month. The Cleveland propeller was launched on the 22d ult., and the fourth vessel of the kind is rapidly progressing toward completion at Chicago.

Ten cords of wood, at a cost of $17, will suffice the propeller per diem; while one of our largest steamers will consume two cords per hour, at a cost of $80 a day. Some of the steamers even exceed this calculation by 33 per cent.

The aggregate and importance of our lake trade is thus spoken of in a report made during the past season by the committee on commerce to congress:—"It appears that, in 1841, there were upon Lake Erie and the upper lakes more than fifty steamers, constructed at a cost of between two and three millions of dollars; and among them some (varying from six to eight hundred tons) which, for strength, seaworthiness, beauty of model, and elegance of finish, may compare advantageously with any in America; and, notwithstanding the exceeding and continued pecuniary pressure of that year, that their aggregate earnings for freight and for passengers, during the season of navigation, and after accomplishing voyages, amounting collectively, by estimation, to near 450,000 miles, were $767,132. During the same year, the probable amount of capital invested in *sail vessels*, on the same lakes, was estimated at $1,250,000, and *their* earnings during the same season are estimated at $750,000. If to these earnings there are to be added $150,000 for freight and toll upon United States products, passed during the same year through the Welland canal, it will be seen that the product of the navigation and commercial business upon these lakes amounts annually to the large sum of $1,700,000; while, at the same time, it has been productive of the vast advantage of furnishing employment and support to great numbers of sailors, and others connected, of necessity, with the business.

"From the reports of the Topographical Bureau, and other documents, which the committee had access to, it farther appears that, during the year 1840, the number of entries and departures of vessels and steamers at Buffalo was 4,061; that, during the same year, the number was equally great at Cleveland; and that, of the 2,000,000 bushels of wheat shipped, 896,550 bushels were cleared from that port for Canada or the Welland canal; and that there were, during the same period, and from the same place, 422 clearances of vessels for Canada or the Welland canal. It farther appears, by those documents, that dutiable merchandise from New York or elsewhere, to the value of $10,000,000, was discharged at Cleveland, and destined for the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, passing down the Ohio canal, and for consumption and supply in the state of Ohio.

"The rapidity with which the navigation and commerce of the lakes has thus grown up, constitutes a striking feature in the general subject. With that is connected a consideration of the influence produced upon those interests by the completion of the great lines of communication between the Hudson and Buffalo, by canal and railway; and between the Ohio river, at the mouth of the Scioto and Lake Erie, at Cleveland, through the Ohio canal. This influence is ably and sufficiently illustrated in the different expositions contained in the reports of the Topographical Bureau; and, if consequences so vast may justly be deduced from the opening of those lines of communication, who can measure the extent of that teeming commerce which will be poured into Lake Michigan through the canal up the Illinois? and how immeasurable will that commerce be swollen and expanded by the completion, now so nearly accomplished, of the Ohio and Indiana canal of the Miami and the Wabash, which terminates in the Miami bay, and of that canal which is to unite Pittsburg with the lakes at Erie, and of all those other lines of communication by railroad which are respectively in a course of completion?

"Of the actual condition of the commerce of the lakes, some adequate conception, it is believed, can be formed. The Secretary of War estimates its annual value at a sum exceeding $25,000,000."

NAVIGATION OF THE HUDSON.

Table of the Periods when the North River closed and opened at Albany, from 1817 *to* 1842.

River closed—		River opened—		Days closed.
1817—December	7,	1818—March	25,	108
1818— "	14,	1819—April	3,	110
1819— "	13,	1820—March	25,	102
1820—November	12,	1821— "	15,	123
1821—December	13,	1822— "	15,	92
1822— "	24,	1823— "	24,	90
1823— "	16,	1824— "	3,	78
1824—January	5,	1825— "	6,	60
1825—December	13,	1826—February	26,	75
1826— "	24,	1827—March	20,	86
1827—November	25,	1828—February	8,	50
1828—December	23,	1829—April	1,	100
1829—January	11,	1830—March	15,	63
1830—December	23,	1831— "	15,	82
1831— "	5,	1832— "	25,	111
1832— "	21,	1833— "	21,	83
1833— "	13,	1834—February	24,	73
1834— "	15,	1835—March	25,	100
1835—November	30,	1836—April	4,	125
1836—December	7,	1837—March	28,	111
1837— "	14,	1838— "	19,	94
1838—November	25,	1839— "	21,	116
1839—December	18,	1840—February	21,	65
1840— "	5,	1841—March	24,	109
1841— "	19,	1842—February	4,	47

