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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1843.

ART. I.—THE BOOK TRADE OF GERMANY.*

THE book trade, when carried on, as it ought to be, for the intellectual and moral improvement of mankind, is certainly the most noble and most beneficial of all branches of commerce. The height at which it stands at the present time, has only been reached by degrees. The object of the following statements is to show its development, progress, and successive changes. The history of the book trade may be divided into three different periods :—

1. From the earliest records of a trade in manuscripts to the invention of the printing-press, or from B. C. 1040 to A. D. 1440.
2. From the invention of the printing-press, and the establishment of the Frankfort and Leipzig book-fairs, (1440–1545,) to the first German booksellers' association, (1765.)
3. From the formation of the first booksellers' association, (1765,) to the foundation and erection of the German booksellers' exchange at Leipzig, (1836,) and the greater development of the book trade.

In several parts of the Old Testament we find traces of the existence and circulation of books—that is, manuscripts—among the Hebrews in the time of David; but it remains doubtful whether the copyists of the laws and genealogies of the Jewish people, (who were chiefly priests,) also made copies *for sale*.

Among the *Greeks*, we find that the copyists of manuscripts made it their business not only to sell copies, but also to keep particular writers for the purpose of copying. Diogenes of Laertes mentions that there were, at Athens, public shops, in which manuscripts were sold. It appears also to have been a general custom among the learned to meet in these shops, in order to hear the reading of manuscripts, (probably for a remuneration,) or to hold lectures on new manuscripts. Hermodorus, a dis-

* An Historical and Statistical Account of the Book Trade, from the Earliest Records to the year 1840, with particular reference to Germany. By M. HENRY MEDINGER, Foreign Member of the Statistical Society of London.

ciple of Plato, is said to have carried on a considerable trade in Plato's works, but without the consent of that philosopher, and to have extended their sale as far as Sicily.

In Alexandria, then a central point for men of letters, and a seat of learning, the trade in manuscripts must have been very considerable, since there was a particular market established there for the sale of manuscripts, which was chiefly carried on by Greeks. That trade, however, soon sunk to a mere manufacturing business. A great number of manuscripts were only copied for sale—that is, hastily, without comparing them with the original; and even intentional additions were made in them, of which Strabo complains.

Of the mercantile literary intercourse of the *Romans*, we have more ample and accurate information. In the time of the republic, the Romans of distinction had copies made by their slaves, or by freedmen, of all works which they wished to possess.

These copyists were called *librarii*, or *bibliopolæ*, which name was afterwards only bestowed on the *sellers* of manuscripts. The *bibliopolæ* are first mentioned under the reign of the emperors, by several contemporary writers. They belonged, probably, to the freed class of people, who had before solely attended to the copying business.

Cicero, Horace, Martial, Catullus, &c., state the following persons as *bibliopolæ*:—The “speculative” Tryphon, the “prudent” Atrectus, the “freedman,” Tul. Lucensis, the brothers Sosius, Q. Pollius Valerianus, Decius, Ulpus, &c. They took particular care to have the copies of manuscripts carefully compared and examined—a task which was often done by the authors themselves. Yet at Rome, also, cheating took place with celebrated names, as we are informed by Galenus. The shops of the *bibliopolæ* were in public places, or frequented streets; as, for instance, in the vicinity of the Temple of Peace, the Forum, Palladium, the Sigilarii, the Argilletum, and principally in the Via Sandalinaria, as stated by Gellius. Here, as at Athens, the learned often met for discussion and lectures. Advertisements of new works were stuck up at the entrance, or upon the pillars in the interior. It appears, also, that certain sums of money were sometimes paid to the authors, and that several works were the exclusive property of some *bibliopolæ*. Those public sellers of manuscripts were not only to be met with in Rome, but also in provincial towns; and it is highly probable, though it is not recorded, that there were also many of them at Constantinople,* where literature and the arts were much cultivated.

The *Arabs* were famous for their learning; and it was particularly at the time of the Khalifs Haroun al Raschid and Mamoun, (at Bagdad,) that men of letters were cherished and favored, without distinction of religious confession. These enlightened princes caused many Hebrew, Syrian, and Greek manuscripts, to be translated into Arab; and the costly collections of manuscripts found in later years at Tunis, Algiers, and Fez, as well as those in the library of the Escorial in Spain, show that great activity must have prevailed at that time in the sale of manuscripts.

* The book-bazaar, at Constantinople, in the nineteenth century, seems to be much the same as in times of old, where some writers are employed in copying manuscripts, and other persons in coloring and glazing them. There is only one bookshop at Galata, (a suburb of Constantinople,) for European printed books.—*Vide Michaud, Voyage en Orient.*

After the fall of the Roman empire, the sciences took refuge in the rapidly increasing monasteries, where many of the monks were constantly occupied in copying manuscripts, and thus laid the foundation of valuable libraries. But the freedom of intercourse was wanting, and it was only in the twelfth century that science again ventured to leave the cloister-walls. With the rise of the University of Paris, an increase of sellers of manuscripts, particularly on theological subjects, soon became visible in that city. Pierre de Blois mentions a "publicus mango librorum;" and, in the year 1259, special regulations were imposed by the University on these public sellers, called "librarii, id. stationarii," respecting the sale and lending (or letting-out) of manuscripts. New and more severe laws were published in 1323, from which we learn that by the name of "stationarii" were chiefly meant the booksellers, (manuscript-sellers,) and by that of "librarii," only book-brokers.

Those laws were sworn to by twenty-nine booksellers and brokers, among whom were two women. At the University of Bologna, also, similar laws, bearing the dates of 1259 and 1289, are on record; and the same existed at Vienna, and probably at Salerno, Padua, Salamanca, &c., though they are not recorded.

Not only at the universities, however, but in other towns, likewise, the sale and letting-out of manuscripts were carried on extensively, till a stop was put to the trade by an invention which enabled two men to produce, in one day, more copies than two hundred and fifty writers could have done in the same time. We mean the *printing-press*, which has so eminently contributed to raise Europe to that high station which gives her the ascendancy over all other parts of the globe.

The art of printing seems to have been exercised in China and Japan long before the time of Gutenberg. The Chinese claim to have been acquainted with it as early as the reign of their emperor Wu-Wang, B. C. 1100; but, if it be so, it has never reached a great development, since it still continues there in its primitive imperfection. It may be that it was brought to Europe by way of Venice, and that Gutenberg acquired the secret, in some way or other, during his travels and his long absence from Mayence; but, as long as the fact is not proved, he must, in Europe, be considered as the sole inventor.

Neither has it been proved that Laurence Janszoon, (Koster,) of Haarlem, introduced that art into Haarlem in the year 1430, and consequently before the time of Gutenberg. On the contrary, the result of several investigations on the subject is wholly in favour of Gutenberg.*

John Gutenberg's† great invention, which he seems to have first applied at Strasburg, between the years 1436 and 1442, but which he more extensively developed a few years later in his native town, (Mayence,) in partnership with John Fust, (Faust,) a man of fortune, who advanced the necessary capital for the printing establishment, could not fail to be hailed with welcome by all enlightened men in Europe. The Chronicle of Cologne records the year 1440 as the time of the invention, which has been

* *Vide* "Geschichte des Buchhandels und der Buchdruckerkunst," (History of the Book Trade and the Art of Book-Printing, by Frederick Metz.)—Darmstadt, 1834.

† He was descended from a noble family of the name of F. zum Gensfleisch, but he adopted the name of his mother, who also came from a noble family in Mayence, called zum Guten Berg.

generally adopted as the year in which the first book was printed by Gutenberg, although the work itself is without any date.

Book printing was at first executed by means of wood tables, (made of hard box-wood, or pear-tree-wood,) in which the alphabet was cut out; but Gutenberg himself soon discovered the tediousness and imperfection of that mode of proceeding, and, by dividing the alphabet, took the single letters out, and used them separately, supplying the decayed letters, from time to time, by new blocks.* The cutting out of each letter being, however, still attended with great loss of time, Gutenberg made forms of lead, into which he poured some hot metal, which were thus moulded into letters; and Peter Schoeffer, (born at Gernsheim, on the Rhine, who was at that time caligraph at the Academy of Paris, for painting the capital letters in manuscripts,) when he entered the service of Gutenberg and Fust, and married Fust's daughter, invented a steel stamp, with which he stamped the forms in copper tables, and into these forms, so cut out, he poured the liquid metal, and formed the metal letters.

In the year 1452, Gutenberg and Fust began their great enterprise of printing the Bible (in Latin) with such letters; and, after three years' laborious exertion, they finished it in splendid style. After that, some disputes arose between the partners, and they separated. Gutenberg published, in 1457, an astrological-medical calendar, with the date upon it; and Fust and Schoeffer continued the printing of bibles. Fust went several times to Paris to sell his bibles, and made a good business of it; but was at length persecuted by the monks and manuscript-sellers, and in 1466 died suddenly in Paris, which induced the monks to spread the report that the Evil One had taken him off.

The inventors at first kept their art a secret; but, in the year 1462, when Mayence was taken by storm, and half burnt by Adolphus of Nassau, many of the printers' assistants fled; and the art of printing soon spread to other parts of Germany, and subsequently to Switzerland, Italy, France, Holland, England, &c.

In the year 1530, there were already about two hundred printing-presses in Europe. The first introduction of this invention into Italy was at Subbiaco, in 1465; into Paris, in 1469; into England, (Westminster,) in 1474; into Spain, (Barcelona,) in 1475; into Abyssinia, in 1521; into Mexico, in 1550; into the East Indies, (Goa,) in 1577; into Peru, (Lima,) in 1586; into North America, (Cambridge, Boston, and Philadelphia,) in 1640, &c. Bibles, prayer-books, works on ecclesiastical history, and school-books, were most in demand at this epoch.

One of the most active printers and booksellers of this period was Ant. Kober, at Nuremberg, (1473-1513,) who had twenty-four presses, and nearly one hundred workmen in his employ, and kept open shops at Frankfort, Leipzig, Amsterdam, and Venice, all conducted with the greatest regularity and order. He had on sale not only works of his own publication, but also works of other publishers. At Ulm and Basle, there were likewise several booksellers carrying on an extensive trade. The many pilgrimages (Wallfahrten) to holy places in the interior of Germany, (which were then as much frequented as the sacred shrines in India, and

* A number of *fac similia* of the earliest prints are about to be published by Dr. Falkenstein, under the title of "Entstehung und Ausbildung der Buchdruckerkunst." (Discovery and Progress of the Art of Book-Printing.) Leipzig, printed for B. G. Teubner.

are so still in some Roman Catholic countries,) offered them good opportunities for disposing of their books, particularly of those having a religious tendency, which were then printed on cheap linen paper, instead of the expensive parchment formerly in use. But it was chiefly at Frankfort-on-Maine, where so many strangers and merchants assembled at the time of the fair, that the book trade flourished. Ant. Kober, of Nuremberg, Christ. Plantin, of Antwerp, and Stephanus, (Etienne,) of Paris, are recorded as booksellers visiting the Frankfort fair, as early as the year 1473.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the principal booksellers came from Basle, in Switzerland. One of them, Christ. Froschauer, wrote to Ulrich Zwingli, in 1526, informing him of the rapid and profitable sale of his books at Frankfort, to persons who had sent for them from all parts. In 1549, Operin, of Basle, publisher of the classics, visited Frankfort, and made a profitable speculation. At this period appeared Luther, the great champion of the Protestant world, protesting loudly and openly, both in speech and in writing, against the many abuses that had crept into the church of Rome; and the great cause of the Reformation, while it derived great assistance from the printing-press, repaid this benefit by contributing largely to its development and extension. Saxony, with its enlightened universities, (Wittenberg and Leipzig,) now became the seat and central point of free theological discussion and investigation, and the booksellers soon found it worth their while to visit also the Leipzig fair. Besides, the literary intercourse in that country was free and unfettered; whilst at Frankfort it had to contend, in later years, with several difficulties, arising from the peculiar situation of a smaller state, and the restrictions and vexations of an Imperial Board of Control, (Kaiserliche Bücher Commission,) established by the German emperor, through the influence of the Catholic clergy. Archbishop Berthold, of Mayence, had previously (in 1486) established a similar censorship in his dominions. The chief object of that Board was to watch and visit the book-shops, which in Frankfort were all situated in one street, still called the Buchgasse, seizing forbidden books, claiming the seven privilege copies, and, in fact, exercising the power of a most troublesome police, against which the booksellers often remonstrated, but without success. At length the principal part of the book trade withdrew to Leipzig. The last visit of any Saxon bookselling house of renown to Frankfort, was made by the Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, in the year 1764.

The first accurate information respecting the Leipzig book fair begins with the year 1545, when the booksellers Steiger and Boskopf, of Nuremberg, visited the fair. In 1556, Clement, of Paris, and in 1560, Pietro Valgrisi, of Venice, resorted thither.

In 1589, the number of new works brought to the fair was three hundred and sixty-two; of which two hundred were upon theological subjects, forty-eight on jurisprudence, and forty-five on philosophy and philology. Of the whole number, two hundred and forty-six, or 68 per cent, were written in the Latin language.

In 1616, the number of new works was exactly doubled. Of the whole number, (seven hundred and thirty-one,) three hundred and sixty-nine were upon theology, sixty-seven on jurisprudence, and ninety-nine on philosophy and philology. The number of works on history, geography, and politics, had increased from twenty-five to seventy-eight, and those on physics and medicine from nineteen to forty.

In 1616, there were fourteen printers and booksellers residing in Leipzig. The chief publishers there were—Jac. Apel, Joh. Boerner, Elias Rehfeld, Joh. Eyering, Christ. Ellinger, Henning Grosse, jun., Grosse, sen., Abr. Lamberg, Casp. Klosemann, Barth. Voigt, and John Perfert, who brought to the catalogue of the Easter fair, in 1616, one hundred and fifty-three new works, which they had published at Leipzig. The number of publishers, of some consideration, in other German towns, in 1616, is stated as follows:—In Frankfort-on-Maine, 8; Nuremberg, 7; Jena, 4; Ulm and Hamburg, each, 3; Wittenberg, Strasburg,* Gotha, Cologne, and Breslau, each, 2; Lubeck, Goslar, Rostock, and Luneburg, each, 1.

The number of publishers from abroad is not mentioned in the Leipzig catalogue, but the number of their publications is given, viz:—From Venice, 57 new works; from France, 47, (including Lyons, with 13;) from Holland, 38; from Switzerland, 22; from England, 4. Unfortunately, the thirty years' war checked the book trade of Leipzig, and of all Germany. After that most calamitous war, the trade in books between Leipzig and the Roman Catholic countries of Europe, including Italy, (Venice,) almost ceased, and with France it greatly diminished. On the other hand, a new extension took place with Protestant countries, particularly with Holland, (Leyden and Amsterdam,) and the interior of Germany.

This is exhibited in a marked manner by a comparison of the year 1616 with 1716, after an interval of a century. The number in the latter year was only five hundred and fifty-eight. The greatest decrease was in theological works advocating Roman Catholic doctrines, which had dwindled from one hundred and thirty-five to one. Protestant theological works, on the other hand, had maintained their former number. At this period, the proportion of Latin works had very much diminished—out of five hundred and fifty-eight, only one hundred and fifty-seven, or 28 instead of 68 per cent, were written in that language. It is worthy of remark that, at the three periods mentioned, not a single work on philosophy or philology, written in the German language, is enumerated. Latin alone was used in treating of those subjects. At the next period, which will presently be noticed, such works in German are very numerous.

A partner of the Weidmannsche Buchhandlung at Leipzig, Phil. Erasmus Reich, gave, in 1765, the first impulse to the German Booksellers' Association, (Deutschen Buchhändler Verein.)

The laws and regulations of that association were drawn up in the same year, and signed by fifty-nine booksellers. A secretary was elected annually, and their meetings were held at the "Quandt's Hof," in Leipzig. Its chief object was directed against all counterfeit works, (Nachdruck,) and particularly against an Austrian bookseller at Vienna, of the name of J. Thom. Edler von Trattner, who carried on the counterfeit business openly and extensively.

After the death of Reich, in December, 1787, a temporary stop took place in the intercourse of the booksellers at Leipzig; but P. G. Kummer, of Leipzig, renewed it in 1792, by hiring several rooms in Richter's Coffee-house for the meetings of the Leipzig booksellers; and C. C. Horvath, of Potsdam, another active bookseller, founded a similar establishment in

* At that period Strasburg and all Alsace still belonged to Germany, and the German language had prevailed there from a remote age.

1797, in the Pauliner Hof, (Paulinum,) for all other booksellers from Germany, and from abroad.

How far the establishment of this association contributed to the rapid increase of the book trade of Leipzig at this period, and to what extent that increase was owing to the general development of knowledge in Germany, and a greater thirst for literary and scientific acquirements, cannot be separately distinguished; but in 1789, after an interval of sixty-three years, the number of new publications brought to the Leipzig fair had nearly quadrupled, having risen from five hundred and fifty-eight to two thousand one hundred and fifteen; and, compared with 1616, it had trebled. Theological works continued to be very numerous, although their proportion, from the greater increase of other publications, was diminished. The proportion of Latin works had fallen off, from the same cause, to 9 per cent; their actual number had increased from one hundred and fifty-seven to one hundred and ninety-three. In this year, German works on philosophy and philology are first mentioned. Several other classes of publications, also, which were not brought to the fair, or were not distinguished, in 1716, are noticed in this year. They consist of books on mathematics, natural history and agriculture, German poems, novels, and theatrical publications, works on education, and critical journals.

In this year, the following towns produced the greatest number of the new works noticed in the Leipzig catalogue:—

Leipsic,.....	355	Breslau,.....	48
Berlin,.....	261	Strasburg,.....	41
Vienna,.....	101	Dresden,.....	36
Frankfort,.....	100	Hanover,.....	36
Halle,.....	61	Erlangen,.....	35
Göttingen,.....	56	Brunswick,.....	30
Hamburg,.....	56	Götha,.....	29
Nuremberg,.....	55	Tübingen,.....	27
Augsburg,.....	50	Jena,.....	24

and of foreign countries—

Switzerland, (Basle, Zurich, Berne, St. Gall, Winterthur,).....	91
France, (Paris, Lyons, Strasburg,).....	52
Denmark, (Copenhagen, Flensburg,).....	45
Poland, (Warsaw,).....	12
Hungary, (Presburg, Pesth,).....	12
Liefland, (Riga,).....	9
Holland, (Amsterdam, Leyden,).....	9
Italy, (Turin, Pavia,).....	6
England, (London,).....	2

In 1778, the number of sellers of books, prints, and music, in Germany and the adjacent countries, in connexion with Leipzig, is stated to have been two hundred and eighty-two. In 1795, it had increased to three hundred and thirty-two; and in 1822 it was five hundred and sixty-six.

We may insert here a classified list of the new works brought to Leipzig in 1789, and in the years previously noticed, which has been extracted from the fair catalogue, and published in Koehler's "Beiträge zur Ergänzung der Deutschen Literatur," (Contributions to a complete Exposition of German Literature,) vol. i., p. 234.

DESCRIPTION OF WORKS.	1589.	1616.	1716.	1789.
Theology, Latin, Protestant,.....	44	72	51	22
German, ".....	76	162	192	251
Latin, Roman Catholic,.....	65	117	1	14
German, ".....	15	18	...	74
Jurisprudence, Latin,.....	45	63	23	32
German,.....	3	4	10	127
Physics and Medicine, Latin,.....	17	33	16	66
German,.....	2	7	42	142
History, Geography, and Politics, Latin,.....	18	47	22	17
German,.....	7	31	72	301
Philosophy and Philology, Latin,.....	45	99	41	40
German,.....	155
Mathematics,.....	57
Natural History, Agriculture, &c.,.....	131
Poems, Latin,.....	12	30	3	2
German,.....	35
Novels and Theatrical Works,.....	276
Education,.....	69
Critical Journals,.....	136
Works on Arts, and Miscellanies,.....	13	48	85	168
Total,.....	362	731	558	2,115

At the end of the eighteenth century, and the beginning of the nineteenth, the French intrusion, and the oppressive system of the new Imperial French government, spread over Germany, checking all freedom of literary intercourse. A respectable bookseller of Nuremberg, (J. Phil. Palm,) was shot on the 26th August, 1806, by order of Napoleon, merely for having forwarded a political pamphlet directed against the despotism of the French. After the downfall of Napoleon, the German press soon recovered from its forced lethargy, and has since produced works which will always rank high in the estimation of nations.