The river *throughout* to New York has not always been clear of ice on the days above stated. The time when the first steamboat passed from New York to Albany, or *vice versa*, was, in 1835, March 25; in 1836, April 10; in 1837, March 31; in 1838, March 19; in 1839, March 25; in 1840, February 25; in 1841, March 26; in 1842, February 6. In 1804, the river was closed at Albany until the 6th of April; and in 1807, it opened on the 8th of April. The average time of opening appears to have been, for the whole series of years since 1817, about the 15th of March. The latest period of the season on record at which the river has opened, was the 8th of April (1807). In 1828, the river was navigable through to Albany the whole, or part of each month in the year.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A Residence of Eight Years in Persia, among the Nestorian Christians, with Notices of the Mahommedans.* By the Rev. JUSTIN PERKINS. 8vo. pp. 512. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The author of this volume, in the eight years he devoted to the missionary work in Persia, principally among the Nestorians and Mahommedans, enjoyed rare advantages of becoming acquainted with their manners, customs, habits, character, and peculiarities; and though his object and labors were strictly missionary, his observations were general and extended, as the contents of this volume clearly show. He has combined a variety of the most attractive miscellany and incident with accurate missionary and general information; thus rendering the work acceptable not only to the philanthropic friend of missions, but to the reader who is curious in the search of knowledge in a large and liberal way. "From that vast and varied forest, in which I have so long lived and ranged," says Mr. Perkins in the preface, "I have desired to cull a few leaves of all the different colors, descriptions, and sizes, and so group them together, that the reader may see them as the author saw them, and be furnished with a correct miniature of that forest; while I would keep him constantly reminded, however, of the great object that carried me thither, and informed respecting the prosperity and progress of that object." The fact that no American was ever a resident in that ancient and celebrated country before Mr. Perkins, and the position which the Nestorian Church now occupies in the sympathies of Christendom, are circumstances, among others alluded to above, that must impart a somewhat special interest to this volume. Without feeling, however, a very deep interest in foreign missions, as now conducted, we are constrained to confess that we have seldom, if ever, been so much interested in the perusal of any former production from a similar source. The volume is illustrated with a new and beautiful map of portions of Persia and Turkey, besides twenty-seven colored engravings, as follows:—1. King of Persia. 2. Koordish Narsion. 3. Nestorian of the Mountains. 4. Mount Avarah. 5. Seminary at Oroomiah. 6. Mar Johannan, a Bishop of Oroomiah. 7. Governor of Oroomiah. 8. Priest Abraham. 9. Mar Elias. 10. Priest Tador. 11. A Persian Moollah. 12. Mar Gabriel. 13. A Persian lady at home. 14. A lady veiled to go abroad. 15. A lady gratifying her curiosity. 16. A Nestorian girl carrying water. 17. A Nestorian girl decorated with ornaments. 18. A Nestorian mother and little girl. 19. A Persian Dervish. 20. A Koordish Pasha. 21. A Persian Seyed. 22. Priest Dauha. 23. A Persian Meerza. 24. A Persian Soldier. 25. A Persian Muleteer. 26. A Persian Merchant. 27. Mt. Ararat, as seen from the West. The volume, dedicated "to a mother, who in widowhood, age, infirmity, and dependence, gave her son to the missionary work," is beautifully printed on fine paper, and in every respect worthy of a place in any public or private library.

2.—*A Memoir on Ireland, Native and Saxon.* By DANIEL O'CONNELL, M. P. Vol. 1. 1172—1660. New York: Casserly & Sons. 1843.

The professed object of the great Irish statesman, in the present memoir, is to arouse the attention of the sovereign, and of the honest portion of the English people, to the wrongs which Ireland *has* suffered, and which Ireland *is* suffering, from British misrule. It sets forth the virtues which the Irish nation have exhibited in every phasis of their singular fate, and exhibits in bold relief "the confiscations, the plunder, the robbery, the domestic treachery, the violation of all public faith, and of the sanctity of treaties; the wholesale slaughters, the planned murders, the concerted massacres, which have been inflicted upon the Irish people by the British Government."

3.—*Travels in Egypt, Arabia Petræa, and the Holy Land.* By the Rev. STEPHEN OLIN, D. D., President of the Wesleyan University. With twelve illustrations on steel. In 2 vols. 8vo. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

The wide-spread reputation of Dr. Olin as a popular divine, impressive preacher, and able instructor, will not suffer by the publication of these very interesting volumes. We had read Stephens and Robinson, and feared that it was hardly safe ground to occupy; but the president has shown sound discretion in his work, and he has not labored in vain. We confidently pronounce these volumes an important addition to the standard reading of our time. We feel that, at every step we take, we are in the company of a wise and good man. The book is exactly what was needed by the younger part of the Christian community. It gives all the truly important facts that are to be found in the ponderous and expensive volumes of other travellers, in a condensed form, and at a very low price. We have no doubt that this extensive tour will render the president a popular and attractive college officer. In reading his Travels, we have thought that the author must be a charming companion.