At the Easter fair of 1825, the German booksellers' corporation was, by the exertions of Fred. Campe, of Nuremberg, of Horvath, and others, united into one public body, under the name of "Boersenverein der Deutschen Buchhandler," (Exchange Union of the German Booksellers.) Campe drew up their regulations, which were revised in 1831, and at the anniversary meeting, in 1838, published as the "Statuten für den Boersenverein vom 14 Maerz, 1838," (Statutes of the Exchange Union, 14th March, 1838.)

The number of its members was 409 in 1832, and 611 in 1839, an increase of one-half. The number in each of the intermediate years was as follows:—

1833,.....	432	1836,.....	570
1834,.....	454	1837,.....	606
1835,.....	504	1838,.....	607

On the 26th October, 1834, the first stone was laid at Leipzig of the new exchange building for booksellers. (Deutsche Buchhandler Boerse,) which was opened in April, 1836. Each member pays two dollars annually, and five dollars upon admission. Before he is received, he must prove his establishment as a bookseller by a printed circular, signed by himself and the authorities of his town, and must send to the secretary a written obligation to adhere to the regulations of the society, not to meddle with counterfeits, and, in case of a dispute, to submit to arbitrators

named by the committee. They have a printed journal of their own, "Boersenblatt für den Deutschen Buchhandel," published, from the 1st January, 1834, weekly; from the 1st January, 1837, twice a week; and during the Easter fair, daily; containing all government publications respecting the book trade in Germany and abroad, many statistical accounts, advertisements of new works, of old works wanted, &c.

The first printed catalogue of all the books brought to the Frankfort fair, appeared at that town in the year 1564, published by Geo. Willer, of Augsburg. That catalogue was continued till 1597, when it was followed by a general Fair catalogue, "Allgemeines Messverzeichniss aller Bücher, so zu Frankfurt am Main verkauft worden," (General Catalogue of all the books which were sold at the fair at Frankfort-on-Maine,) published by Peter Kropf, up to 1604.

At Leipzig, a similar catalogue was printed in 1598, to which a special privilege was granted in 1600. From that time, it has appeared annually; and since the middle of the eighteenth century it has been edited by one house, (Weidmannsche Buchhandlung.) It is published in two parts. The first part appears at Easter, and the second part in autumn, under the following title:—"Allgemeines Verzeichniss der Bücher, welche von Michaelis 1839 bis Ostern 1840, neu gedruckt oder neu aufgelegt worden sind, mit Angabe der Verleger, Bogenzahl, und Preise, nebst einem Anhang von Schriften die künftig erscheinen sollen," (General Catalogue of the books which have been printed or reprinted from Michaelmas, 1839, to Easter, 1840, with the names of the publishers, the number of sheets, and the prices; together with an Appendix, containing a list of the works which are about to appear.) "Leipsic, in der Weidmannschen Buchhandlung."

This catalogue contains an alphabetical list of the publishers, and of the new works published by them, with the number of sheets, and the shop prices—also, an alphabetical register of the names of the authors, and a separate list of all new novels, and of new works printed abroad, (foreign literature.)

Another and more correct catalogue is that of Hinrichs, which also, since 1797, has appeared twice a year, (at the Easter fair, and at the autumn, or Michaelmas fair,) and contains only the books that have really appeared, (excluding those merely advertised, which are inserted in the Weidmannsche catalogue,) though in Hinrichs's, also, the same works are sometimes inserted under two or three different titles. The Hinrichssche catalogue appears under the following title:—"Verzeichniss der Bücher und Landkarten, welche vom Jan. bis Juni, 1839, (und vom Juli bis Decbr. 1839,) neu erschienen oder neu aufgelegt worden sind, mit Angabe der Bogenzahl, der Verleger, der Preise, &c., literarischen Nachweisungen und einer wissenschaftlichen Übersicht, Leipzig, 82te und 83te Fortsetzung, 1839," (Catalogue of the books and maps which have appeared or been reprinted from January to June, 1839, and from July to December, 1839,) with a specification of the number of sheets, the publishers and prices, &c., together with literary intelligence, and a scientific review. J. C. Hinrichs, Leipzig, 82d and 83d part, 1839.)

The following lexicons serve as guides (to booksellers) for works already published:—

Theophili Georgi.—"Allgemeines Europäisches Bücher Lexicon," (General European Book Lexicon,) published by Georgi, Leipzig, 1742,

fol. ; containing all the older works, with their dates and prices, and number of sheets.

Kayser.—"Bücher Lexicon," (Book Lexicon,) Leipzig, 1835, 6 vols. 4to., published by Louis Schumann ; containing all works from 1750 to 1832.

Heinsius.—"Allgemeines Deutsches Bücher Lexicon oder vollstaendiges Alphabetisches Verzeichniss aller von 1700 bis zu ende 1834, in Deutschland und in den angrenzenden mit Deutschen Sprache and Literatur verwandten Laendern, gedruckten Bücher," (General German Lexicon of Books, or a complete Alphabetical Catalogue of all Books printed in Germany, and in the adjoining countries, connected with the German Language and Literature, from 1700 to the end of 1834,) published by Heinsius since 1793.

It may not be uninteresting to give an insight into the mode in which the book trade of Germany is carried on.

It is divided into—

1. The publisher's business (Verlagsgeschäft.)
2. The bookseller's business (Sortimentshandel.)
3. The agencies (Commissionsgeschäft.)

The first two branches are frequently united, and often all three are carried on together. The business of the publisher needs little description. He buys the manuscript from the author, and gets it printed, either by his own presses or by other parties for his account, and sends copies to such booksellers as he thinks likely to sell the work. The invoice is put on the outside of the parcel, half-folded up, so that only the head, bearing the name of the bookseller to whom it is directed, and the name of the publisher from whom it comes, is to be seen. The parcels are all put in one bale, and sent to the publisher's agent in Leipzig, who distributes them to the different agents in that town. It will be seen, in one of the accompanying tables, that every respectable bookseller of Germany employs an agent in Leipzig. Such copies of new works are called "Nova ;" on the invoice is put "pr. Nov.," (*pro Novitate*.) They are sent "*à condition*," (*à cond.*), that is, with the option to keep them, or to send them back (*zu remittiren*) after some time.

By these conditional consignments, private persons have the advantage of being able to look into the merit of a work before they are called upon to buy it, whereby new publications get to all parts of Germany, and at the same price as at the place of publication—a system which is quite peculiar to the German book trade, and which has certainly much contributed to the diffusion of knowledge in Germany. The prices are put down either at the shop price or net price. On the shop price, (*ordinair*), a discount of one-third, or $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, is usually allowed by the publishers to the trade for books ; and for prints and journals one-fourth, or 25 per cent. Books already published for some time are seldom sent out *à condition*, but must be ordered ; which is done by sending a small slip of paper, (*Verlangszettel*), containing the name of the publisher, the name of the bookseller who orders, and the title of the work, to the agent of the publisher, who transmits the work by the first opportunity, and, if quickly wanted, by post.

Every publisher of note sends some copies of his publications to his agent in Leipzig, in order that he may execute, without delay, any orders

which may come in; so that the shortest and cheapest way of procuring a work is generally by sending to Leipzig for it.

The book trade of Germany is divided into the *northern* and *southern* districts. Many of the northern publishers have a separate agent at Berlin, and many of the southern have agents at Nuremberg, Frankfurt, Vienna, Stuttgart, &c. The latter town at present enjoys a high reputation for the activity of its booksellers, and the number of men of letters who reside there.*

The book trade of Stuttgart has had a gazette of its own since 1837, intended particularly for the south of Germany, (*Süddeutsche Buchhändler Zeitung*;) and there is some intention of establishing a book-fair also at Stuttgart, for the booksellers of the south of Germany and of Switzerland, many of whom do not visit Leipzig, on account of its being so distant.

The book department is so very intricate, that the chief booksellers of Germany consider it best, for the sake of facility to all parties concerned, to visit the fairs of Leipzig personally, or to send a confidential clerk to settle their accounts there with their agents, and with other booksellers from the interior and from abroad, with whom they are connected, and whom they usually meet at the Easter fair, (Leipzig has three fairs annually, but the Easter fair has been fixed upon for regulating the bookseller's accounts,) or to arrange with them respecting new publications, &c.

About fifty years ago, the new publications were only forwarded to Leipzig at the time of the Easter (*Jubilatemesse*) and autumn fair, (*Michaelismesse*,) which has now been changed to monthly, or even more frequent transmissions. Many thousand bales of printed books arrive annually at Leipzig, and are again sent away from it. The books taken or ordered conditionally (*à cond.*) were regularly returned at the Easter fair, whilst now many booksellers take the liberty to extend that period, and to return such books, called "Remittenden," or, jocosely, "Krebse," (crabs,) after two or three years, to the publishers; so that several of the latter are almost inclined not to send out any more of their publications unless they be ordered; which, however, cannot be done without injury to themselves and to the trade at large, or without a total change in the present system.

In the first part of the eighteenth century, several means were resorted to, by some publishers, to dispose of publications, either by lowering the

* Among the former was J. G. Cotta, a name of high renown in Germany, and throughout Europe. He was a descendant of an old Italian family established at Tübingen, where his family carried on the book trade for nearly two hundred years. He received a good education at the University of Tübingen, and possessed an enlightened understanding, and a liberal, generous mind. He patronized Schiller, whose "Horen" he published in 1795. In 1797, he published Schiller's "Musen Almanach," and, later, the works of Goëthe, Herder, Johannes Müller, &c. In the year 1795, he first published a political paper, called "Posselt's Europäische Annalen," (Posselt's European Annals,) which name was afterwards (in 1798) changed into that of the "Allgemeine Zeitung," which still enjoys the reputation of being the first political paper of Continental Europe, with regard to the accuracy of its information and the number of its foreign correspondents. He left, after his death, in 1832, four establishments—at Tübingen, Stuttgart, Angsburg, and Munich—in the first three towns, under the name of J. G. Cotta'sche Buchhandlung, (Cotta's book-shop,) and in the latter (Munich) under the name of "Literarische Artistische Anstalt," (Literary and Artists' Institution.) He likewise published a literary paper of renown, "Das Morgenblatt," (since 1806,) to which are added as supplements, "Das Kunstblatt," and "Das Literaturblatt."

prices, or by selling the books by lotteries, or through Jews and brokers. But a still greater evil arose from the numerous counterfeits of works of renown. Several privileges were granted for the protection of publishers—the first, in 1496, by the German emperor. A privilege was also granted in 1527, by Duke George of Saxony, to Dr. Emser, for his “New Testament,” published by Wolfgang Stoeckel, Dresden; and Luther received likewise a full privilege for his “Translation of the Bible,” printed by Hanns Lufft, at Wittenberg, in the year 1534.

The nefarious copying of printed works was, however, carried on for years, to the great detriment of respectable publishers. These counterfeits were principally produced at Vienna, and at Reutlingen, in Würtemberg.

It is only between the years 1832 and 1836 that the counterfeiting of such works has been prohibited in Austria, Prussia, Würtemberg, Baden, and most of the minor states of Germany; and strong hopes are entertained that it will soon be abolished throughout the whole of Germany. The year 1842 was fixed upon by the Diet for that purpose.

The number of booksellers has so much increased within the last twenty years, that many respectable booksellers are complaining of swindling, underselling, and other irregularities in the trade; but in that respect the book trade may be said to suffer under the same evil as nearly all other branches of commerce, arising from an increasing population, and from a more general competition.

Many circumstances have of late operated in favor of the book trade, viz:—

1st. The extension and improvement of instruction among all classes of people.

2d. The scientific pursuits of many unlettered persons.

3d. The cheap publication of classical works, and particularly the penny literature.

4th. The encyclopedias, reviews, magazines, and journals of all kinds.

And, finally, the more elegant appearance of books adorned with steel engravings, wood-cuts, and lithographic illustrations.

But one great and important check and hindrance to literary productions still exists in Germany, viz: the censorship of the press, which is exercised in every state belonging to the German confederation. Each journal and publication under twenty sheets, whatever be the subject of which it treats—politics, literature, arts, or science—must be sent in manuscript to the censor, who strikes out what he thinks proper, before the printing of it is allowed. The delay, and frequently arbitrary or capricious interference, arising from this system, are evident; nor can it be denied that much bad feeling and discontent are thereby created. Moreover, not only all German books published in the country are subject to this censorship, but in some of the states all books imported from other states belonging to the German confederation are similarly treated. In Austria, for instance, all books coming from Prussia, or from the minor states of Germany, are considered as foreign books, and are subject to a second censorship in that country. They are either admitted free by the word “Admittitur,” or admitted with the restriction not to be advertised, “Transeat.” Sometimes they are to be delivered only to certain persons to whom the censorship has given special leave to receive them, “Erga schedam;” or they are totally prohibited, “Damnatur.” In Prussia, all

books printed out of Germany, in the German language, must be laid before the College of Upper Censorship (Ober Censur Collegium) before the sale of them is allowed.

We will now proceed to exhibit the progress of the book trade of Germany during the last few years, in a series of tables, which leave scarcely any point of information to be desired, and which afford a very complete view both of the progress of literary production and of the activity of the publishers in different parts of Germany. These statements are drawn in general from the publications emanating from Leipzig, which will, in each case, be referred to; and as almost every publisher and bookseller of any consideration in Germany is in correspondence with that town, and has an agent there, the information may be considered as complete and trustworthy.

The number of sellers of books, prints, and music, in Germany and the adjacent countries, (Switzerland, &c.,) *in connexion with Leipzig*, is stated to have been—

In 1778,.....	282	In 1822,.....	566
1795,.....	332		

According to the Directories of Müller and Schulz,* the number in each year, from 1830 to 1839, was as follows :—

In 1831,.....	830	In 1836,.....	1,210
1832,.....	985	1837,.....	1,318
1833,.....	1,010	1838,.....	1,330†
1834,.....	1,048	1839,.....	1,381
1835,.....	1,085		

From this statement, it appears that the number of booksellers in connexion with Leipzig has increased 66 per cent, or two-thirds, since 1831, and 144 per cent, or nearly one and a half times, since 1822.

The number in each of the principal towns in Germany, in 1839, was as follows :—

Leipzig,.....	116	Nuremberg,.....	28
Berlin,.....	108 †	Dresden,	27
Vienna,	49	Breslau,	23
Frankfort-on-Maine,	37	Munich,	20
Stuttgardt,	35 ‡	Hamburg,	20

* "Verzeichniss der Buch-kunst-und-Musikalienhandlungen nebst Angabe der Commissionaire in Leipzig, Berlin, Augsburg, Frankfurt, Nuremberg, Stuttgardt, und Wien," (Catalogue of book-print and music sellers, with the names of their agents in Leipzig, Berlin, Augsburg, Frankfurt, Nuremberg, Stuttgardt, and Vienna.) "Liepzig, Immanuel Müller, 1840." (Published since 1817.) And "Allgemeines Adressbuch für den Deutschen Buchhandel, den Musikalien-kunst-und Landkarten Handel, und verwandte Geschäftszweige." (General Directory of the German book trade, of the music, print, and map-trades, and of the branches connected therewith.) "Edited by Otto Augustus Schulz, Leipzig, Schulz and Thomas, 1840."

† According to Schulz, the number in 1838 was only 1,298.

‡ In Berlin there were 73 booksellers, 35 printers, 34 print-sellers, 22 music-sellers, 65 lithographers, and 43 engravers and copperplate printers; but it must be observed that one firm often unites several branches.

§ In Stuttgardt there were, in 1839, 28 booksellers, including two second-hand dealers; 26 printers, possessing 19 power-presses, and 102 hand-presses, and employing 500 assistants and workmen; 5 letter-founders; 2 stereotype-founders; 48 bookbinders, with 80 assistants; and 249 authors and men of letters, exclusive of editors of newspapers. In the whole of Würtemberg there were 60 paper-mills, of which 20 were for the manufacture of "machine" paper.

Cologne,.....	19	Mayence,.....	11
Augsburg,.....	18	Heidelberg,.....	10
Prague,.....	18	Carlsruhe,.....	10
Halle,.....	16	Munster,.....	9
Gotha,.....	16	Darmstadt,.....	8
Brunswick,.....	13	Mannheim,.....	7
Magdeburg,.....	12	&c., &c., &c.	

Thus Leipzig, with a population of 48,000, and Berlin, with a population of 20,000, appear to have each twice as many booksellers as Vienna, with a population of 340,000, and four times as many as Dresden, which has a population of 66,000; but, owing to various circumstances, these numbers may possibly not represent the total number of booksellers in each place.

There were in Germany, in 1839—

212 printers.
28 letter founders, and stereotype establishments.
92 lithographers.
78 map-sellers.
272 print-sellers.
230 music-sellers.
206 second hand booksellers.
116 paper manufacturers, including paper-mills.
243 circulating libraries and reading-rooms.

The total number of booksellers in Germany, exclusive of sellers of prints and music, at the end of the year 1836, was nine hundred and forty-one; the number of towns in which they resided was three hundred. The following is a list of the number in each country of the German confederation at that period:—

	Number of Booksellers.	Number of the towns in which they live.
1. Austria, (exclusive of her Italian dominions,).....	95	32
2. Prussia,.....	323	110
3. Bavaria,.....	102	34
4. Saxony,.....	142	19
5. Hanover,.....	17	11
6. Würtemberg,.....	50	15
7. Baden,.....	31	10
8. Electorate of Hesse,.....	12	7
9. Grand Duchy of Hesse,.....	24	6
10. Holstein,.....	6	4
11. Luxemburg, (belongs, as regards the book trade, to France,).....
12. Saxe-Weimar,.....	14	5
13. Saxe-Meiningen-Hildburghausen,.....	4	3
14. Saxe-Altenburg,.....	7	3
15. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha,.....	15	3
16. Brunswick,.....	12	4
17. Mecklenburg-Schwerin,.....	11	8
18. Mecklenburg-Strelitz,.....	3	3
19. Oldenburg,.....	1	1
20. Nassau,.....	7	4
21. Anhalt-Dessau,.....	6	2
22. Anhalt-Bernburg,.....	1	1
23. Anhalt-Köthen,.....	1	1
24. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen,.....	3	2
25. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt,.....	2	1
26. Hohenzollern-Hechingen,.....	1	1
27. Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen,.....

	Number of Booksellers.	Number of the towns in which they live.
28. Lichtenstein,
29. Reuss, elder branch,.....	1	1
30. Reuss, younger branch,.....	3	2
31. Lippe-Detmold,.....	1	1
32. Schaumburg-Lippe,
33. Waldeck,	2	2
34. Hesse-Homburg,
35. Lübeck,.....	2	1
36. Frankfort-on-Maine,.....	24	1
37. Bremen,	5	1
38. Hamburg,.....	13	1
Total,	941	300

The number of new publications which appeared in each of the principal of those countries, and the proportion which they bore to the number of booksellers, will be seen in the following table, relating to the year 1837:—*

	New Publications in 1837.	Average Number of Publications in 1837, to each Bookseller, in 1836.
Prussia,	2,169	6·7
Saxony,.....	1,342	9·4
Bavaria,.....	889	8·7
Württemberg,.....	609	12·
Austria,.....	491	5·1
Baden,.....	263	8·5
The four Duchies of Saxony,.....	309	7·5
The two States of Hesse,.....	263	7·3
Hanover,.....	177	10·4
Hamburg,	185	14·2
Frankfort-on-Maine,.....	128	5·3
Bremen,.....	33	6·6
Lübeck,.....	7	3·5
Holstein,.....	68	11·3
Oldenburg,	65	21·6
Mecklenburg,	46	3·3

The number of German publishers, according to the Fair Catalogue of 1836, was five hundred and thirty—in the preceding year, it was four hundred and ninety-six. The following is a list of the principal publishers, with their address, and the number of new publications which they sent to Leipzig in 1836.†

	New Publications.		New Publications.
Schlosser, at Augsburg, with.....	52	Herold, Hamburg,.....	33
Arnold, at Dresden,.....	49	Hahn, Hanover,.....	31
Manz, at Regensburg and Landshut, 47†	47	Kollman, Leipzig,.....	31
Brockhaus, Leipzig,.....	43	Barth, Leipzig,.....	30
Reimer, Berlin,.....	43	Dunker and Humblot, Berlin,.....	28
Cotta, Stuttgardt,.....	42	Steinkopf, Stuttgardt,.....	28
Basse, Quedlinburg,.....	40	Fried. Fleischer, Leipzig,.....	27
Metzler, Stuttgardt,.....	40	Hinrichs, Leipzig,.....	27
Voigt, Weimar,.....	39	Verlags Comptoir, Grimma (Saxony)	27
Voss, Leipzig,.....	34	Baumgärtner, Leipzig,.....	24

* Taken from the Boersenblatt, 23d August, 1839.

† Taken from the Boersenblatt, 15th April, 1836.

‡ Chiefly Catholic works.

	New Publications.		New Publications.
Campe, Nuremberg,.....	24	Sauerlander, Frankfort-on-Maine, ..	22
Riegel and Wiessner, Nuremberg,...	24	Asher, Berlin,.....	21
Heymann, Berlin,.....	23	Franz, Munich,.....	21
Kollman, Augsburg,	23	Halberger, Stuttgart,.....	21
Brodhagen, Stuttgart,.....	22	Fleischman, Munich,.....	20
Dümmler, Berlin,.....	22	Hermann and Langbien, Leipzig, ..	20
Hofman and Campo, Hamburg,.....	22	Reiger and Co., Stuttgart,.....	20
Rawsche Buchhandlung, Nuremberg, ..	22	Leske, Darmstadt,.....	20

The following are the principal booksellers at Leipzig who acted, in 1839, as agents for German and foreign booksellers :—

	Houses. (Firms.)		Houses. (Firms.)
Anstalt für Kunst und Literatur,*....	21	Leich,	27
Arnold,	7	Liebeskind,	34
Barth,	66	Magazin für Industrie,.....	7
Böhme,.....	7	Meissner,	16
Börenberg,.....	6	Michelsen,.....	28
Brockhaus,.....	43	Mittler,	29
Central Comptoir,.....	8	Muller,.....	34
Cnobloch,.....	11	Nauck,.....	4
Dyksche Buchhandlung,.....	40	Peters,	3
Eisenach,.....	10	Polet,	12
Engelmann,.....	30	Reclam, sen.,.....	6
Fischer and Fuchs,.....	9	Reinsche Buchhandlung,.....	45
Fried. Fleischer,.....	68	Schmidt,	13
Fort,.....	14	Schubert,	13
Friese,.....	20	Schumann,	3
Frohberger,	13	Steinacker,	62
Gebhardt and Reiland,.....	5	Delvecchio,.....	19
Wm. Härtel,.....	8	Vogel,	20
Hartknoch,.....	4	Volckmar,.....	53
Herbig,.....	53	Voss,	7
Hermann,	68	Weber,	7
Hinrichsische Buchhandlung,.....	3	Weidmannsche Buchhandlung,....	2
Hofmeister,.....	16	Weigel,.....	7
Kayser,	11	Weygaudische Buchhandlung,	17
Kirchner and Schwetschke,.....	10	Wienbruck,	35
Kirtner,.....	12	G. Wigand,.....	11
Köhler,.....	59	Otto Wigand,.....	4
Kollman,.....	34	Weittig,.....	10
Lauffer,.....	5		

Besides these, there were twenty-one others of less importance, making, in all, seventy-eight houses who acted as agents, at Leipzig, for the German and foreign book trade.†

The extent of the book trade of Southern Germany, and of Berlin, is in some measure shown by the following amount of the number of booksellers who employ agents at the latter place, and at Augsburg, Frankfort-on-Maine, Nuremberg, Stuttgart, and Vienna, as well as at Leipzig :—

96	booksellers have an agent in	Augsburg.
363	“	“
219	“	Frankfort.
318	“	Nuremberg.
129	“	Stuttgart.
77	“	Vienna.
	“	Berlin.

* Institution for Art and Literature.

† Taken from the Allgemeine Adressbuch, (General Directory,) by Schulz.

The number of separate firms at each place, acting as agents, is not exhibited.

That part of Switzerland in which the German language is spoken, is, in its literature, wholly German, and intimately connected with Germany. The same may be said of Liefland, Courland, and Esthland, under the Russian dominion, and of Strasburg, which now belongs to France, although its affinity to Germany, as regards both its language and literature, has considerably decreased since its connexion with that country.

All the ten booksellers at St. Petersburg, in connexion with Leipzig, are German firms; at Paris, eight; at Warsaw, five; and at many of the other places a considerable proportion of the whole number are German.

We shall now proceed to lay before the readers of this Magazine the number of new publications which have appeared during the last twenty-five years, and the nature of those works during the latter part of that period.

The first table is a statement, which, of course, cannot lay claim to strict accuracy, but may be considered as the best possible approximation to an account of all works, including new editions, which have been published in Germany and in the adjacent countries, by publishers in connexion with Leipzig, during each year, from 1814 to 1839. The numbers from 1814 to 1831 are taken from "Menzel's Literaturblatt," a supplement to the "Morgenblatt," printed for Cotta, at Stuttgart. Menzel asserts that he has carefully made his abstracts from the Leipzig fair catalogues. His list continues to the year 1833; but, as it does not agree with two statements published by Wigand* and Otto Aug. Schulz,† which appear to be more correct, and the subsequent years of which agree better with the number which we have extracted for the year 1839, we have substituted their statement, and placed Menzel's figures in brackets at their side. Wigand's list is brought down to 1837—the figures in brackets, by the sides, from 1833 to that year, are extracted from the Leipzig "Börsenblatt für den Deutschen Buchhandel—Chronik des Buchhandels." (Exchange Gazette for the German Book Trade—Chronicle of the Book Trade.‡) The statement for the year 1838 is taken from this latter source; and that for 1839, being only given in round numbers in that publication, has been specially prepared from Hinrich's catalogue.

Number of New Publications and New Editions noticed in the Leipzig Fair Catalogues from 1814 to 1839.

Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.
1814.....	2,529	1828.....	5,654
1815.....	2,750	1829.....	5,314
1816.....	3,197	1830.....	5,926
1817.....	3,532	1831.....	6,389 (5,658)
1818.....	3,781	1832.....	6,929 (6,275)
1819.....	3,916	1833.....	6,310 (5,888)
1820.....	3,958	1834.....	7,202 (6,074)
1821.....	3,997	1835.....	7,146 (5,903)
1822.....	4,283	1836.....	7,529 (6,453)
1823.....	4,309	1837.....	7,891 (7,120)
1824.....	4,511	1838.....	8,662
1825.....	4,836	1839.....	9,738§
1826.....	4,704		
1827.....	5,108	Total.....	140,101

* "Buchhandel Zusammen gestellt und mitgetheilt." By Otto Wigand. Börsenblatt. 23d August, 1839.

† In Schiebe's Universal Lexicon, under the title, "Buchhandel," p. 255.

‡ Of 24th April, 1835, 11th March, 1836, 23d August, 1839, and 14th April, 1840.

§ Not including 133 maps and collections of maps.

The progressive rate of increase will be best exhibited in the following abstract, taken chiefly in quinquennial periods:—

				<i>Increase, per cent.</i>
Annual average of 5 years, from 1814 to 1818,.....			3,158	
“ 5 “ 1819 to 1823,.....			4,092	29
“ 5 “ 1824 to 1828,.....			4,962	21
“ 5 “ 1829 to 1833,.....			6,013	21
“ 6 “ 1834 to 1839,.....			8,028	33

The increase of the last six, compared with the first five years, is 154 per cent; but if the last year alone be compared with the first period, the increase is 176 per cent; and, if compared with the first year alone, it is 285 per cent, or nearly quadruple. The average of the whole period is 5,388.

Among these numerous publications, are many of an insignificant value, and an ephemeral nature, such as pamphlets, journals, novels, &c.; but the subjoined table will show what proportion belongs to each class of literature; and an acquaintance with the contents of a large portion will afford ample ground for admiring the sound reasoning, the diligence and perseverance in examining and sifting, the extensive knowledge, deep erudition, and productive spirit of German authors.

A similar account has already been given for a remote period, and it may be interesting to trace the changes which have since occurred. The subjoined statement, as far as regards the five years from 1831 to 1835, is taken from an article on the book trade, by O. A. Schulz, in Schiebe's "Universal Lexicon of Commercial Science," which contains much valuable information upon the subject. The numbers for the year 1838 are taken from the "Börsenblatt," (14th April, 1840,) already quoted; and those for 1839 have been abstracted from the Leipzig Fair Catalogue for that year.

The whole will afford a very fair view of the state of different branches of literature in Central Europe, since it exhibits an account of all new works, and of new editions of old works, published in Germany, Hungary, Switzerland, and the German provinces of Russia, during the principal part of the last nine years:—

DESCRIPTION OF WORKS.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1838.	1839.
1. Scientific Theology, (Wissenschaftliche Theologie,).....	954	1,008	887	500	531	790	870
2. Sermons and Books of Devotion,.....	Included in No. 1.						
3. Law Books, (Jurisprudence,).....	243	266	216	243	239	450	343
4. State Affairs and Politics, (Staats-und Cameral Wissenschaften,).....	783	788	572	666	563	710	701
5. Medicine, Surgery, and Midwifery,....	378	342	369	374	355	481	508
6. Cholera and Influenza,.....	195	203	35	Included in No. 5.			
7. Homœopathic, (and treatment by spring water, "Wassercur," in 1839,).....	Included in No. 5.			69	45	29	58
8. Veterinary Science,.....	27	36	27	36	32	38	45
9. Chemistry and Pharmacy,.....	63	86	72	68	72	91	88
10. Philosophy,.....	149	203	212	230	248	310	346
11. Education and School Books, (Pädagogik,).....	365	441	396	185	225	209	300
12. Juvenile Books,.....	Included in No. 11.						
13. Philology,.....	464	477	455	509	495	652	769
14. History,.....	567	576	563	491	486	389	645
15. Biography,.....	Included in No. 14.						
16. Mythology and Antiquity,.....	68	68	50	70	81	94	96

DESCRIPTION OF WORKS—Continued.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1838.	1839.
17. Geography, Travels, and Statistics,....	209	239	284	230	333	396	429
18. Natural History and Physical Science,.	313	284	279	342	365	420	452
19. Mathematics,	125	162	153	180	194	224	241
20. Military Works,.....	134	135	113	162	159	154	209
21. Commerce, Mining, Currency, &c.,....	79	108	111	144	113	154	194
22. Handicraft, Manufactures, (Technol- ogic,)	166	216	234	284	250	307	333
23. Agriculture and Rural Economy,.....	234	225	189	194	203	268	261
24. Forest and Hunting Matters,.....	Included in No.23.	45	36	36	36	57	
25. Arts and Belles Lettres,.....	443	594	540	572	545	660	784
26. Music,	Inc.in No.25.	77	70	80	82	97	
27. Novels and Romances,.....	227	261	257	302	342	350	352
28. Theatre,	68	72	104	144	117	174	197
29. Miscellaneous,	135	144	117	162	149	174	187
	6,389	6,929	6,312	7,202	7,146	8,662	9,738

The first result of interest to be drawn from this table, is the comparative number of works published in each branch of literature; and this is shown in the following abstract of the per centage proportion in which each branch contributes to swell the catalogue:—

	Per cent.		Per cent.
1. Scientific Theology,.....	9	15. Juvenile Books,.....	2.8
2. Arts and Belles Lettres,.....	8	16. Agriculture and Rural Economy,	2.7
3. Philology,.....	7.9	17. Mathematics,	2.5
4. State Affairs and Politics,.....	7.2	18. Biography,.....	2.3
5. Sermons and Books of Devotion,.	7	19. Military works,.....	2.1
6. History,.....	6.6	20. Theatrical works,.....	2
7. Medicine and Surgery, &c.,.....	5.2	21. Commerce, &c.,.....	2
8. Natural History and Physical Sci- ence,.....	4.7	22. Miscellaneous,	1.9
9. Geography, Travels, and Statis- tics,	4.4	23. Music,.....	1
10. Novels and Romances,.....	3.6	24. Mythology and Antiquity,.....	1
11. Philosophy,.....	3.6	25. Chemistry and Pharmacy,.....	0.9
12. Jurisprudence,.....	3.5	26. Homœopathy and "Wassercur,"	0.6
13. Handicraft and Manufactures,...	3.4	27. Forest and Hunting matters,.....	0.6
14. Education and School Books,....	3	28. Veterinary Science,.....	0.5
		Total,	100

Of the theological works, which include religious school-books, in 1839, two hundred and thirty-five, or 27 per cent, were Roman Catholic publications; and of the sermons, and books of devotion, two hundred and eighty-nine, or 42 per cent, were of the same class. The number of poems, included among *belles lettres*, was two hundred and fifty-one, or 2.6 per cent of the whole number of works.

In comparing the year 1839 with 1789, the following are the prominent changes. The proportion which theological works bore to the total number, in 1789, was 17 per cent; in 1839, it was 17 per cent. The proportion of Roman Catholic to Protestant works was 23 per cent at the former, and 34 per cent at the latter period. Works on jurisprudence had decreased from 7.5 to 3.5 per cent; on medicine, &c., from 9.9 to 7.2—and it is worthy of note that novels and theatrical works had diminished from 13 to 5.6 per cent. On the other hand, history, geography, and politics, had increased from 15 to 18.2 per cent; natural history, agriculture, &c., from 6.2 to 8 per cent; educational works, from 3.2 to 5.8 per cent; and poems, from 1.7 to 2.6 per cent.

The account, however, for the years 1831 to 1839, affords the means of a stricter comparison, as it is made out for the whole period on the

same principle; and the actual number of books published in each branch of literature, in different years, can be compared, instead of the mere relative proportion which they bear to the whole number, as in the preceding comparison. Contrasting, therefore, the last year of the series, 1839, with the first year, 1831, it appears that there has been an increase in every branch but state affairs and medicine, which have decreased, the former 10, and the latter 1 per cent. The increase among the other branches has been as follows:—

Increase between 1831 and 1839.

	Per cent.		Per cent.
Theatrical Works,.....	190	Military works,.....	56
Commerce, &c.,.....	143	Novels and Romances,.....	55
Philosophy,.....	132	History,	54
Geography, Travels, and Statistics, .	105	Natural History, and Physical Sci-	
Handicraft and Manufactures,.....	100	ences,.....	47
Arts and Belles Lettres,.....	100	Jurisprudence,.....	41
Mathematics,.....	92	Mythology and Antiquity,.....	41
Veterinary Science,.....	66	Chemistry and Pharmacy,.....	40
Philology,.....	65	Agriculture and Rural Economy,.....	36
Theology, Sermons, and Books of			
Devotion,.....	62	Increase of books of all kinds,.....	52

It will be seen, from the above statement, that by far the greater proportion of the works published in Germany are, as far at least as regards their subjects, of a standard character; and that, with the exception of theatrical works, the increase, during the last nine years, has been greatest among works of that class. These results are creditable to the spirit and the literary taste of the people of Germany. It would be exceedingly curious to draw a similar comparison for other countries—for England, the United States, or France; particularly for the two former, where the liberty of the press is unrestrained, and where it would be highly interesting to observe the influence of great commercial activity, and political freedom, upon the mental energies and literary taste of the population.*

ART. II.—MASSACHUSETTS AND HER RESOURCES.

THOUGH Massachusetts, territorially considered, is among the small states in the Union, yet her commerce, manufactures, and fisheries, her literary and benevolent institutions, together with the enterprise and industry of her population, place her among the first in point of importance. It is true that nature has been less bountiful to her than to many of her sister states. She has no large navigable rivers, carrying commerce into the heart of her territory—no inexhaustible mountains of iron and coal—no rich, fertile plains, which bring forth spontaneously. Though nature, like an angry step-dame, instead of bread, has given her stones, yet the industry of her population has converted these stones into bread; and, though the frosts of winter close her ports, and seem to threaten a gen-

* An account of the book trade in England, France, the United States, and other countries, will appear in a future number of the Merchants' Magazine. We trust the publishers and booksellers of the United States will aid us in this matter, by furnishing us with all the information on the subject it may be in their power to give.

eral stagnation of business, yet the very ice which closes up her rivers becomes an article of commerce, and is shipped even to the Indian ocean.

In many respects, Massachusetts furnishes us with a striking example of what industry and perseverance can accomplish. The Hudson river seems designed by nature to pour the rich products of the west into the lap of the great "commercial emporium." The White and Green mountain ranges, which pass through the commonwealth in separate ridges, interspersed with deep valleys, seem to forbid the idea of any artificial communication between the capital of Massachusetts and the rich and growing west; and yet, by the enterprise of her citizens, and the liberal policy of her government, "these valleys have been exalted, and these mountains and hills have been made low," so that a direct communication has been opened between Boston and Albany, and the Western railroad is now competing with the Hudson for the trade of the western lakes. But in nothing is the industry and perseverance of her population more strikingly illustrated, than in her fisheries. The eastern shore of the state is comparatively barren and unfruitful, and in many places incapable of supporting any considerable population; but the enterprise of the people supplies what the soil has denied them. They go down to the sea in ships, and draw treasures from the mighty deep. Wherever the finny tribe are found, there will be seen the hardy sons of the capes of Massachusetts; and the alewives in Taunton river, the cod on the Grand Banks, and the whales in the Pacific and Southern oceans, seem to know intuitively that it is in vain to contend with these adventurous fishermen—these knights of the net, the line, and the harpoon. In fact, we can say of them almost literally what the poet said figuratively of Britannia—

"Their march is o'er the mountain wave,
Their home is on the deep."

But it is not our purpose to eulogize Massachusetts, or to draw any invidious distinctions between her and her sister states. She stands a lively monument of the truth of the principle that a sterile soil and an ungenial climate tend to excite industry, and to give to the inhabitants an energy of character.

"Man is the nobler growth our realm supplies,
And souls are ripen'd in our northern skies."

AGRICULTURE.—Being a rough, mountainous country, Massachusetts is not remarkable for her agriculture. The Green mountain range, running across the state, and several isolated peaks in other sections, together with the sands on Cape Cod, render a considerable portion of her soil unimprovable. By a return made to the legislature, in 1840, for the purpose of fixing the state valuation, it appears that 158,000 acres of her territory were covered with water; 90,000 acres occupied by roads; 730,000 acres were woodland; 956,000 unimproved, and 360,000 acres unimprovable—while only 260,000 acres were improved as tillage, and 440,000 acres as English, or upland mowing; the remainder being either improved as pasturage, or fresh swamps or salt-marsh mowing. It appears, by the census returns, that the number engaged in agriculture is 87,837; being 1 to 8.39 of the population, which is a less per cent than any other state in the Union. When we consider that the soil is comparatively sterile, and that only 11.91 per cent of her population are engaged in agriculture,

while in the whole country those engaged in agriculture amount to 21.74 per cent of the entire population, we cannot expect that the agricultural products of this state will come up to the average of the nation. The live stock and products of agriculture may safely be put down as follows:—

Number of horses,.....	61,500
“ neat cattle,.....	283,000
“ sheep,.....	378,000
“ swine,.....	143,000
“ bushels of wheat,.....	210,000
“ “ Indian corn,.....	2,203,000
“ “ barley,.....	156,000
“ “ rye,.....	563,000
“ “ buckwheat,.....	102,000
“ “ potatoes,.....	4,850,000
“ tons of hay,.....	683,000
“ pounds of wool,.....	942,000
“ “ cocoons,.....	21,300
“ “ sugar,.....	549,000
“ “ hops,.....	255,000
“ tons of broom-corn,.....	600
Value of poultry,.....	\$178,000
“ the products of the dairy,.....	2,374,000
“ “ orchards,.....	390,000
“ “ market-gardeners,.....	384,000
“ “ nurseries and florists,.....	112,000

Such are the principal agricultural products of Massachusetts. She has no great staple, like the cotton of the south, or the wheat of the middle and western states. What she raises, she consumes at home; and she procures large supplies of some of these articles from her sister states, as we shall show hereafter. But, although Massachusetts is not distinguished for her agricultural products, the attention paid to agriculture has increased within a few years. The agricultural societies which have been established in the different counties, and which have enjoyed, to a small extent, the patronage of the government, have exerted a salutary influence. Several papers devoted to this subject are published within the commonwealth, and are well sustained. Within a few years, an agricultural and a geological survey of the state have been made by gentlemen well qualified for those purposes, who were appointed by the government, to which they made their reports. These reports, having for their object a development of the agricultural resources of the state, were published by the order of the legislature, and distributed in all parts of the commonwealth; and have contributed, with other causes, to give to the agriculture of the state a more scientific character. New systems of husbandry have been introduced—swamps, formerly useless, have been reclaimed—the nature of soils, and the kind of manure best adapted to each, are beginning to be better understood—an improved race of animals has been introduced or reared up, and great improvements have been made in most of the implements of husbandry; from all which, we infer that the cultivation of the soil in this ancient commonwealth will keep pace with the improvements of the age.