4.—*The H—— Family.* By FREDERIKA BREMER, author of "The Neighbors." Translated from the Swedish. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

The interest with which "*The Neighbors*" have been universally received, testifies to an ennobled taste of the reading community, and is the best guarantee that this little tale will meet with equal favour. In it, our sympathies are not, as in the stale romances of other modern authors, wrought upon by a distorted sickly sentiment of love; by placing the heroes in situations of powerful physical danger, or by casting them into a whirlpool of entangled perplexities. It introduces us into the sanctum sanctorum of human relations, the holy family circle. Here we see the human character unfolding itself in its diversified beauty, through the genial influences of affection, unimpeded in its growth by the realities of life. We recognize in their failings, hopes, struggles, and aspirations, the deep experience of our own soul. We see how love and goodness are a perpetual fountain of bliss to those who, by physical ailments, seem debarred from all joys of life. The character of Elizabeth, the blind girl, is drawn with a masterly hand. Like a comet, she rushes across the quiet sphere of our family group. Shadows sadly predominate in her path of life, but glorious and beautiful is its close. None can peruse this little volume without deriving from it deep and true lessons of life; and we wish it God speed on its mission of love.

5.—*Aletheia; or, Letters on the Truth of Catholic Doctrines.* By the Rev. CHARLES CONSTANTINE PISE, D. D., author of a "History of the Church," "Father Rowland," &c. 18mo. pp. 382. New York: Edward Dunigan.

Dr. Pise is a learned and eloquent divine of the Catholic Church, and moreover an accomplished scholar, and an amiable man. With theology, as the conductor of a mercantile magazine, we have nothing to do. Differing, however, in sentiment, from the author of the present volume, we may be permitted to express our admiration of the truly catholic spirit in which these letters, although distinctly sectarian, are written; and we could wish that all our Protestant friends would imitate the example of Dr. P. in that particular. The object the author had in view in the publication of this volume, as set forth in his preface, was, "of endeavoring to invite, by ingenious attractions, the attention of the young and gay to the most important study which can occupy their minds—to open the gates, as it were, through these means, to the more sublime and almost boundless fields of religious inquiry and controversial investigation, which expand abroad;" and his desire is, "that what he purposed to himself may be obtained: that the doctrines of the church, when read by Protestants in their true character, may command their admiration; and that some, at least, who peruse these letters, may be directed to the sanctuary of Truth."

6.—*Hoboken; a Romance of New York.* By THEODORE S. FAY, author of "Dreams and Reveries of a Quiet Man," "Norman Leslie," "Countess of Ida," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have read this tale with unalloyed pleasure. The interest of the plot is well sustained throughout, and the characters are not exaggerations of humanity. The bad are not demons clothed in the "flesh and blood" of humanity, and the good are not angels of light, or more than progressive mortals. The *morale* of the tale is unexceptionable—pure, elevated, Christian, without cant. Duelling is exhibited in all its horrible deformity; and we think the advocate of "the code of honor" may read these volumes with pleasure, from the interest of the story, and with advantage, from the truthfulness and fidelity of the painting. It is written in the same vein of artless pathos and quiet humor so apparent in the former fictions of Mr. Fay, and on the whole well sustains his reputation as a successful, and, we may add, useful novelist.

7.—*The Simple Cobbler of Aggawam in America.* By Rev. NATHANIEL WARD. Edited by David Pulsifer. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This curious work passed through several editions at London, in 1647, and was reprinted in Boston in 1713. The present edition is prepared from that of 1713, and one of an earlier date. The author's quaint title, from the London edition of 1647, may *perhaps* serve to give the reader some idea of the contents of the volume. It reads as follows:—"The Simple Cobbler of Aggawam in America. Willing to help 'mend his native country, lamentably tattered, both in the upper-leather and sole, with all the honest stitches he can take. And as willing never to be paid for his work, by Old English wonted pay.

> '*It is his trade to patch all the year round, gratis,*
> Therefore I pray, gentlemen, keep your purses.
> When boots and shoes are torn up to the lefts,
> Cobblers must thrust their awls up to the hefts.'"

8.—*Judah's Lion.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: M. W. Dodd, and J. Taylor & Co. 1843.