But the leading business characteristics of Massachusetts are her manufactures, her commerce, and her fisheries, which we will present in the order in which they are here arranged.

MANUFACTURES.—Immediately after the first settlements in New England, the people were compelled by necessity to turn their attention, in some degree, to some species of household manufacture, such as shoes and hats. As early as 1700, the people in Massachusetts commenced manufacturing in their families coarse woollens, for men's wear, and a mixed article of flax and wool, called *linsey woolsey*, principally for women's wear. These articles were dyed with maple, walnut, butternut, and other kinds of bark, moss from rocks, &c. Some attempts were made to manufacture paper, iron, and other necessary articles; but the condition of the colonies, and especially the policy of the mother country, prevented any considerable progress being made in manufactures before the revolution. But when the tie that bound us to Great Britain was sundered, the manufacturing enterprise of the people of Massachusetts began at once to develop itself.

The first manufactory of cotton in the United States was established at Beverley, Essex county, Massachusetts, in 1788. In the year following, this company was incorporated by the legislature. Great expectations were entertained, from the introduction of manufactures into the country at so early a period, on so extensive a plan. A periodical of the day, describing this factory, says, "that an experiment was made with a complete set of machines for carding and spinning cotton, which answered the warmest expectations of the proprietors. The spinning-jenny spins sixty threads at a time, and with the carding-machine forty pounds of cotton can be well carded in a day. The warping-machine, and the other tools and machinery, are complete, performing their various operations to great advantage, and promise much benefit to the public, and emolument to the patriotic adventurers." But this company, like other pioneers, were doomed to meet disappointment. They soon abandoned the business as a body corporate, and it was carried on by individuals, who subsequently erected a mill for the purpose of spinning cotton by water; but the enterprise proved an unprofitable one.

Immediately after the establishment of this factory at Beverley, a more successful effort was made by Samuel Slater, Esq., (who has justly been denominated "the father of American manufactures,") at Pawtucket, a village situated on the boundary line between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Here was produced the first cotton-cloth in the country by water-power machinery. After the Beverley company, the next two corporations which were created were the Newburyport Woollen Manufactory, in 1794, and the Calico-Printing Manufactory, in 1796. But, as we have no account of these companies, we conclude that their creation is to be taken rather as an indication of what the people desired, than of what they were able to accomplish. In 1800, the Salem Iron Factory Company was chartered, with power to hold real and personal estate to the amount of \$330,000; and two years subsequently, the Danvers and Beverley Iron Company was incorporated, with an equal amount of capital. In 1805, the Amesbury Nail Factory Company was chartered, with a capital of \$450,000. But it should be remembered that the power to hold property to the amount mentioned in their charters is no evidence that they invested that sum. These were the first chartered companies in the

iron department of manufactures. In 1809, two companies were chartered for the manufacture of glass. From 1805 to 1815, there were some fifty manufacturing companies incorporated; but most of them were for the manufacture of cotton, or of cotton and wool. But many of the cotton mills at that day only manufactured the cotton into yarn, and then put it out to hand-loom weavers to weave; and most of the companies which manufactured cotton and wool did little more than to make sattinets, a cheap article composed of cotton and wool.

In 1812, the Waltham Manufacturing Company was incorporated, with a capital of \$450,000. This company went into successful operation, and was the only company of much note at the close of the war, in 1815. This establishment has continued to the present day, and the Waltham goods are well known both in this country and in Europe.

Though several efforts were made, in different parts of the state, it was not until about 1812 that the woollen manufactures were permanently established in Massachusetts. The country was forced into this business by the restrictive measures which preceded the late war with Great Britain, and by the war itself; during the continuance of which, the manufacturers were barely sustained. Peace came, and the business was prostrated, and most of the owners ruined. The establishments generally passed into other hands, at from one-third to one-fourth of their original cost. From the close of the war to 1828, the woollen manufactures met with great reverses. The tariffs of 1828 and 1832 induced many to embark in the woollen business; but the reductions of duty upon imported woollens, which took place under the provisions of the act of 1833, commonly called the Compromise Act, have, in a great degree, paralyzed their efforts. Though, from 1835 to 1838, the business was prosecuted with some success, the great reductions which took place in 1841 and 1842, by the provisions of the act abovementioned, stopped a great part of the woollen mills in Massachusetts. The late tariff has already produced some improvement in the business; and it is believed that, if it be permitted to remain undisturbed, this department of manufactures may yet prosper, and the public be furnished with woollen goods, from our own mills, at a cheaper rate than they have been from foreign countries.

Though, by the census of 1840, Massachusetts was the seventh state in the Union, in point of population, and (allowing the annual increase to be the same per cent in each state, since 1840, that it was from 1830 to 1840,) is now the tenth state, yet, with reference to manufactures, she may justly be considered the first state in the Union. And it is worthy of special remark that, while New York, according to the census returns, has twice as many persons employed in manufactures and trades as Massachusetts, the product of Massachusetts manufactures, in most of the leading articles, is greater, or at least equal, to that of the empire state; and while Pennsylvania has 23 per cent more persons thus employed, her product generally falls below that of Massachusetts. In fact, if we strike from the list of manufactured articles *flour* and *lumber*, which hardly deserve the name of manufactures, the annual product of Massachusetts will equal that of New York. In the woollen department, the value of the goods produced in Massachusetts is twice as great as in any other state, and amounts to more than one-third of the entire product of the country. In cotton goods, no state produces half as much; and her product amounts to more than half the aggregate of all the other states.

Massachusetts stands first in the manufacture of boots and shoes, soap and candles, hardware and cutlery, refined sugar, paper, powder, and fire-arms. She is second to none but the great states of New York and Pennsylvania in the manufacture of machinery, of drugs, paints and dyes, and of furniture. No state, except Kentucky, manufactures so much cordage; no state, except New York, so large an amount of musical instruments, hats, caps, and bonnets; no state, except Connecticut, so much silk. She is the third state in the manufacture of glass, leather, flax, and salt. In capital invested in manufactures of all kinds, Massachusetts is second only to the great state of New York, and owns nearly one-sixth of the aggregate manufacturing capital of the country. And in this connexion it may be worthy of remark, that several of the principal manufacturing establishments in Maine and New Hampshire are owned, to a considerable degree, by Massachusetts capitalists.

The comparisons we have made have been drawn from the statistics connected with the late census of the United States; but, in giving the details of her manufactures, we shall adopt the state statistics, because they are more in detail, and, we have reason to believe, more correct.

A Statement of the Manufactured Products of Massachusetts in 1837, taken from the statistics published by order of the Legislature.

ARTICLES MANUFACTURED.	Value.	Hands employed.	Capital invested.
Anchors, chain-cables, &c.,.....	\$114,125	36	\$80,500
Axes, scythes, snaths, &c.....	325,956	387	196,938
Beer, bellows, blacking, boats, wherries, &c.,.....	152,321	273	55,300
Bonnets, (straw,) and palm-leaf hats,.....	1,902,803
Books, stationery, pocket-books, and school apparatus,.....	1,048,140	1,023	909,800
Boots and shoes,.....	14,642,520	39,068
Brass and copper,.....	1,469,354	297	635,800
Britannia and block tin,.....	66,300	59	7,000
Brushes, brooms, and baskets,.....	289,512	350	103,095
Buttons of all kinds,.....	246,000	358	147,200
Candles (sperm and tallow) and soap,.....	1,620,730	266	697,300
Candlesticks, playing cards, chocolate, chair-stuff, and coffee-mills,.....	66,914	81	29,840
Cards, (wool,).....	254,420	139	148,340
Carriages, wagons, sleighs and harnesses, &c.,...	679,442	945	278,790
Casks and hoops,.....	202,832	194	81,250
Chairs and cabinetware,.....	1,262,121	2,011
Clothing, neck-stocks, and suspenders,.....	2,013,316	3,939	780,159
Combs,.....	268,500	444
Cordage and twine,.....	481,441	439	285,375
Cotton goods, (cloths,).....	13,056,659	19,754	14,369,716
Cotton batting, thread, warp, wicking, &c.,.....	169,221	151	78,000
Cotton-printing,.....	4,183,121	1,660	1,539,000
Cutlery,.....	186,200	193	92,033
Drugs, medicines, and dye-stuffs,.....	371,019	97	98,995
Fishery, (whale, cod, and mackerel,).....	7,592,290	20,126	12,484,078
Fur caps, and other manufactures of fur,.....	73,000	100	55,000
Gas,.....	100,000	40	375,000
Glass,.....	831,076	647	759,400
Glue,.....	34,625	18	19,700
Gold and silver leaf,.....	43,000	36	11,200
Gunpowder,.....	246,357	77	160,800
Hats,.....	698,086	867
India rubber,.....	18,000	13	10,000
Iron castings, bar and rod, &c.,.....	1,658,670	1,311	1,516,025

A Statement of the Manufactured Products of Massachusetts, etc.—Continued.

ARTICLES MANUFACTURED.	Value.	Hands em- ployed.	Capital invested.
Jewelry, silver, and silver-plate,.....	\$325,500	207	\$161,550
Lead manufactures,.....	201,400	43	6,400
Leather, including morocco,.....	3,254,416	1,798	2,033,423
Looking-glasses,.....	165,500	58	61,600
Lumber, shingles, and staves,.....	167,778	121	27,750
Machinery of various kinds,.....	1,235,390	1,399	1,146,775
Muskets, rifles, pistols, swords, &c.,.....	288,800	394	65,943
Nails, brads, and tacks,.....	2,527,095	1,095	1,974,000
Oil, (refined whale and other oils,).....	2,030,321	145	1,133,500
Organs and piano-fortes,.....	324,200	239	172,000
Paper,.....	1,544,230	1,173	1,167,700
Ploughs,.....	54,561	73
Saddles, trunks, and whips,.....	351,575	758	109,825
Salt,.....	246,059	708	801,753
Showels, spades, forks, and hoes,.....	264,709	284	225,523
Silk,.....	56,150	125	137,000
Spectacles, starch, stone and earthenware,.....	35,560	47	20,974
Spirits,.....	1,238,789
Stone, (granite, marble, slate and soap-stone,)....	680,782	1,177	209,950
Stoves and stove-pipes,.....	31,000	13	11,815
Sugar, (refined,).....	976,454	92	303,653
Snuff and cigars,.....	184,601	396	33,300
Tin-ware,.....	394,322	377
Tools, (carpenters', joiners', and shoemakers',)...	258,531	297	110,807
Types and stereotypes,.....	157,000	215	140,000
Umbrellas,.....	104,500	136	56,000
Upholstery, including bed-binding, curtains, hair, and paper-hangings,.....	55,483	86	13,160
Vessels built annually,.....	1,370,650	2,834
Varnish and beeswax,.....	52,600	8	9,000
Window-sashes, blinds, and doors,.....	74,166	93	8,350
Wire,.....	84,770	53	44,200
Wooden ware, including boxes, rakes, shoe-pegs, yokes, helves, &c.,.....	174,692	313	26,950
Woollen goods,.....	10,399,807	7,097	5,770,750
Engravings, essences, hosiery, lamp-black, me- chanical instruments, mustard, razor-straps, lather-boxes, pumps, blocks, &c.,.....	63,460	117	19,078
Total,.....	\$85,742,927	117,352	\$52,008,865

Here we have a grand total of about eighty-six millions of dollars, of the annual product of the manufactures of Massachusetts in 1837. The capital invested is fifty-two millions; and it will be perceived that in some cases the amount of capital is not given. If the amount of capital had been given in every case, it would have increased this sum to at least fifty-four or five millions. The depressed state of business of all kinds, and the heavy importations of foreign fabrics, have contributed to diminish the quantity of goods and wares manufactured; so that the amount of manufactures must be considerably less at the present time than it was in 1837, and the fall of prices has reduced the value of the annual product in a still greater proportion; though, at the present time, the effects of the recent tariff are beginning to be felt, and a new impulse is given to our manufactures.

To show the variety and character of the manufactures of Massachusetts, we will give an abstract of a single town:—

ATHOL, WORCESTER COUNTY.

Population in 1837, 1,603.

Cotton mill, 1; cotton spindles, 1,024; cotton consumed, 81,700 lbs.; cotton goods manufactured, 316,100 yards; value of same, \$33,000; males employed, 10; females employed, 45; capital invested, \$15,000.

Boots manufactured, 16,312 pairs; shoes, 38,333 pairs; value of boots and shoes, \$58,741; males employed, 79; females, 37.

Tanneries, 2; hides tanned, 3,850; value of leather, \$17,700; hands employed, 7; capital invested, \$9,270.

Paper mill, 1; stock manufactured, 56 tons; value of paper, \$9,000; males employed, 4; females, 2; capital invested, \$5,000.

Cupola-furnace, 1; iron castings made, 62 tons; value of same, \$7,130; hands employed, 4; capital invested, \$3,000.

Scythe manufactory, 1; scythes manufactured, 7,200; value of same, \$4,200; hands employed, 8; capital invested, \$2,100.

Manufactories of cabinetware, 2; value of cabinetware, \$2,700; hands employed, 4.

Plough manufactory, 1; ploughs manufactured, 100; value of same, \$650; hands employed, 1.

Straw bonnets manufactured, \$1,225; value of same, \$1,455.

Palm-leaf hats manufactured, 123,580; value, \$24,010.

Machine manufactory, 1; value of machinery manufactured, \$4,100; hands employed, 4; capital invested, \$1,500.

Pail manufactory, 1; pails manufactured, 12,200; value of same, \$2,440; hands employed, 2; capital invested, \$1,000.

Value of sashes, doors, and blinds manufactured, \$4,200; hands employed, 5; capital invested, \$1,000.

Value of cooperage, \$250; capital invested, \$250; 1 hand employed.

Value of shoe-pegs manufactured, \$3,100; hands employed, 5 males and 9 females; capital invested, \$3,800.

Value of harnesses manufactured, \$1,000; capital invested, \$500; 1 hand employed.

Shoe and hat boxes manufactured, 8,625; value of same, \$3,960; hands employed, 2; capital invested, \$2,500.

We have selected this town rather for the variety than the amount of its manufactures, though an annual product of \$158,000 is no inconsiderable sum for a town comparatively agricultural, and containing 1,600 inhabitants. This example will show another distinguishing feature in the manufacturing industry of Massachusetts, viz: that the females contribute their share to swell the amount of manufactured products.

LOWELL.

But Lowell is the great centre of Massachusetts manufactures, and may with propriety be denominated the Manchester of America. By authentic statistics, it appears that there are in this city manufactures of machinery, sheetings, shirtings, drillings, prints, flannels, broadcloths, cassimers, carpets, rugs, and a variety of other articles. The amount of business may be inferred from the following table:—

Number of incorporated manufacturing companies,.....	11
“ mills, exclusive of print-shops,.....	32
Amount of capital,.....	\$10,700,000
Number of spindles,	194,333

Number of looms,	6,048
" females employed,.....	6,375
" males employed,.....	2,345
Yards of cloth per annum,.....	70,275,400
" printed or dyed per annum,.....	14,196,000
Bales of cotton consumed per annum,.....	56,940
Gallons of oil consumed per annum,.....	80,189
Cords of wood consumed per annum,.....	3,000
Tons of hard coal consumed per annum,.....	12,400
Bushels of charcoal consumed per annum,.....	800,000
Barrels of flour, for starch, consumed per annum,.....	4,000

The Locks and Canals' machine-shop, included in the thirty-two mills, can furnish machinery competent for a mill of five thousand spindles in four months; and lumber and materials are always at command, with which to build or rebuild a mill in that time, if required. When building mills, the Locks and Canals' Company employ, directly and indirectly, from one thousand to twelve hundred hands.

To the above principal establishments, may be added the Lowell Water-Proofing, connected with the Middlesex Company; the extensive powder mills of O. M. Whipple, Esq.; the Lowell Bleachery, with a capital of \$50,000; flannel mill, blanket mill, batting mill, paper mill, card and whip factory, planing machine, reed machine, foundry, grist and saw mills; together employing five hundred hands, and a capital of \$500,000. We may also add to the above the manufacture of carriages and harnesses, tinware, boots and shoes, and a variety of household manufactures. Lowell, though the greatest manufacturing place in the country, is a city of recent date. The first mill was erected in 1823; before which time, what now constitutes Lowell was a barren corner of the towns of Chelmsford and Tewksbury, containing not more than one hundred inhabitants. The city, in 1840, numbered 20,796 souls.

COMMERCE.—Massachusetts may justly be regarded as a highly commercial state. Though the late war drove a large share of her capital from the ocean, and induced many of her citizens to embark in manufactures, yet she stands the second state in the Union in point of commerce. There were imported into Massachusetts in the commercial year 1841, goods, wares, and merchandise to the amount of \$20,318,000, being nearly one-sixth of the whole amount brought into the country, and about twice as much as was imported into any other state, with the exception of New York, whose importations amounted to \$75,713,000. But though we cheerfully yield to New York the honor of being the "great commercial emporium," there are several facts and considerations which furnish a drawback upon her commercial greatness; which, as they tend to show the resources of Massachusetts, we feel called upon to state. We have seen that the importations into New York are more than three times as great as into Massachusetts; but it appears, from authentic accounts, that the importations into New York during that year were about 74 per cent on foreign account, while the importations into Boston were only about 17 per cent on foreign account—making a difference of 57 per cent in favor of Boston. This fact alone would bring the American commerce of New York down to nearly the standard of the same character of commerce in Massachusetts. Nor is this all: a considerable share of the commerce of New York is on Massachusetts account; while very little, if any, of the Massachusetts commerce, is on New York account.

Another considerable share of New York commerce is carried on by Massachusetts ships, navigated by Massachusetts seamen. These remarks will apply with peculiar force to the East India trade, as will be seen by the following statement:—

The number of vessels which arrived in New York from Canton and Manilla was—

In 1839,.....	21, of which 7 belonged to Massachusetts.
1840,.....	29, “ 14 “ “
1841,.....	15, “ 4 “ “
1842,.....	26, “ 11 “ “
Total,.....	91 36

Here it will be seen that more than one-third of the commerce of New York, from 1839 to 1842 inclusive, from the places mentioned, was on Massachusetts account, or carried on in Massachusetts vessels.

In the trade with Calcutta about 20 ships are required to supply the United States with Bengal products. The whole number of arrivals were—

In 1840,.....	18, of which 15 arrived in Massachusetts.
1841,.....	20, “ 17 “ “
1842,.....	26, “ 21 “ “

From the above statement, it will be seen that about four-fifths of the supply of Bengal goods in the United States is furnished by Massachusetts ships and capital. During the same years several cargoes arrived at New Orleans from Calcutta, on Massachusetts account.

From fifty to seventy cargoes enter the United States annually from Russia, a large share of which are on Massachusetts account. In 1839, the number of American vessels which arrived at St. Petersburg was 52, of which 37 were on Massachusetts account. The whole number of arrivals in the United States from St. Petersburg and Riga the same year was 53, of which 26 came into Massachusetts, and 23 into New York. Of the 23 which came into New York, 10 were Massachusetts vessels, and a portion of these cargoes were on Massachusetts account. In 1840 there were 64 American vessels which arrived at St. Petersburg, of which 49 were on Massachusetts account. In the same year the arrivals in the United States from Russia were 65, of which 32 came into Massachusetts, and 12 into New York; of which 12, five were Massachusetts vessels, and a portion of their cargoes was on Massachusetts account. The great supply of foreign sugars into St. Petersburg for the Russian empire is chiefly from Cuba; of this supply nearly one-half is carried in Massachusetts vessels, and a considerable portion on Massachusetts account. The United States are supplied with pepper almost entirely by Massachusetts ships; and a large portion of the exports from Sumatra to Europe is carried in Massachusetts vessels, and on Massachusetts account.

We have mentioned these things to show the real state of the commerce of Massachusetts. The annual document from the secretary of the treasury, detailing the commerce and navigation of the country, shows only the imports into the different states, without designating on whose account the importation is made; and it will be seen at once that such tables do not show the exact commerce of each state. One state may

be situated inland, as Indiana, for example, and hence be represented as having no commerce; and another state, as Louisiana, which happens to be the outlet of the great Mississippi Valley, may be so situated as to have the credit for much that is owned and shipped by the people of other states. The facts we have already presented, clearly demonstrate that these tables do not do full justice to the state of Massachusetts. Her vessels, which enter at New York and clear from the same port, are set down to the credit of New York, though the vessel be owned in Massachusetts, the crew are from Massachusetts, and the cargo is on Massachusetts account. It will also be seen, by the facts above presented, that a large share of the distant, and in some respects the most important commerce, is carried on by the Massachusetts merchants. A cargo which is the result of a long voyage, is in one respect, more important to the country than any other. A cargo from the West Indies, worth \$100,000 at the port where it is entered, might require for its purchase \$95,000 of specie or our domestic products; and so the cargo would be a drain upon the country to that amount. But a cargo from the East Indies, worth \$100,000 at the port where it is entered, may draw from the country but \$90,000. I do not profess to be accurate in the amounts, but state them merely to illustrate the principle, that a merchant who is engaged in distant commerce draws a less per cent on the worth of his cargo from the country, than the merchant who is engaged in commerce with nations less remote. In the latter case we must take from the country, in money or its equivalent, a sum nearly equal to the value of the cargo, while in the former case, a much greater amount of the value of the cargo, on its arrival in this country, is the result of the labor of the officers and crew, and the capital invested in the vessel, and hence a less per cent of its value is drawn from this country in specie or its equivalent. Massachusetts commerce, as we have seen, is, to a great extent, with the most remote nations, and hence more productive of the interests of the country than any other.

We have already seen that the importations into Massachusetts, during the last commercial year, amounted to \$20,318,000—her exports during the same year were \$11,487,000, being nearly one-tenth of the whole export of the country, and more than was exported from any state except New York and Louisiana; and it is worthy of remark that both of these states, from their local situation, export a larger amount of the products of other states than Massachusetts. The amount of tonnage owned in Massachusetts, as compared with other states, shows at once that she performs a large share of their carrying. The entire registered and licensed tonnage of Massachusetts, as compared with several of the great states, is as follows:—

Massachusetts,.....	545,900 tons.		Pennsylvania,.....	118,900 tons.
New York,.....	474,700 "		Louisiana,.....	145,700 "

Here it will be seen that Massachusetts owns 71,200 tons of shipping more than New York; 427,000 more than Pennsylvania; 400,200 more than Louisiana; and about one-fourth of the aggregate tonnage of the United States. As Louisiana exports about three times as much as Massachusetts, and owns but about one-fourth as much shipping, it would seem to follow, with a good degree of certainty, that much of the carrying trade of Louisiana was performed by Massachusetts; and every per-

son acquainted with the subject, knows that Massachusetts vessels are largely engaged in the cotton, flour, pork, bacon and lard trade of New Orleans.

The number of vessels which entered in Massachusetts in 1841, was 2,119—being twice as many as entered in any other state except New York, and more than one-sixth of the aggregate shipping which entered in the United States. The number of ships built in Massachusetts in the same year was 112, with an aggregate tonnage of 28,653, being a larger amount of tonnage than that produced by any other state, and nearly one-fourth of the aggregate of the whole United States, as will be seen by a comparison of Massachusetts with some of the principal ship-building states :—

Massachusetts,.....	28,653 tons.	Ohio,.....	7,178 tons.
Maine,.....	26,874 "	Pennsylvania,.....	6,970 "
New York,.....	17,438 "	The United States,.....	118,893 "
Maryland,.....	10,737 "		

From a comparison of the ships built in the several states, with the ships owned in the states respectively, it will be seen that Massachusetts not only owns more shipping than any other state, but that her territory is, to a considerable extent, the ship-yard, and her laborers the shipwrights, of several of the commercial states. In seamen, Massachusetts is still more prolific. By the returns of registered seamen, made to the secretary of state annually, it appears that Massachusetts furnishes more than twice as many as any other state, and more than one-third of the whole number furnished by the whole country. By the returns for 1841, the only one on which we can at this time lay our hands, it appears that the registered seamen stand as follows :—

Massachusetts,.....	4,031	Maryland,.....	383
New York,.....	1,815	Louisiana,.....	338
Maine,.....	1,026	All other states,.....	1,764
Pennsylvania,.....	706		

From this view of her commerce, it will be seen that Massachusetts is second only to New York, if indeed she does not rival that great state. The opening of the Western railroad, which connects Boston with Albany and the great west, and the establishing of the line of packets between Boston and Liverpool, must inevitably increase the commercial importance of Massachusetts.

FISHERIES.—In this department of national industry, Massachusetts stands unrivalled. The whale fishery commenced in Massachusetts as early as 1672, and has gone on increasing until it has assumed its present importance. In 1840, it appears from authentic accounts that there were 588 vessels engaged in the whale fishery, of which 425 belonged to Massachusetts. It is not our purpose to give a history of the fisheries—we intend only to state the amount of business in this department of industry at the present time. It appears, by the last annual return of the commerce and navigation of the United States, that the amount of tonnage employed in the cod fishery was 66,551 tons; of which 29,529, being about the same as the state of Maine, and about four times as much as all the rest of the Union, belonged to Massachusetts. From the same document, it will be seen that Massachusetts has 10,000 tons of shipping engaged in the mackerel fishery, while that owned by all the rest of the

Union amounted to only 1,200 tons. It further appears that the tonnage employed in the whale fishery, in the United States, is 157,405 tons; and of this, Massachusetts employs 120,474, being more than three-fourths of the whole.

It will also be seen, by the statistics connected with the census, that Massachusetts has invested in the fisheries \$11,725,850, and employs 16,000 men. To show the relative importance of this branch of industry in this state, we will present, at one view, the total product of the country, of Massachusetts, and some of the principal states, always taking those which stand highest:—

Quintals of Smoked or Dried Fish.

United States,.....	773,947	New Hampshire,.....	28,257
Massachusetts,.....	389,715	Rhode Island,.....	4,034
Maine,.....	279,156		

Barrels of Pickled Fish.

United States,.....	472,359	Maryland,.....	71,293
Massachusetts,.....	124,755	Maine,.....	54,071
North Carolina,.....	73,350		

Gallons of Spermaceti Oil.

United States,.....	4,764,708	New York,.....	400,251
Massachusetts,.....	3,630,972	Connecticut,.....	183,207
Rhode Island,.....	487,268		

Gallons of Whale and other Fish Oil.

United States,.....	7,536,778	New York,.....	1,269,541
Massachusetts,.....	3,364,725	Rhode Island,.....	633,860
Connecticut,.....	1,909,047		

Value of Whalebone, &c.

United States,.....	\$1,153,234	Connecticut,.....	\$157,572
Massachusetts,.....	442,974	New Jersey,.....	74,000
New York,.....	344,665		

Hands employed.

United States,.....	36,584	Maine,.....	3,610
Massachusetts,.....	16,000	Connecticut,.....	2,215
Maryland,.....	7,814		

Capital invested.

United States,.....	\$16,429,620	Rhode Island,.....	\$1,077,157
Massachusetts,.....	11,725,850	New York,.....	949,250
Connecticut,.....	1,301,640		

From this glance at the subject, it will be seen that, of dry fish, Massachusetts produces as much as all the rest of the United States; of pickled fish, more than one-quarter of the whole amount; of spermaceti oil, more than three-quarters; of whale and other oils, nearly one-half; of whalebone, more than one-third; and of capital, nearly two-thirds of the whole amount invested in the United States. It would be no exaggeration therefore to say, that taking the different kinds of fisheries, Massachusetts fisheries were equal in amount to those of all the rest of the Union.

The value of these fisheries will be seen by the fact, that in addition to all that is consumed in the country, they furnish a large surplus for export, amounting, in 1840, to more than \$3,000,000, being an amount greater than that of any other article exported, except cotton, tobacco, and flour. But these fisheries are important, not only as they increase our commerce, but they furnish one of the best nurseries for seamen.

They also furnish a market for a large amount of our agricultural products. It has been estimated, by those familiar with the subject, that the whale fisheries alone consume annually 54,000 barrels of beef and pork, being equal to one-half of the average export of these articles for the last ten years. They also require a large amount of flour, corn, butter, cheese, rice, &c. &c. The oil and whalebone brought into the country in 1841, has been estimated to be worth \$7,360,000; and what renders this and the other fisheries of great importance is, that it is drawing treasures from the deep, which would otherwise be lost to the country. Whatever the value of these fisheries may be, one-half of the sum, at least, may be set to the account of Massachusetts.

We have now presented the resources or productions of Massachusetts, as connected with the great departments of industry. There is one fact more, which, as it casts some light upon the business of the state and country, we will mention the amount of postage paid into the General Post Office from Massachusetts, in the year 1841, was \$237,655, being more than that paid by any other state, except New York and Pennsylvania, and about one-twelfth of the entire income of the department.

It may perhaps be well, in a paper of this kind, to notice some of the natural resources of the state. Massachusetts is not peculiarly rich in her mineral treasures. *Iron*, the most useful of metals, is found in various parts of the state, and is manufactured to a small extent. This business employs \$1,232,800 of capital, and about 1,000 hands, producing 9,300 tons of cast, and 6,000 tons of bar iron annually. *Granite*, of an excellent quality for building, is found in vast quantities in Quincy and vicinity, and is extensively quarried, and shipped to every Atlantic city in a greater or less degree. The Astor House in New York, the front of the Tremont House in Boston, and Bunker Hill Monument, are built of this material. Granite, suitable for building, is also found in large quantities at Gloucester, Fall River, Fitchburg, and many other places. The quantity of this building material in the state is inexhaustible. *Gneiss*, nearly allied to granite, and answering the same purpose, is found in many parts of the state. *Serpentine*, a rock of richness and variety of colors, suitable for ornamental architecture, exists in Middlefield, in the county of Hampshire, Westfield, in the county of Hampden, Newbury, in the county of Essex, and in several other places, but it has not been wrought to any extent.

Limestone, suitable for quicklime, is found in various places, and is particularly abundant in the county of Berkshire. But the limestone of Berkshire is best known for the fine marble which it produces. It is all of the variety denominated primitive marble. Its prevailing color is white, and this is the variety most extensively wrought. Some of the varieties of the snow white, admits of a very fine polish. From the pure white the color changes, by imperceptible gradations, to gray and dove color. More or less is quarried in almost every town in Berkshire, except a few on the eastern side. But it is most extensively wrought in West Stockbridge, Lanesborough, Ashfield, Sheffield, New Marlborough, and Adams. The City Hall in New York was built chiefly of this marble. The marble for the Girard College, in Philadelphia, is also obtained from the quarries in Berkshire.

Soapstone, which is remarkable for its softness and power to resist heat, is found in abundance in various parts of the commonwealth, but is not

extensively wrought. *Argillaceous*, or *roof slate*, is found in different sections of the state, but the quality is not remarkably good, nor is it extensively used for slating roofs. *Potter's clay*, used for common pottery, tiles, and bricks, abounds in almost every town; and *Porcelain clay* has been found in several places, but the experiment of its value has not been fully tested. *Peat* is used for fuel in many towns in the eastern portion of the state; and what adds to its importance is, it is generally located where wood is scarce, and commands a high price. *Anthracite coal* has been discovered, as at Worcester and Mansfield; but the mine at Worcester has not been thoroughly explored, and at Mansfield the vein is supposed to be too thin to justify the expense of mining.

In *internal improvements*, considering the topography of her territory, Massachusetts is not behind any other state. The first canal and the first railroad in the country, were opened in Massachusetts. Middlesex canal uniting the waters of the Merrimack river with Boston harbor, and the Quincy railroad, extending from the Neponset river to the Quincy quarries, were constructed before any other works of the kind in the United States. The canal, however, is nearly superseded by the Boston and Lowell railroad. In length and importance, the Western railroad stands at the head of the public improvements in the state. It extends from Worcester, forty-four miles by railroad from Boston, to Greenbush, on the Hudson, opposite to Albany, with which it is connected by a ferry. This noble structure traverses a rough and romantic portion of the state; crossing the high lands in Worcester county, the summit between Boston and Connecticut river, at an elevation of nine hundred and seven feet above tide water, and the Green Mountain range in Washington, the summit between the Connecticut and the Hudson, at an elevation of one thousand four hundred and fifty-nine feet above tidewater. The greatest inclination on this road is eighty-three feet per mile. The length of the road within the state is one hundred and eighteen miles; but as the road from the line of the state to Albany was built by this company, and as they have a long lease of it, and the pre-emption right of purchase, it may with great propriety be considered a part of the Western road, and as belonging to Massachusetts. The length of the road in New York is thirty-eight miles, making, in the whole, one hundred and fifty-six miles. At Worcester this road connects with the Boston and Worcester road, which is forty-four miles in length; so that the Western road opens a direct communication by railroad from Boston to Albany, making a continuous line of two hundred miles of road.

There are several other railroads, situated partly in the state and partly in the adjoining states, as the Norwich and Worcester, the Nashua and Lowell, and the Boston and Maine, which were built mostly by Massachusetts capital, aided by Massachusetts scrip. But we shall give the length, cost, &c., of that part of the road situated in Massachusetts, except in the case of the Western, for reasons already stated. The following table will give a general view of the different roads, and their productiveness:—

CORPORATE NAME.	L'ngth in miles.	Cost of road and appurtenances.	Cost of road per mile, including appurtenances.	Receipts for past year.	Expenditures past year.	Nett profits during past year.	Distance in miles, run by trains, during the past year.
Western,.....	156	\$7,566,792	\$48,505	\$512,688	\$266,619	\$246,069	397,295
Boston and Worcester,...	44	2,764,395	62,827	364,284	164,510	199,774	241,319
Boston and Providence, ..	41	1,892,831	46,166	236,464	112,825	123,639	132,229
Boston and Lowell,.....	26	1,978,286	76,087	278,311	131,013	147,298	143,607
Norwich and Worcester, ..	20	646,334	32,316	46,318	40,465	5,653	48,306
Nashua and Lowell,.....	9	215,930	23,992	84,330	58,670	25,460	28,306
Eastern,	39	1,865,000	47,820	215,328	113,200	102,128	147,124
Boston and Maine,	21	550,000	26,142
N. Bedford and Taunton, ..	20	426,122	21,306	55,776	22,355	33,421	40,734
Taunton Branch,.....	11	250,000	22,727	77,171	57,778	19,393	21,904
Berkshire,	21	205,000
Charlestown Branch,.....	7	223,145	32,877	45,385	48,427	3 042 loss.	11,433
	415	\$18,583,835	1,212,397

The Boston and Lowell, and the Boston and Worcester roads, which cost more per mile than the others, have double tracks, the rest single. Owing to the imperfect return of the Boston and Maine company, we were unable to carry out its receipts and expenditures. The Berkshire road has not settled up all demands against it, and their rail being a plate instead of an edge rail, the cost of construction appears small. The Boston and Worcester, Boston and Providence, and Eastern roads have each a branch of a few miles, the cost and income of which are included in the sums stated. The Charlestown branch was constructed mainly for the transportation of ice, but the winter of 1841-2 being unusually open, that business almost entirely failed,—hence the loss to the company. Besides these railroads, there is the Quincy railroad, of a few miles in length, used only for the transportation of granite from the quarries to tidewater; and the West Stockbridge, about two and a half miles in length, which is an extension of the Hudson and Berkshire road. There is also the Fitchburg railroad, now in the course of construction, which, in connexion with the Charlestown branch, will make a continuous road about forty-five miles into the interior, in the direction of Vermont. These roads are all owned by private companies, except the Western, in which the state owns one-third of the stock. The state, however, has loaned its credit, in the form of scrip, to several of these corporations, and taken a mortgage as security. The railroads in Massachusetts are all built in the most thorough and durable manner; and for convenience, safety and despatch, will yield to none in the country.

BANKS.—The Banks in Massachusetts are believed to be in as sound a state as any in the country. The following table will show their condition:—

Whole number of banks in Massachusetts,.....	114
Capital stock paid in,.....	\$33,360,000
Bills in circulation,.....	9,509,112
Nett profits on hand,.....	2,792,114
Balances due to other banks,.....	4,413,506
Cash deposited, including all sums whatever due from the banks, not bearing interest, its bills in circulation, profits and balances due to other banks excepted,.....	7,144,900
Cash deposited, bearing interest,.....	1,459,822
Total amount due from the banks,.....	\$58,679,474

Resources of the Banks.

Gold, silver, and other coined metals,.....	\$3,111,838
Real estate,.....	1,238,191
Bills of other banks, in and out of the state,.....	2,314,437
Balance due from other banks,.....	4,461,047
Amount of all debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, and all stocks and funded debts, except balances due from other banks,.....	47,553,961
Total amount of the resources of the banks,.....	\$58,679,474
Amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring the last dividend,...	992,145
Amount of debts secured by a pledge of stock,.....	941,790
Amount of debts unpaid, and considered doubtful,.....	1,043,166

The aggregate of dividends of all the banks for six months, a fraction over 297-100 per cent.

There are also in Massachusetts thirty-two institutions for savings, having nearly 42,587 depositors, and about \$7,000,000 of deposits.

STATE DEBTS.—Since several states in the Union are burdened with enormous debts, we cannot judge of the condition of any state without inquiring into her indebtedness. Massachusetts has a small debt of about \$175,000, which arose from extraordinary expenditures, incurred by the state during the last eight or ten years : such as revising her statutes, building a new state prison, and a state lunatic hospital ; but the ordinary revenue of the state will soon extinguish it. It is not, therefore, worthy of being mentioned as a state debt. Massachusetts has loaned her credit, in the form of scrip, to the Norwich and Worcester, Eastern, and Boston and Maine railroad companies, to the amount of \$1,050,000, and as security has a mortgage upon each of those roads, with their appurtenances, which have cost the companies more than \$3,350,000. If these companies should fail to redeem the scrip when it shall fall due, the commonwealth would come in possession of a property worth at least three times as much as it would have cost her. There surely can be nothing in this which can impair her credit, or create alarm.

Besides this, the state has loaned \$4,000,000 of scrip to the Western railroad corporation, and as security has taken a mortgage on the road and all the property of the corporation, which cost, as we have seen already, \$7,566,000. And besides, the statute granting the scrip requires that all which is realized in its sale above its par value, together with 1 per cent on the amount of the scrip, shall, by the corporation, be set apart annually for a sinking fund, with which to redeem or to aid in the redemption of the scrip, when it becomes due. That fund already amounts to more than \$200,000 ; and as it must go on increasing from year to year, it will, in 1870, when the scrip is redeemable, be nearly sufficient of itself to discharge the debt the corporation owes to the state. With this fund in its own keeping, and a mortgage upon a property costing nearly twice as much as the amount of the scrip loaned, the state is perfectly secure.

The state is also indebted to the amount of \$600,000 for scrip issued to pay the assessments on its own shares of the stock of the Western railroad, and to purchase Charles' River bridge. So far as the scrip to purchase Charles' River bridge is concerned, the state can remunerate itself in the space of two years, at anytime, by tolls upon that bridge and Warren bridge ; and to redeem the scrip issued to pay her assessments on her railroad stock, she has the income of one-third of the road, and more than two millions of acres of land in the state of Maine.

In speaking of the liabilities of the state, and her ability to meet them, we have said nothing of her resources from direct taxation; for direct taxation has become almost an *obsolete* idea in Massachusetts. Such has been the prosperous state of her finances, that for the last twenty years she has imposed upon the people only three small state taxes, the aggregate amount of which is less than one-sixth of the sum she imposed upon herself in 1782, when her resources were nothing compared with what they are at present. Nor have we alluded to the sums due and appropriated by the general government, growing out of the late treaty, and the sales of the public lands; for Massachusetts has resources of her own amply sufficient to meet all her liabilities. Let her impose, annually, a tax equal in amount to the average tax paid from the adoption of her constitution up to 1824, and she could meet all her liabilities from that source alone, if the security which she holds should, by any possibility, prove worthless. The valuation of the state, as fixed in 1841, shows the amount of taxable property to be \$299,878,300, being nearly one-third more than it was in 1831. With such an amount of taxable property, with the security she holds, with the business enterprise and industry of her people, and, above all, with their high character for punctuality, and the sacredness with which they have ever regarded plighted faith in contracts, it would be idle, nay, it would be madness, to countenance the idea for a moment that she would suffer her scrip to be dishonored, or even her credit to be suspected. Sharp-sighted capitalists, who are generally the best judges in such cases, have always preferred the stock of Massachusetts to that of any other state. In fact, while the stocks of some of the states have been selling at ruinous discounts, the stock of this state has generally commanded its par value, and has frequently sold at a premium.