This last religious novel of Charlotte Elizabeth is considered by her admirers as the most successful effort of her prolific pen. It is deeply imbued with the religious sentiment—as much so as the tales of Mrs. Sherwood, and very much in the same "Protestant, Evangelical" vein. She is, however, a much more lively, enthusiastic, and attractive writer. While we cannot sympathize in all her views touching the great facts connected with a higher life, and the spirit evinced, (honest, we believe, towards a branch of the great Church of the Good and the True,) we certainly appreciate that devoted heroism that clings to and overcomes the evil of a somewhat gloomy and discouraging faith. We would state, as an evidence of the popularity of the present work, that two distinct editions have been published by the houses named at the head of this article, each printed on good paper, handsome type, and neatly bound in muslin.

9.—*The Young Disciple; or, a Memoir of Anzonetta R. Peters.* By the Rev. JOHN A. CLARK. New York: Robert Carter.

The present volume of religious biography has passed through four editions, and is, we believe, quite popular among a large class of Christians. The subject of this biographical delineation was *so like* the rest of her species—we quote from the author's preface—that those who open the volume with the expectation of finding in the original elements of her character something singularly striking, strange or uncommon, will probably close the book in disappointment. That there was nothing remarkable in Miss Peters' intellectual powers, in her opportunities for mental cultivation, renders, in the view of the author, the simple facts connected with her religious history far more instructive and valuable.

10.—*The Pictorial Bible, being the Old and New Testaments, according to the authorized version:* Illustrated with more than one thousand Engravings, representing the Historical Events, after celebrated pictures; the Landscape Scenes from original drawings, or from authentic engravings; and the subjects of Natural History, Costume, and Antiquities, from the best sources. Royal 8vo. Part 1. New York: J. S. Redfield. Boston: Saxton & Pierce.

With the character of the Bible, we presume most of our readers are acquainted—at least they ought to be. The points of difference in the present edition, the first part of which is before us, consist chiefly in the pictorial illustrations alluded to in the title-page, as quoted at the head of this notice. The first part contains ninety-six pages of letter-press, with more than one hundred neatly executed engravings, and includes Genesis, and fourteen chapters of the book of Exodus. It is printed on a large, new, and handsome type, and fine white paper. The numbers are to appear hereafter semi-monthly, and be completed in sixteen, at twenty-five cents each. It appears to be well calculated to interest the young, and will doubtless induce a more frequent perusal of the inspired volume.

11.—*Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature.* By JOHN KITTO, editor of "the Pictorial Bible," &c., assisted by various able Scholars and Divines. New York: Mark H. Newman.

This work, a republication from the London edition, is to appear in monthly parts of 80 pages each, and completed in fifteen numbers. The present number is illustrated with a beautiful map of Palestine, according to the ancient divisions; and each number will be illustrated with a map, or engraving on steel, comprehending some of the most interesting scenes in Scripture history. The work is also profusely illustrated with wood engravings, representing landscapes, buildings, monuments, plants, animals, illustrations of manners and customs, and whatever can be more clearly displayed by pictorial than written description, or by which the written text may be in any degree elucidated.

12.—*Pictorial History of the United States, from the Discovery of the Northmen, in the tenth century, to the present time.* By JOHN FROST, A. M. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Two parts of this new history of the United States have appeared, illustrated with more than fifty engravings. The work altogether will be completed in twenty numbers, and illustrated with three hundred engravings from original designs, by Croome. It is printed on a clear, large type, and very white, firm paper, and is altogether the handsomest specimen of pictorial publications as yet produced in this country.

13.—*Organon of Homœopathic Medicine.* By SAMUEL HAHNEMANN. 8vo. pp. 222. New York: William Radde.

This is the first American, from the British translation of the fourth German edition, with improvements and additions from the fifth, by the North American Academy of the Homœopathic healing art. The occasion which led to its publication was, we are informed, the express desire of Hahnemann, that an enlarged and improved English version of it might appear in the United States; and the Academy, under whose auspices it is published, entrusted the version of it to several eminent Homœopathic practitioners of Philadelphia, who materially aided in its preparation. The contents of the work may be arranged under the four following divisions, although they do not occur in this order: 1. Of discoveries—experimental propositions, or the results of actual experiment. 2. Of directions or instructions. 3. Of theoretical and philosophical illustrations. 4. Of defences and accusations. The pretensions of a theory of medicine which ranks among its advocates so distinguished a founder, and so many respectable and learned converts in all parts of the world, is worthy of the patient and careful examination of every honest physician, of whatever school. We should have little faith in the skill of the "M. D." who condemned any "theory" without a knowledge of its principles, or some little experience in the "practice."