There is another view to be taken of this state, which, although it cannot be classed with her resources, shows her importance in the Union. She furnishes one of the greatest home markets of any state in the Union. From the most thorough and extensive inquiry, we have no hesitancy in saying, that Massachusetts consumes, of the products of other states in the Union, an annual amount of more than \$40,000,000, being equal to one-half of the average of the domestic exports of the United States, if we except manufactured articles. In a national point of view, this is of great importance. Cut off the market of this commonwealth, and the effect would be sensibly felt in most of the states. We would go into this subject in detail, but our limits will not permit.

EDUCATION.—The venerable University of Cambridge stands at the head of the literary institutions of the country. Massachusetts is also blessed with Williams' College, and Amherst College, two highly respectable and flourishing institutions; besides which, we have a large number of incorporated and other academies. But in nothing is Massachusetts more distinguished than for her common schools, supported at the public charge, and open and free for all. By the last school abstract laid before the legislature, in 1843, the following facts appear:—

Number of common schools,.....	3,198
“ persons between the age of 4 and 16,.....	185,058
Whole number of scholars who attend school in summer,.....	133,448
“ “ “ “ winter,.....	159,056
Sum expended for common schools,.....	\$579,190
“ tuition in academies and private schools,.....	309,067

From these facts it will be seen that there is expended annually in Massachusetts the sum of \$888,197, for the education of children and youth, independent of what is required to support the young men in the colleges.

Massachusetts has, also, a small school fund of \$472,676, which is accumulating, the interest of which is annually distributed among the school districts, in addition to the sums mentioned above.

In connexion with the subject of common school education, it may be proper to observe that Massachusetts has in operation, supported principally by the state, two Normal schools, designed expressly to qualify teachers for common schools. These schools have been in operation some three or four years, and have been well attended. One is designed exclusively for females, the other for both sexes. These schools were established as experiments, no institutions of the same kind having been tried in this country; and thus far the experiment has satisfied the reasonable expectations of its friends. Teachers educated in these institutions have generally been found more efficient than such as are educated elsewhere; and strong hopes are entertained that the noble example set by Massachusetts, may be followed by the other states of the confederacy.

STATE INSTITUTIONS.—In concluding this view of the state, we will mention her charitable institutions, and the sum she expends annually for the benefit of the poor and unfortunate. The Lunatic hospital, at Worcester, was built by the state at an expense exceeding \$100,000, and is sufficiently large to accommodate about two hundred and fifty patients; but it has been found to be insufficient to accommodate all who apply. The state has accordingly authorized the erection of an additional building, sufficient to accommodate one hundred and fifty more patients. This institution is sustained at an annual expense to the state of from \$5,000 to \$12,000. The state also sustains an institution for the blind, at an expense of from \$8,000 to \$10,000 annually, and contributes to the education of the deaf and dumb from \$3,000 to \$5,000 annually. She likewise grants \$2,000 a year to sustain the Eye and Ear infirmary, and from \$1,000 to \$2,000 as pensions or gratuities to old and wounded soldiers, or their widows. Such are some of the principal charitable institutions of the state; and it may justly be doubted whether any state in the Union does more to alleviate distress, and to promote the happiness of her own citizens and those who come within her territory, than the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

ART. III.—THE POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT.

THE subject of the mails, and the charge upon letters and newspapers, is one of great interest, and has long occupied the attention of the public, as well as those who have presided over the department. By the Constitution, power was conferred on Congress to establish post offices and post roads, and soon after the commencement of the general government, laws were passed carrying this power into effect. Since that period, the rapid increase of settlements over the whole United States has caused a corresponding increase in the number of offices and the extent of post roads. There does not appear to have occurred any essential change in

the general system for the conduct of the department since its first establishment. Rates uniformly high have been and continue to be charged, notwithstanding that the revolution which has attended commerce and the advancing state of the whole country, have left the charges much too high in proportion to all other expenses and values, if we except years of great paper inflation, such as those of 1836-7. The establishment of the post office by the Federal government was never with the view of deriving revenue from it as a trade, by giving the government a monopoly of that trade. The object was only to do that by government agency, which, although indispensable for public convenience and the transaction of business public and private, was, in that early period of our government, beyond the means of individuals, or associations of individuals. The post office arrangements, however, like the country and its population, began on a very small scale; and as the latter grew with great rapidity, it drew after it the necessity of as rapid an extension of the former. Hence, notwithstanding that the receipts of the department rose from \$37,935, in 1790, to \$4,546,246 in 1843, by a constant increase in each successive year, yet the expenditure always kept pace with, and of late years have exceeded them. The following is a table of the leading features of the department from the commencement of the government:—

POST OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNITED STATES—1790 TO 1843.

Years.	No. of offices.	Miles of post-roads.	Receipts.	Expense.	Excess receipts.	Excess expenditures.
1790,.....	75	1,875	37,935	32,140	5,795
1791,.....	89	1,905	46,294	36,697	9,597
1792,.....	195	5,642	67,444	54,531	12,913
1793,.....	209	5,642	104,747	72,040	32,707
1794,.....	450	11,984	128,947	89,973	37,974
1795,.....	453	13,207	160,620	117,893	42,727
1796,.....	468	13,207	195,067	131,572	53,495
1797,.....	554	16,180	213,998	150,114	63,884
1798,.....	639	16,180	232,977	179,084	53,893
1799,.....	677	16,180	264,846	188,038	76,898
1800,.....	903	20,817	280,804	213,994	66,810
1801,.....	1,025	22,309	320,443	255,151	65,292
1802,.....	1,114	25,315	327,045	281,916	45,129
1803,.....	1,258	25,315	351,823	322,364	29,459
1804,.....	1,405	29,556	389,450	337,502	51,948
1805,.....	1,558	31,076	421,373	377,367	44,006
1806,.....	1,710	33,431	446,106	413,573	32,553
1807,.....	1,848	33,431	478,763	453,885	24,878
1808,.....	1,944	33,755	460,564	462,828	2,264
1809,.....	2,012	34,035	506,634	498,012	8,622
1810,.....	2,300	34,035	551,684	495,969	55,175
1811,.....	2,403	36,406	587,247	499,099	88,448
1812,.....	2,610	36,406	549,208	540,165	109,043
1813,.....	2,708	29,378	703,155	681,012	22,143
1814,.....	2,901	39,540	730,370	727,126	3,244
1815,.....	3,000	41,736	1,043,065	748,121	294,744
1816,.....	3,260	43,748	961,782	804,422	157,360
1817,.....	3,459	48,673	1,002,973	916,515	86,458
1818,.....	3,618	52,089	1,130,235	1,035,822	94,403
1819,.....	4,000	59,473	1,204,737	1,117,861	86,876
1820,.....	4,500	67,586	1,111,927	1,160,926	40,999
1821,.....	4,650	72,492	1,059,087	1,184,283	125,196
1822,.....	4,799	78,808	1,117,490	1,167,572	50,082
1823,.....	5,043	82,763	1,130,115	1,156,995	26,880

POST OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNITED STATES—1790 to 1843—Continued.

Years.	No. of offices.	Miles of post roads.	Receipts.	Expense.	Excess receipts.	Excess expenditures.
1824,.....	5,182	84,860	1,197,758	1,188,019
1825,.....	5,677	84,860	1,306,525	1,229,043	77,482
1826,.....	6,150	94,052	1,447,703	1,366,712	80,991
1827,.....	7,003	105,336	1,524,633	1,468,959	55,574
1828,.....	7,651	114,526	1,664,759	1,691,044	26,285
1829,.....	8,050	114,780	1,773,990	1,879,307	105,317
1830,.....	8,450	115,176	1,919,300	1,959,109	35,809
1831,.....	8,730	115,176	1,997,811	1,936,222	61,589
1832,.....	8,830	115,200	2,258,570	2,266,171	7,601
1833,.....	9,170	118,130	2,617,011	2,930,414	313,403
1834,.....	9,200	112,224	2,823,749	2,910,605	86,856
1835,.....	10,730	108,324	2,993,556	2,757,350	244,206
1836,.....	10,770	105,674	3,408,323	2,841,766	566,559
1837,.....	12,099	142,877	4,100,605	3,303,428	797,177
1838,.....	12,519	134,818	4,235,077	4,621,836	386,760
1839,.....	12,680	133,999	4,477,614	4,654,718	177,104
1840,.....	13,468	155,739	4,539,265	4,759,110	219,845
1841,.....	13,682	155,026	4,379,317	4,567,228	187,920
1842,.....	13,733	149,732	4,546,246	4,627,716	81,470

The rates of postage are as follows, for a single letter composed of one piece of paper :—

Not exceeding 30 miles,.....	6 cents.
“ 80 “ and over 30,.....	10 “
“ 150 “ “ 80,.....	12½ “
“ 400 “ “ 150,.....	18½ “
Over 400 “	25 “

Each piece of paper composing the letter is charged with the postage until the package weighs an ounce, which is quadruple postage, and the same rates for heavier packets. Newspapers, carried out of the state, or, if out not over one hundred miles, one cent; over one hundred miles and out of the state, one cent and a half.* Magazines and pamphlets are charged as follows :—

	Periodical.	Not Periodical.
Not over 100 miles,.....	1½ cents per sheet.	4 cents per sheet.
Over 100 miles,.....	2½ “	6 “

The postage on ship letters, if delivered at the port of arrival, six cents; if conveyed by post, two cents in addition to the ordinary postage.

From this tabular statement it appears that the expenditures of the department up to 1820 were steadily increasing, and always were exceeded by the receipts. In the four succeeding years, during which a great extension took place in the mail service, there was a deficit of revenue. Up to 1830 the balance on either side was not large. After the year 1832, the department, like all other branches of business, began to be affected by the speculative spirit then so rife over the land, and a large surplus accrued during the years 1836–7. On the 30th June, 1836, the department had a clear surplus of \$641,842, which increased to \$756,208 on the 30th June, 1837. From 1827 up to 1834 the high rates of post-

* We cannot, we confess, see either the justice or propriety of the regulation by which a newspaper-sheet, no matter how large, is rated at 1½ cents over 100 miles, and a periodical or magazine is charged 2½ cents, for the same distance, for every sixteen octavo pages, in size about one-half of that of the ordinary sixpenny papers. It is, however, in keeping with the entire management of the whole system, which requires a radical and thorough reform in all its parts.

age began to bear with extreme severity upon the revenue of the department. Railroads and steamboats, running regularly between the great cities, began greatly to interfere with the business of the department on its most lucrative routes. The expenditures of the department were annually on the increase, yet the expensive means used to forward the mail in a great measure influenced a decline in its receipts. Upon the construction of a railroad between any important points the government is compelled to employ it, because it has no means of its own creation so expeditious. Of this the companies usually take advantage and charge high rates, which enhance the cost of transportation far above that in coaches. The following shows the different modes of conveyance, and the cost of each in two years :—

	1840.		1842.	
	Miles.	Cost.	Miles.	Cost.
By horse and sulkey,.....	12,182,445	789,668	11,634,693	737,605
stages,.....	20,299,278	1,911,855	18,767,036	1,700,510
steamboat and railroads,.....	3,889,053	595,353	4,424,262	649,681
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	36,370,776	3,296,876	34,835,991	3,087,796

This displays the immense cost to the department of the conveyance by steam, at the same time steamboats and railroads afford the greatest facility for carrying letters by private hand out of the mail, and therefore of evading the postage. Up to 1827, when the department generally yielded a surplus, the average cost of transportation per mile was \$9 50. In 1830 the rate had risen to \$12 25 per mile, and in 1842 was \$20 per mile, having more than doubled since 1827. The heavy expenditures caused by the increase of railroad and steam routes have left the department in debt, notwithstanding the extent to which the receipts have been swelled. The enormous charges of the railroads have frequently been subject of complaint by the executive, and President Jackson more than once recommended the interference of Congress in the matter. This is no doubt an evil under which the government has labored, and has stood in the way of that reduction of postages in favor of which the public has long expressed its voice. While the government is charged exorbitant rates for the transportation of the mails, individuals have great facilities for the conveyance of letters out of the mails. This, like all smuggling, will be carried on whenever the government charge is so high as to afford a premium for so doing. For fifteen years prior to 1839, when the present new system was introduced into England, the postage revenue had declined, notwithstanding the great increase of population and business. This was entirely ascribed to the facilities afforded by railroads in evading the high tax imposed by government. As in the case of all smuggling, means will be found to meet the wants of the community, whenever the government duties are too high. In the present stage of the world no pecuniary oppression upon a free people can be long continued. The utmost efforts of the English government could not sustain the high rates of postage against public opinion, which exhibited itself in a gradual decline in the revenues. The only resource was a prompt and large reduction in the rates of transportation. The state of affairs in this country is now precisely similar to that of England, when the reduction became inevitable. On all the railroad and steamboat routes, not only is a large proportion of letters sent by private hands, but regularly estab-

lished private expresses or "common carriers" are established, which transport, according to the authority of the secretary of the treasury, one-third of all the letters between New York and Boston. These expresses have become very important, and are constantly increasing. The first established was that of Harnden & Co., about the year 1835. He commenced as a package express, without any reference to letters, simply to carry small packages between New York and Boston, and deliver them promptly on arrival. Gradually he acted as a kind of commission merchant, being deputed to buy the goods he was to bring back with him. The great convenience of this express, and the high confidence reposed in Mr. Harnden by the mercantile community, made his business grow with great rapidity, and he soon made arrangements with the railroads and steamboats by which his business was conducted on a more permanent basis, mutually beneficial. On the establishment of Cunard's line of steamboats to Boston, Mr. Harnden was applied to, to undertake the freight-agency of the line, which he accepted, and to carry it out established a branch in Liverpool. Being thus situated, with expresses running through all the principal cities concentrating in Boston, and communicating with his branch in Liverpool through the government steamers, it became obvious that a safe, cheap and prompt channel for foreign letters to their destination was formed through his arrangements, and he was importuned to undertake the business. Under these circumstances Mr. Harnden made arrangements with the post office department, by which he was appointed a mail carrier. Thus empowered, he received foreign letters, took them to the post office, paid the postage to the government, put them in a separate mail bag, with a separate way bill, and delivers them promptly and regularly. An important object was thus effected. The department got its postage, and the merchants were assured of the prompt delivery of their letters; efficacy was given by individual enterprise to an important branch of the mail service, but still hampered by the government restrictions. Its usefulness was, however, carried out still further. The correspondence between this country and Europe is immense, far greater than between any country of Europe and the remaining portions of it. This arises from the immense number of immigrants which has been pouring in for half a century, leaving friends and relations behind them. These latter are mostly in poor circumstances, and those here, in writing home, wish to remit money in small amounts, and pay postage in advance. This never could be done until the establishment of Harnden's agency, by which a person in any of the atlantic cities may remit funds in small amounts, and pay postage to any place in Great Britain or Europe. The letter and money may be paid to Harnden's agent, and thence go free to its destination. For these purposes Mr. Harnden remits by each packet from \$20,000 to \$30,000 to his agent. Here is an establishment for public convenience constantly increasing in importance, and is checked in its advance only by the government monopoly of the post office, which operates as a heavy tax upon the business of Mr. Harnden. The ramifications of that business afford the means of destroying the post office ultimately altogether. The success of Harnden has induced the establishment of numerous other lines, of which there are twenty different ones running into Boston alone, and numerous others stretching as far west as Buffalo; although none of these are so extensive as Harnden's, they run upon all the routes between points which have the

greatest business connection. Hence all those merchants and others whose business lies in the same direction, make up their letters into packages, which are conveyed upon their lines for fifty cents, and have been known to contain letters on which the postage would have been \$20 to \$30. Most of the hotels have boxes to collect letters for their customers, and in merchant's stores packages are made up alternately. Thus, even without the knowledge of the carriers, immense quantities of letters are conveyed by these means without cost of postage; on one occasion a merchant sent from New York to Philadelphia \$45,000 in bills, enclosed in two pattern cards. The transaction was made public through the ignorance of the recipient of the package of its contents, until an outcry about the supposed loss of the money brought it to light. Independent of these common carriers, there are on the principal routes, employed by banks and brokers, special carriers, who bear mostly letters and money packages. The extent of this business is manifest in the fact that two, employed between New York and Philadelphia, pay each to the railroads for their fares alone \$1,200 per annum. These are the means by which letters are carried without the connivance of the agent. But by far the greater quantity is carried with their knowledge: for instance, on one occasion, Mr. Harnden stated that between Boston and New York he paid the department \$600 per month for a year, making \$7,200. Other lines, which convey nearly as many, did not pay one dollar. Under the operation of all these causes, the revenue of the office at Boston is fast decreasing, and the same influences are rapidly producing the same results at other points.

The great success of these undertakings is the surest indication that they "go with the people;" that they supply a want which the government arrangements do not supply. In this fact we have the proof that it is impossible to put a stop to it. Furthermore, the facilities granted by these routes for the dissemination of news matter, are of the highest importance. General Jackson, in his first annual message, describes the post office department as being "to the body politic what the veins and arteries are to the natural—conveying rapidly and regularly, to the remotest parts of the system, correct information of the operations of the government, and bringing back to it the wishes and feelings of the people. Through its agency, we have secured to ourselves the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free press."

This was in 1829, up to which time the department had in itself been prosperous, and nearly kept pace with the wants of the community. Since then, however, an immense revolution has taken place in the press of the country, which constitutes the vehicle through which the news of the operations of government is disseminated, and the wants and wishes of the people brought back to government. This revolution has been brought about by the small cash papers, the principle of whose circulation is essentially cheapness. From an insignificant commencement in 1833, it has grown to be the most important in point of circulation, which is to that of the large papers at the time of General Jackson's first message, as one hundred to one. The publication of cheap papers containing the latest information in a familiar form, whatever objections may be urged against the quality of the matter contained in some of them, has been of immense influence in increasing the number of readers, and consequently the demand for reading matter. With the success of the small papers

their character has become more elevated, and with it has improved the taste of the public. Numbers of magazines have also been established, the success of which depends upon the same principle, viz: low prices and extensive circulation. These small papers and magazines are, in all the cities, rapidly pushing those conducted on the old plan from existence, and forming the sole medium through which the "wishes and feelings" of the great mass of the people can be "brought back to the government." These papers are sold to the subscribers at two, and some of them at one cent, consequently a government tax of one to one and a half cent postage is in the highest degree burdensome, and is counteracting that desirable result on which General Jackson congratulated the public, viz: "the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free press." This tax has in a great measure been avoided, by the appointment of newspaper agents in most of the cities, and transmitting the necessary quantity of papers in one bundle by mail route under the clause of the act of 1825, which enacts as follows:—

"The 30th section of the act of 1835 provides that 'the postmaster-general, in any contract he may enter into for the conveyance of the mail, may authorize the person with whom such contract is to be made, to carry newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets, other than those conveyed in the mail: *Provided*, That no preference shall be given to the publisher of one newspaper over that of another, in the same place."

The conveyance of newspapers and magazines in this manner has greatly promoted the diffusion of knowledge, and until the present year the postmaster general has tacitly given his consent according to the law. The only effect of withholding it would be to impose a tax of near 100 per cent upon one half the readers of the small papers, and to deprive the other half altogether of information in regard to "the operations of the government." This is neither for the interest of the public or of the post office department. The importance of newspapers, in the view taken by General Jackson, peculiarly fit them to be the object of bounty on the part of government so far as to transport them free of postage, more particularly when the government, assuming to itself a monopoly of the mail business, has closed the door to the competition of individuals, by whom it could be done much cheaper. This is equally applicable to the postage on letters. If the government undertakes to transport them, it should do it on terms at least as low as individuals can do it. It is no argument whatever, to say the postages cannot be reduced because the revenue of the department does not now meet its expenditure; because the deficit in the revenue is clearly caused by the high rates of postage, which induce smuggling. It is obviously far more to the public interest that newspapers should travel free of postage, than that the franking privilege should be enjoyed at the extent it is. The report of the postmaster, for 1841, states that the number of free letters and packages sent from Washington in three weeks of the session was as follows:—

Number of letters and packets from the department,.....	22,038
“ “ “ “ members,.....	20,363
“ documents and franked packets,.....	392,268
Total number,.....	434,669
“ weight of free matter,.....lbs.	32,689

At this rate for the year, the free matter would be in number 4,781,359, and the two cents each allowed to the postmasters for delivery would

amount to \$95,627. In the face of this enormous abuse of the franking privilege, the present postmaster has suppressed the transportation of packages on the mail routes, although that system has been allowed by all the postmasters since the passage of the act of 1825. A low uniform rate of postage would soon put an end to all the evils now complained of by the department, and give it an excess of revenue. This is not a theory, but the results of experience in the English system. The state of affairs in relation to the post office department in Great Britain, was, for many years, very similar to that now presented by that of this country. The revenue from the department in 1814, was £1,532,153, and in 1836 but £1,622,700, notwithstanding that the population had increased 50 per cent. The evils attending high rates of postage were so great and so apparent, that, on the appearance of the pamphlet, "Post Office Reform," by Rowland Hill, Esq., an impulse was given to public opinion which resulted in the establishment of the present system, which has been in full operation since January 10, 1840. The leading features of the system are, that, on letters, one uniform rate of postage is charged, being one penny for every letter weighing not more than half an ounce, to any part of the kingdom; letters of two ounces pay two pennies; and so on every additional half ounce an extra half penny, up to sixteen ounces, than which none heavier are allowed. These rates are doubled, if not paid in advance. Newspapers are sent free to any part of the kingdom, if mailed within eight days of publication; all foreign newspapers are charged two pence. The franking privilege is entirely abolished. There is also attached to the department a "money order office," where all sums under ten pounds are insured for a small premium. Drafts are drawn upon the post master at the point where money is to be remitted, and a day's notice of the draft given. The operation of this system has been in the highest degree beneficial to the public, and successful in relation to revenue. The illicit transmission of letters has entirely ceased with all the evasions practised under the old system to avoid postage, at the same time the number of letters transmitted by mail has increased five fold. The government undertook the reform at a time of low revenues, and the operation reduced it still further by £1,200,000, but it has now recovered itself. The following table will show the progress of the revenue:—

POST OFFICE REVENUE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JANUARY 5.

Years.	Gross revenue.	Cost of management.	Nett revenue.
1839.....	£2,346,278	£696,768	£1,650,509
1840.....	2,390,763	755,899	1,633,704
1841.....	1,369,604	903,677	465,927

In the first of these years, there had been no change. In 1839 the 4d. rate was adopted. In 1840 the penny rate came into operation. In the first year the deficit amounted to £1,000,000, or 74 per cent, since when the rate of increase has been such, that the income will, in 1844, be restored to its former amount, thus establishing the entire success of the operation.

There is but little doubt that the pursuance of a similar policy here would produce even greater results; and that a uniform rate of postage as low as 5 cents on single letters, with an abolishment of the franking privilege, and free transport for newspapers and periodicals, would not only bring the department out of debt, but so increase its revenue as to

allow of a great extension of the mail service, and confer upon the community the freedom of the press to an extent as full as that enjoyed by the people of England. If that debt-covered government can transport papers free, how much better can it be done here !

ART. IV.—OUR SHIPPING.

THE shipping of the United States has already grown to a considerable magnitude and consequence to the country. In order to judge correctly of its general importance, we need only to take a broad survey of our docks and harbors. We find the quays of the principal cities of our coasts, from Maine to Louisiana, crowded with vessels of our own and other countries. Not only upon the sea shore, but the banks of our rivers exhibit an amount of tonnage of no inconsiderable value. Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, Mobile, and New Orleans, although they may perhaps be considered the headquarters of American commerce, constitute but a part of that shipping interest which has spread itself widely upon the navigable waters of the nation, both east and west.

It is an interest, moreover, which, in its various operations, involves the condition of a considerable bulk of our population. The numerous individuals who are employed in the construction of the ships in their separate departments, from the first cutting of the timber which composes the keel, to the last gilding of the figure head, are not alone interested in this branch of mercantile enterprise. The hundreds of thousands of persons who are employed in our navigation as seamen, are virtually involved in its successful prosecution. To those may be added the venders of the various materials required for the building and furnishing of vessels, besides the great number of merchants whose capital is invested in, and whose prosperity is derived from the success of its operations, and the agriculturists, manufacturers, and mechanics, who provide the staples of commercial transportation.

The fertility of our soil, and the industry of the people, have furnished, and will continue to furnish, abundant staples for commercial enterprise. In Maine we find the Kennebec and the Penobscot pouring down its lumber for domestic export ; the New England states supplying the manufactures of the coarser cotton cloths, and the main bulk of the fisheries of the country ; the South, the grand staple of manufacture, the cotton plant ; and the Western states, cargoes for the commerce of the lakes and the Mississippi, in their vast and constantly augmenting amounts of agricultural products, while the mechanic arts of the nation are continually increasing the supplies, if not for foreign export, at least for domestic consumption. To meet the wants of our seventeen millions of people, the import trade must be considerable, and it is well known that in manufactures of woollen cloths, this is now chiefly derived from Great Britain.

The rapid growth of our shipping has been exactly proportioned to the advance of other interests, and it has been unexampled. We propose to condense briefly the amount, as exhibited by the last report of the acting secretary of the treasury, made on the 23d of July, 1842. On the 30th of September, 1841, there were the following vessels, with their tonnage, as appears by the custom house returns :—

Registered vessels employed in foreign trade, for the year 1841, ..	Tons. 945,803 42.95ths.
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Enrolled and Licensed Vessels.

The enrolled vessels employed in coasting trade, for the year 1841, ..	1,076,036 18.95ths.
Licensed vessels under 20 tons, employed in coasting trade,	31,031 70.95ths.

Fishing Vessels.

Enrolled vessels employed in cod fishery,	60,556 05.95ths.
“ “ mackerel fishery,	11,321 13.95ths.
Licensed vessels under 20 tons, employed in cod fishery,	5,995 79.95ths.
The registered and enrolled tonnage employed in the whale fishery, during the year 1841, was,	157,405 17.95ths.
Aggregate amount of the tonnage of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1841, was stated at,	2,130,744 37.95ths.
Whereof permanent registered tonnage was,	771,776 84.95ths.
Temporary registered tonnage,	174,026 53.95ths.
Total registered tonnage,	945,803 42.95ths.
Permanent enrolled and licensed tonnage,	1,146,141 57.95ths.
Temporary “ “ “	1,771 74.95ths.
Total “ “ “	1,177,913 35.95ths.
Licensed vessels under 20 tons, employed in the coasting trade, ..	31,031 70.95ths.
“ “ “ cod fishery,	5,995 79.95ths.
Total licensed tonnage under 20 tons,	37,027 54.95ths.
Of enrolled and licensed tonnage, there were employed—	
In the coasting trade,	1,076,036 18.95ths.
“ cod fishery,	60,556 05.95ths.
“ mackerel fishery,	11,321 13.95ths.
	1,147,913 36.95ths.

Of enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, amounting to 1,076,036 18.95ths, as above stated, there were employed in steam navigation,	174,342 44.95ths.
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From various causes, the shipping interest is a subject which has recently received a good degree of the public attention, both in and out of Congress. Among those causes are its rapid increase and its present importance, and the fact that, owing to circumstances connected with our treaties, it is found that the commerce, both to and from our own country, is carried on in a good measure by British ships. The subject soon attracted the attention of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, and a lucid and able report proceeded from that body exhibiting the prominent facts of the case, with the legitimate inferences; and a more recent meeting has been held in the same city by the merchants of this quarter, with a view of remodelling, if practicable, our commercial intercourse with foreign nations, in order to place it upon a more prosperous and solid footing. The proceedings of this last meeting have not been made known to the public by a printed report. The more prominent facts, however, have been developed, throwing light upon the actual state of our commerce; and the labored document recently issued from the office of the late secretary of state, Mr. Webster, exhibits the present condition of our commercial intercourse with foreign nations. Without presenting any *ex parte* views of the matter, it will be our present attempt to sketch the general policy regulating the operation of our commercial system.

To those who view the apparently interlaced masses of shipping which crowd our ports, amid the tumult of our scenes of traffic, it would, at first view, hardly seem probable that this apparently confused interest is regulated by rigid, yet salutary laws, bearing upon every part of its operations.

Here is a large bulk of property, involving the condition of hundreds of thousands of enterprising men, whose interests and whose persons are transported across vast oceans, and to the four quarters of the globe; and all civilized nations have accordingly deemed it of essential importance to regulate the affairs of its own commerce, by searching and reasonable laws. The rights and duties of the master and mariners, during the progress of the voyage, as well as in foreign ports, are clearly laid down by the laws of the land, and certain requirements are exacted from the owners of ships before proceeding upon the voyage, in order to the obtaining of those advantages which every nation has seen proper to provide by law for its own commerce. The apparently complicated operations of commerce, it would seem, can be resolved into a few plain principles.

The vessel is the sole vehicle of foreign commerce, and the owners, supposing they let it out to hire, derive the same sort of profit as the landlord from the tenant, in the freight. The excess of the value of the freight over the wear and tear of the ship, and other necessary expenses, is the profit of the owner. On the other hand, the merchant, supposing that he possesses no property-interest in the ship, but merely hires and lades her with his own cargo, derives his profit from the excess of the value of the cargo, at its port of destination, over its original cost, insurance, freight, and other necessary expenses. Profit, therefore, derived from the one or the other source, or from both, is the grand motive of commerce. In conducting our own commercial operations, it is believed that there is no uniform plan observed in the transactions, as between the owner of the ship and the merchant. Sometimes the ship is altogether owned by the merchants who freight it, and sometimes it is merely hired for the transportation of a cargo. Without entering, however, into a consideration of those minute and well established legal principles which regulate the parties to a voyage, we proceed to the exhibition of those general rules which govern its prosecution.

In the first place, in order to identify our own ships, it is enacted, by a law of Congress, that the name of every registered and licensed ship, with the port to which she belongs, shall be painted on her stern, in white letters, not less than three inches in length, on a black ground. It is also required that each ship shall be either registered, enrolled, licensed, or recorded. 1. Those ships which are built within the United States, and owned wholly by citizens, and employed in foreign trade, are entitled to be registered. 2. Those ships which are built and owned in like manner, and employed in the coasting trade and fisheries, are entitled to be enrolled and licensed. These vessels are alone deemed vessels of the United States, and entitled to the benefits and privileges belonging to such ships. 3. Ships built in the United States, but owned either in whole or in part by foreigners, which are entitled to be recorded. 4. Ships built out of the United States, but owned by citizens, which are entitled to a certificate of ownership. All ships built out of the United States, and owned by foreigners, are entitled alien vessels. If, however, a ship engaged in the coasting trade and fishery, be under twenty tons, she need not be enrolled and licensed, but it is sufficient that she is licensed. These are the general rules regulating our shipping, which, however, have been subject to a few modifications.*

* For the laws of Congress appertaining to this subject, we have been indebted to the Appendix of Judge Story's edition of "Abbot on Shipping."

The general divisions of our commerce, so far as they are furnished to us by the government, consist of vessels that are engaged in foreign trade, or that commerce which is carried on between ourselves and foreign countries; the coasting trade, or that commerce which is prosecuted between different parts of our own coast, which includes some very elegant lines of ships; and the fishing, or those vessels which are employed in taking fish either upon our own coast or upon the ocean. These are the three general branches of commerce which are prosecuted from our own shores. In order to obtain the tonnage of these several classes of ships, our coast is divided into separate districts, each of which is under the charge of a collector of the customs, whose duty it is made to ascertain the facts, and to grant proper papers. These papers, thus issued from the offices of the custom house, are the warrant under which they sail, the certificate of character, and the badge of nationality. As the evidence of their actual position, they entitle them to the protection of their government wherever they may float, and to all those rights which have been stipulated either by definitive treaties or the law of nations.

It has long been a matter of question among politicians what commercial policy should be pursued by our own government, or whether commerce shall be left to take care of itself; but it is clear, that if any change of that system is advisable, there has never been a more auspicious time to effect it than the present. Heretofore we have not even known the actual product of the country, and thus we have had no data upon which to base any calculations as to our probable export. The recent census, and the compilation of valuable documents regarding our commercial relations, to which we have alluded, provide us all the materials that we require for such an object. There can be but little doubt that our soil will hereafter furnish a vast surplus of agricultural products, which would seem to be the natural subject for export; and it is equally clear that productive markets for these products abroad would supply a profitable market at home. Great Britain, doubtless, requires a considerable portion of this surplus for her stunted population, but she shuts her own doors against those products, while she continues to pour down upon us enormous quantities of her manufactures. While we are opposed to any partial and exclusive legislation, is it not right that the policy of Great Britain should be met by a like policy on our own part? Should the product of her looms and workshops be permitted to come in competition with our own, while she bars her own ports against the produce of our soil? We have at last discovered the amount of our products, our tonnage, and the exact condition of our commercial relations, and with these facts we are ready to meet other nations upon an equal footing.

It is difficult to conceive what objection could be urged against a reciprocity of commercial intercourse, supposing that reciprocity could be obtained. From the brief view that we have taken, it would also appear evident that a very large body of our productive population are deeply and increasingly interested in the subject; and those causes which tend to benefit any branch of our enterprise, necessarily benefits all who are connected with it. Foreign nations doubtless have, in their confidence and employ, men of remarkable astuteness and ability, who have made the subjects connected with commercial science matter of long and profound study; and there is an increasing motive with us to meet them with

a like acuteness of discrimination, in the rapidly increasing amount of our domestic products and the shipping of the country. We wish to see our commerce, manufactures, and agriculture flourish, and with them the people of the whole country. We wish to see our "canvass-winged birds of the ocean" floating to every port, and everywhere returning, like the dove with the olive-branch to the ark, not with the vices, but with the blessings of peace, prosperity, and civilization.

ART. V.—POLICY AND IMPOLICY OF COUNTERVAILING DUTIES.

In the Merchants' Magazine for January, 1842,* appeared an able article, by Condy Raguét, Esq., on the impolicy of countervailing duties; and although generally pleased with the tone of the article, there are some parts of it to which I except, for it may be that the principles upon which his arguments are based are not true, or that they are not true in all cases, and that they will not always apply. And it certainly appears, as far as one can judge from facts, that there are cases in which they are not true, and do not apply. Even Adam Smith himself, who first arranged and applied the principles upon which the advocates of free trade rely, makes one or two exceptions. And political economists generally, exclude all idea of policy from their speculations, and inquire only of one thing—what effect has any course of policy upon national wealth? Now, for one, I object to wealth as being the grand end and aim of nations, and question whether even wealth itself would not increase in a greater proportion, if it were less sought after than it now is, and as political economists would desire to have it, the great beau idéal of national policy. Adam Smith never uttered a truer sentiment, nor one of which he seems to have thought less, than the following: "The people make the state; its real riches lie in its inhabitants."† If he had confined himself to the investigation and explication of this principle, he would have produced a system of political economy more perfect than any the world has yet seen, and more worthy of the attention of statesmen. He would have formed a school in which the brightest genius and the loftiest intellect would have been proud to have been learners. Religion, morality, and education, would have formed the ground work of his system; and inquiry into the cause and increase of wealth, with all its means of affording material gratification, would have been but one of its consequents. His inquiry would then have been, "*wherein consists, and how shall be attained, the true greatness of a state?*" It really seems strange that at this age of the world, wealth should be the object at which all seem to aim, the altar at which all do sacrifice, the idol to which all do homage. "The ancients," in the language of another, "placed Plutus, their fabled god of gold, under ground, and, I know not by what strange revolution, he is now raised and enthroned on high, amid the nations."‡

* The present paper, written more than a year since, was forwarded by private hand; and was not, in consequence of some inadvertence on the part of the bearer, received until within a few weeks past.—*Ed. Mag.*

† I do not recollect at present whether this sentiment is in the *Wealth of Nations*, or in the *Essay of Malthus on Population*.

‡ Rev. Horace Bushnell, P. B. K. Oration. Yale College, 1837.

I do not know that I can be placed in any one of the four classes into which Mr. Raguét has divided the advocates of the restrictive system in the United States. My endeavor always has been, to discover what is the truth; and when discovered, I hold myself bound, in all cases, as a lover of truth, to embrace it. It may happen, that because I found what I consider fallacies in the arguments of Adam Smith, and consequently in all those who have followed him, that therefore I have considered the whole system nearly wrong. But I think that I have not gone as far as that, for although I acquiesce in some of the conclusions of Adam Smith, yet I do not rely upon his premises in all cases for their establishment. If I am to be placed in any one of Mr. Raguét's four classes, it must be in the first one; and I am to be considered as belonging to that, thus far and no farther, in that I believe the following proposition to be true: That when a nation possesses the natural advantages for the introduction and carrying on of any branch of trade or manufactures, and one, too, which in the probable course of events, would be introduced, that it is good policy, and that it will in the end increase the national wealth, for the legislator so to arrange his duties, as by the protection those duties will afford, to introduce that branch of trade or manufactures into the country, before it would be introduced by the unassisted labors of individuals. This proposition, I think, can be proved from the principles and admissions of the author of the *Wealth of Nations* himself. I shall not now, however, stop to prove it, but will just refer to the following passage, taken from the second volume of the *Wealth of Nations*,* book v., chap i., part 3d, article 1st, where he treats "Of the public works and institutions which are necessary for facilitating particular branches of commerce," where the author uses the following language: "When a company of merchants undertake, at their own risk and expense, to establish a new trade with some remote and barbarous nation, it may not be unreasonable to incorporate them into a joint stock company, and to grant them, in case of success, a monopoly of the trade for a certain number of years. It is the easiest and most natural way in which the state can recompense them for hazarding a dangerous and expensive experiment, of which the public is afterwards to reap the benefit. A temporary monopoly of this kind may be vindicated upon the same principles, upon which a like monopoly of a new machine is granted to its inventor, and that of a new book to its author. But upon the expiration of the term, the monopoly ought certainly to terminate; the forts and garrisons, if it was found necessary to establish any, to be taken into the hands of the government, their value to be paid to the company, and the trade to be laid open to all the subjects of the state. By a perpetual monopoly, (this I should not claim,) all the other subjects of the state are taxed very absurdly in two different ways; first, by the high price of goods, which, in the course of a free trade, they could buy much cheaper; and secondly, by their total exclusion from a branch of business, which it might be convenient and profitable for many of them to carry on. It is for the most worthless of all purposes, too, that they are taxed in this manner. It is merely to enable the company to support the negligence, profusion, and malversation of their own servants, whose disorderly conduct seldom allows the dividend of the company to exceed the ordinary rate of profit in

* The edition I quote from is Cooke's Hartford edition of 1804, vol. ii, p. 203.

trades which are altogether free, and very frequently makes it fall even a good deal short of that rate. Without a monopoly, however, a joint stock company, it would appear from experience, cannot long carry on any branch of foreign trade. To buy in one market in order to sell, with profit, in another, when there are many competitors in both; to watch over the occasional variations in the demand, but the much greater and more frequent variations in the competition, or in the supply which that demand is likely to get from other people, and to suit with dexterity and judgment both the quantity and quality of each assortment of goods to all these circumstances, is a species of warfare of which the operations are continually changing, and which can scarce ever be conducted successfully, without an unremitting exertion of vigilance and attention, as cannot long be expected from the directors of a joint stock company." I have quoted the whole of this extract, that there need be no suspicion of my taking only that part which supports the proposition, and omitting what opposes it. And if the principles and admission implied and alleged in the foregoing extract do not support the proposition that I have laid down, I cannot tell when a conclusion is logically derived from given premises.

The remark made by Mr. Raguét, that those who support such a proposition—for, in fact, it amounts to that, for on his principles no encouragement should ever be given by government to home manufactures—"have derived their opinions chiefly from the opinions of superficial or interested reasoners," is rather uncalled for, as it is possible that such a proposition may sometimes be true, and it seems rather impossible, that with all the light shed by Adam Smith and his followers upon these subjects, that so many great minds should still continue to doubt the universal truth of the principles of free trade. Abuse is not argument, and it appears that there are still minds, of no ordinary capacity, who are willing to hazard their reputations, as sound thinkers, in supporting the proposition, that it is sometimes expedient for the government to support the expense of introducing a new branch of trade or manufactures into a country, which will, after a season, advance the wealth of the nation. To undertake to introduce into a country any branch of trade or manufactures by legislative aid, which must, for want of natural advantages, always require such protection, is what few would contend for, or justify, unless on grounds of public policy, upon which grounds even Adam Smith himself approves of the navigation acts of Great Britain. "Notwithstanding," he says, "it is not impossible that some of the regulations of this famous act may have proceeded from national animosity, they are as wise as if they had all been dictated by the most deliberate wisdom."—*Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii., book iv., chap. ii.

The policy or impolicy of countervailing duties, in every case, is a question, in my apprehension, not to be decided by mere abstract reasoning from given or assumed premises. A conclusion may be logically deduced from such premises, and still not be true. Because it is a true proposition in natural philosophy, that the strength of timbers, the length being given, is inversely as the breadth into the square of the depth, the philosopher would not undertake to tell you what weight any piece of timber would sustain. He would need some other data before he could draw any conclusion, and logic would be of no service to him, until he knew all the facts in the particular case. With a knowledge of these, and of the different qualities and kinds of timber, he might undertake to answer

your question. But a long and anxious course of experiments and observations, as to the strength of different kinds of wood, with a strict and severe induction, would be necessary, before he could learn any general rule or principle to apply to particular cases. When, by his observations and experiments, he has established these general rules, assuming the truth of the proposition, that nature is uniform in her operations, and knowing the facts in any particular case, he can then apply his principles, thus established, to the particular case. Because, in one particular case, it is proved that it will diminish the national wealth to lay protecting duties, and that therefore it is impolitic, it does not logically follow that it is impolitic in every case. Because it is proved to be impolitic in one case to lay countervailing duties, it does not logically follow that it is impolitic in every case. You cannot logically deduce any universal conclusion, from a particular premises. And although it should be proved, that in every case with which we are acquainted, in which the legislator has undertaken to introduce new trades or manufactures into his country by protection, in any shape or way, that he has done an injury, and has diminished the national wealth, although it would create a very strong presumption that such would always be the consequence, yet it does not inevitably follow. For it may be, that the very next case presented may be the one to which the general rules we have already learned may not apply, owing to some circumstance connected with it, which were not found in the preceding cases. Before you can apply a general rule, derived by induction from particular cases, to any given individual case, you must prove that the case in hand comes within that class of cases from which the principle was derived, or else there will be an error in the conclusion. Mr. Raguét, in his remarks upon the first class of the advocates of a restrictive system, makes use of this argument: "The operation of the British corn laws, in making the British people eat dear bread, is so manifestly seen by all to be injurious to the nation at large, that reflecting men could not fail to perceive that a policy in this country, which should compel the American people to wear dear clothes, would necessarily be injurious to *them*." This argument, to make it logically correct, demands the assumption of a proposition which I think to be untrue; and to show where the error lies in the argument, let us state it, syllogistically, at its full length. The argument then, stated in this manner, is this:—

A course of policy which is injurious to one nation, is injurious to all nations, or to every nation; but the policy of the British corn laws is injurious to the British nation, because it compels them to eat dear bread; therefore, the same course of policy which compels the Americans to wear dear clothes, is injurious to the American people.

This can now be easily understood, and it seems to me, that the universal, or first proposition, is untrue, and if it is, his argument is incorrect, as it depends upon this first premise, which is suppressed. That it does depend upon this first but suppressed premise, or proposition, will be easily seen by denying it, and stating it in this form: a course of policy which is injurious to one nation, may be beneficial to another; from this the conclusion may be logically drawn, that it may be good policy to compel the American people to wear dear clothes. By making the second premise in his argument, the second or particular proposition under the universal rule that I have stated, the conclusion that I have drawn legiti-

mately follows. We do not say that it would be good policy to make the American people, even for a time, wear dear clothes. That must be proved not by logic merely, but by deductions drawn from a vast number of particular facts. It is hardly fair to assume, without proof, a proposition such as he has assumed; one, too, which demands so much, and which can be made to prove so vast a number of particular conclusions. Assuming it to be true, you might say that our republican form of government, which suits us so well, would suit every nation on the face of the globe. A course of policy which may be good at one time, may, in the same nation, be injurious at another. An hereditary monarchy may be the best government for one nation, and a republic for another. It might be good policy for Great Britain to allow the free importation of bread stuffs into her ports, because, owing to her peculiar situation and circumstances, she cannot raise as much as her people can consume, neither can she raise it as cheap as other nations can supply her. But this seems to be owing to her situation and circumstances, and from this particular instance, it does not seem to be philosophical to deduce a general proposition, that it would be good policy for every nation to allow the free importation of bread stuffs. The same apparent circumstances that might make it good policy for one nation, might make it injurious to another. It might be good policy in Scotland to allow the free importation of wines, because she can never produce it as cheaply as France can supply her, owing to the difference in climate; but it does not follow that it would be good policy for the United States, as they might, after a time, be able to produce it at a less expense than France. The United States might, with a little encouragement, produce silk at a cheaper rate than France, or than France can supply them; but does it follow, that because Lapland cannot do the same, and it would be impolitic for her to undertake to compete with France, it would be folly for the United States. I think, therefore, there is an error in the argument of Mr. Raguét, owing to that single assumption, for it can be nothing else, as it cannot be proved to be true as a matter of fact.

I now come to the particular case cited by Mr. Raguét, that of Buenos Ayres and the United States; and although it appears, as he says, to be bad policy for the United States, as a matter of dollars and cents, to lay countervailing duties, yet it appears to me that the neglect of some of the consequences arising from the duties laid by Buenos Ayres, and the countervailing ones laid by the United States, materially affects the conclusion; whether it alters it we do not say. He makes one statement of facts, at the commencement of his argument, which is a matter of history rather questionable, which is, "that the farmers of Buenos Ayres have found it for their interest to cultivate cattle, for the sake of their hides for exportation to the United States, rather than to raise wheat; and that thus the farmer of Buenos Ayres gets more flour than he could if he raised wheat instead of cattle." The latter part of the sentence is the inference deduced from the statement in the first part. Now, if my memory serves me, it is a matter of history, that when South America was settled by the Spaniards and Portuguese, some of their domestic cattle, which they had brought with them from Europe, escaped to the plains and the forests, from which, in a state of freedom, have sprung those herds which now roam the pampas of the Southern climate. In the same way we account for the vast herds of wild horses that now scour

over the plains of Mexico and Texas. How far this might modify the conclusions he has drawn, I will not undertake to say ; but that it should modify them is evident. In the case stated by Mr. Raguét, he supposes that a hundred thousand barrels of flour will purchase three hundred thousand hides, the exchange affording to each party the usual profits of trade, and that the trade is free and unrestricted. At this point Buenos Ayres lays a duty of 20 per cent upon the flour of the United States. What are the consequences ? He states them as follows :—

First. A rise of price to the amount of 20 per cent, at Buenos Ayres, both foreign and domestic.

Second. A diminished demand for the flour of the United States, at Buenos Ayres, owing to the augmented price.

Third. A diminished demand for hides, for exportation to the United States.

Fourth. That the consumer of flour, at Buenos Ayres, must pay 20 per cent more for his flour, both foreign and domestic, than he paid while trade was free.

The first and fourth consequences seem to be the same, with this exception, that in the fourth he says that the consumer must pay the difference in price. Now it will be seen, on examination, that he does not mention the consequences to the United States of this 20 per cent duty laid by Buenos Ayres, except in the diminished demand for flour at Buenos Ayres, and thus restricting the market of the United States. In his case stated, he supposes the diminution of the trade, by the imposition of the duty, to amount to 20 per cent, so that Buenos Ayres consumes but eighty thousand barrels of flour, where before it consumed one hundred thousand ; consequently, the United States loses the sale of twenty thousand. Now what is the consequence to the United States of this loss of the sale of twenty thousand barrels of flour ? It falls back upon the American market, and a new market must be found for it somewhere else. But by hypothesis, as the unrestricted commercial enterprise of the United States has already, under the impulse of free trade, filled every market with all that can be consumed, no new market can be found.* It must, therefore, come into competition with the flour already in the American market ; and as the demand is diminished, by the loss of the Buenos Ayres market, and the supply increased, by the quantity thrown back upon the American market, the price must fall in the United States. I do not say that this would be true as a matter of fact. I only know that it ought to be true as a matter of theory. What influence the falling back of this quantity of flour might have upon the American market, cannot be determined ; it depends upon the quantity of flour in market at the time. But this much is evident, that the cost to the exporter is diminished ; he can, therefore, export it to Buenos Ayres, and sell it there for less than 20 per cent above the former price, or the price while the trade remained free. We think that this conclusion is correctly drawn from the principles of free trade and its advocates, with whom it is a principle that, the demand remaining the same, increasing the supply, diminishes the price ; and the supply remaining the same, diminishing the

* According to the principles of the advocates of free trade, unrestricted commercial enterprise will always find out the best way of making money ; it is, therefore, a fair presage that they have already found it out.

demand, diminishes the price. What effect would this have upon Mr. Raguet's conclusion? Now, it is hardly to be supposed that the American farmer, because he obtains a less price for his wheat, owing to the diminished demand, is to give up raising wheat and turn his attention to the raising of something else that will yield him a greater profit, because, by hypothesis, he can make more money by raising wheat than he can in any other way. And besides, in turning his attention to the raising of something else, he must try some experiments, to discover whether he will succeed, and this requires a waste of capital, and therefore he loses money, as it prevents him from saving from his revenue to add to his capital, which is the only way to increase his wealth.—*Wealth of Nations*, book iv., chap. ii.

As to the first consequence of the 20 per cent duties laid by Buenos Ayres, does Mr. Raguet mean to have it supposed that the price of flour, both foreign and domestic, at Buenos Ayres, will continue at 20 per cent above the free trade price. Now it is a general truth, proved by the history of the world, that when men have once acquired the taste, or felt the need of any article or product, that they will rather suffer some privation and work harder, than be without it. It would be difficult to persuade one who had experienced the benefits of civilized life to live like a savage. As a savage, he could not satisfy the thousand wants that continually press upon him; he would still long for his broadcloth coat, although one of skins would last much longer. Thus the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, who had become accustomed to the use of flour, would wish to use as much after the duties were laid as before; and to supply this demand, some of the farmers of Buenos Ayres would, in all probability, turn their attention to the raising of wheat and production of flour. I do not say that this would be the case, for it may be that the people are so lazy that they would prefer to mount their horses and hunt wild cattle, for the sake of their skins, than to undergo the more laborious toil of raising wheat, although in the end it might be more profitable. The prospect of the farmer turning his attention to the raising of wheat, is a point for the legislator to examine before he lays his duties. But, suppose that the farmer should turn his attention to supplying the demand for domestic flour, to take the place of the foreign article driven out by the duties, what would be the consequence? In all probability, if we may judge of what will be from what has been, the Buenos Ayrean farmer, in order to increase the profits of his capital, and diminish the amount of labor necessary to raise a given quantity of wheat upon a given spot of ground, will endeavor to introduce labor-saving machinery from those countries that have succeeded in the cultivation of wheat. Inventions will be introduced from other countries, which will increase the profits both of labor and capital; and under the encouragement given by the government, individuals who are endowed by nature with an inventive genius, (the true creator of wealth,) which no government can make, but only draw out, will turn their attention to the invention of machinery, which, more than any thing else, adds to the wealth of a nation. That this is not a mere supposition, the history of our own country conclusively proves. It will be seen, that under this state of facts, that the capital of the country has undergone a partial change of the forms in which it was invested. Before, it was invested in cattle, which roamed the wide pampas, and which were useful only for their hides; now it is invested in the cultivation of wheat and

the production of flour ; and although the farmer may not be able to add to his capital for a time by saving from his revenue, yet his capital may be increased in reality by the increased revenue which it yields in the new form which it is invested. In the same way, an individual may increase his revenue by ceasing to cultivate a part of his farm, owing to the improvements he makes in the manner of cultivating the part which he retains. This has frequently happened in some parts of our country. Now, is this change of the form in which part of the national capital of Buenos Ayres is invested profitable to her or not, or will it in the end be profitable to her? Will it compensate her for the outlay, or, in other words, will the increased profits of capital, after she shall be enabled, by the aid of the government duties, to produce flour cheaper than other nations can sell it to her, so as to need no assistance, repay to the nation the sums she has been obliged to expend? This is an inference to be drawn by the legislator from an induction of a vast number of particular facts, and I know of no general rule that will always apply to such cases, with the certainty of always producing a correct result. When we reason about nations, there are elements in the combination which may be found in one nation and not in another. Man is not governed by fixed and immutable laws. When once we have discovered the modes in which the powers of nature act, we may always presume that they will continue to act in the same manner until the end of time. We can rely upon the courses of the seasons ; that summer and winter, seed time and harvest shall continue to follow in their destined round with an immutable certainty, and can regulate our actions in conformity thereto. But we cannot thus rely upon human conduct. We may, from the knowledge of men's instincts, passions, and affections, form some opinion of their future actions ; but we can form no judgment of the decisions of a self-determined will. Men formerly thought it justifiable to assassinate a tyrant, but we cannot thence infer that they will always continue to think so. Matter changes, to assume some form in which it had a pre-existence ; man alone changes into a character which he never before possessed. The question, therefore, whether it is good policy or not for the Buenos Ayrean legislator to encourage the cultivation of wheat and improvements in agriculture, depends upon many circumstances, upon many of which, from want of information, we are incapable of passing judgment. But as far as we are informed, I know of nothing, either in the climate or soil of Buenos Ayres, that should prevent it from becoming a grain-growing country ; and if it can become such, it would be supposed to be a benefit to the nation to introduce the cultivation of grain at the national expense, if it will cost too much for individuals to introduce it. Individuals are not likely to introduce a new manufacture or product into a country, unless they can make an immediate profit ; for, as they are seeking their own private gain, they would be unwilling to be at a large outlay, and suffering in all probability some losses when they were to receive no extra compensation for their trouble and expense, and obliged also to share the profits with others who had been at no such outlay and expense. It was not without reason, therefore, that the Dutch manufacturer at Abbeville, mentioned by Adam Smith, did not wish to have a similar manufactory started within twenty miles of him. He had been at a large outlay and expense to introduce a new manufacture into the country, by bringing skilled workmen from a foreign community, and he deserved the reward of his

enterprise and skill as much as the author of a new invention that adds to the wealth of a nation. If, therefore, the cultivation of wheat is suited to the soil and climate of Buenos Ayres and to the character of the people, and the outlay will repay the expense, it would be profitable to Buenos Ayres to encourage the cultivation of wheat, by affording it protection. The manner of affording this protection must rest upon grounds of public policy. It is, I believe, a well ascertained fact, drawn by induction from the history of nations, that a nation whose capital is invested in agriculture, will become rich faster than a nation whose capital is invested in flocks and herds; and not only will wealth flow in more rapidly, but other advantages also will follow. I do not recollect ever to have read of an enlightened and intelligent race of herdsmen. The frame work of their policy, and their manner of life, seems to forbid the very idea of their becoming so. Wandering from place to place, what opportunity is there for nourishing those qualities that can grow only in quiet? The Moors never became refined until they obtained a firm settlement in Spain, and there, amid the groves of orange and pomegranate, they retained nearly all the science that was saved from the fragments of the ancient world. In the same manner, a nation exclusively devoted to agriculture, without any commerce, will not become rich as fast as one that is also engaged in commerce and manufactures; and it is when all are combined in a proper proportion that national wealth increases the most rapidly, for there alone is the proper field afforded for the different kinds of talent in the community to develop itself, in the production, acquisition, and creation of national wealth.

Suppose, then, that under these circumstances, adaptation of soil, and climate, and national character, the government of Buenos Ayres, in order to encourage the cultivation of grain, and also to divert part of the national capital from the raising of wild cattle, if such it may be called, to the cultivation of wheat, to lay a duty of 20 per cent, which the nation itself must pay for in part, and in part only, for I think that it has been shown before that the exporting nation must pay part of it.* For if the exporting nation does not pay part of it, the farmers of the United States, who produced the twenty thousand barrels of flour above the demand, must divert their capital to the production of something else, which they will not be very likely to do, unless some other motive also compels them. If they do thus divert their capital, they must endeavor to find some new product that will give them the usual profits, because everything else is already cultivated at the usual profits; and thus what was meant to benefit one country, acts as an impellant force or encouragement in another. The 20 per cent duty, then, is laid on Buenos Ayres, for a year or two, until the farmer can introduce or manufacture his machinery, and get fairly started; the price of flour at Buenos Ayres is less than 20 per cent above what it was before, for the reasons before given, and this difference is the real amount of encouragement given by the government. This goes on for two years, the consumer paying this difference; in the

* This is illustrated and proved by a fact I saw stated, a short time since, in one of the Boston papers. A merchant in this country wrote to his correspondent at Buenos Ayres, that Congress were about to lay a duty of 20 per cent upon coffee. The consequence was an immediate fall in the price of coffee, at Buenos Ayres, of 15 per cent. But when the news was received that coffee had been excepted, the price immediately rose to its former standard.

third year, however, the Buenos Ayrean farmer comes into competition with the American farmer, and the price falls, and more of the foreign flour is thrown back upon the American market; and thus it goes on, until the Buenos Ayrean flour drives out the American flour, by underselling it. How long a time may be required to produce this result, it is impossible to say; but the result will be as inevitable as that effect follows cause. It has been done before, and it can be done again. There are bounds and limits, to be sure, as well as there are bounds and limits in nature. Buenos Ayres cannot produce for herself every article of necessity or luxury that the globe can furnish, for nature has denied her the advantages requisite. It would be folly, therefore, for her to attempt it. It would be folly to attempt to cultivate the vine, just below the limits of perpetual snow; but it does not follow that it would be folly to cultivate wheat. Natural advantages must ever belong to the nation to which Providence has assigned them, but acquired advantages may be obviated. The knowledge and skill acquired or possessed by one set of men, or nation, may be transferred to another; but the soil and climate can never be thus exchanged. It is, therefore, for the legislator to examine and see whether the product he wishes to introduce from a foreign nation into his own can be produced, and if so, the question of profit or loss is to be settled also by an examination of particular facts, and not by logical arguments, drawn from axioms; for then the premises imply the conclusion, and a knowledge of facts is useless, as no general law can be derived from them, the rule having already been deduced from axioms. This is a fault of the free trade system, as generally propagated, that its general rules are not drawn by induction from a vast number of particular facts, after the Baconian method, but, like the natural philosophy of the ancients, one principle is contained in another, and facts are forced to square with these principles, thus logically deduced. In the natural philosophy of the present day, it is considered necessary to go through a long course of experiments and observations, before any of its principles shall be considered as proved, and each principle is to be proved by its own class of facts. The philosophy of the modern political economists reminds us of the nut given by the enchanted princess of the fairy tale to her lover, who was required by his father to find a thread that could be passed through the eye of the needle. When the nut was opened, another nut was found within, and then another, and then came a millet seed, and then a mustard seed, and within that was found the thread. This kind of philosophy is most excellently suited for the purposes of disputation and argument, and for putting down an antagonist, but it is not suited to the discovery of new truths.

But let us look and see what other consequences accrue to Buenos Ayres from the establishment of the duties for the encouragement of agriculture, besides those we have already seen. Among the most important of these, we will mention first, that the same extent of territory will support a much larger and denser population. That this is true, we can see, by comparing our own condition with that of Buenos Ayres; and although there are many other circumstances that make us to differ, yet this may be considered as one of the most important points of difference: the difference in the character of the products and the manner of cultivation. The population supported on the soil of the United States is much more dense than that supported on the soil of Buenos Ayres, although both

countries were settled at nearly the same period of time, and both may be considered as having a boundless extent of territory. Why is it that the population of the United States increases so much faster than that of Buenos Ayres? Why is it that Buenos Ayres is weak, while we are powerful? The early settlers of the country were compelled, by the circumstances in which they were placed, to apply themselves to agriculture; and instead of spreading themselves over the wide extent of territory that lay spread out before them, and degenerating into a nation of herdsmen, they were compelled to till the soil to support themselves and their little ones. As a consequence, towns and villages sprang up, surrounded by well-cultivated farms; and the orator of the revolution was almost within the bounds of truth, when he said, "that the fires in our autumnal woods are scarcely more rapid than have been the increase of our wealth and population."* What makes the difference between China and Tartary? One supports a race of herdsmen, and the other a race of agriculturists. The same territory that supported Abraham with his flocks and herds, afterwards supported thousands of those who cultivated the vine, the pomegranate, and the olive. The cultivator of the soil has also more wants than the herdsman, and requires more mechanics to prepare tools for his use on his farm; he requires more machines, the products or creations of genius, to assist in his productions, and to prepare those productions for consumption, and consequently gives employment to more laborers, and thus produces more wealth than the herdsmen. From the descriptions given of the herdsmen of the Pampas, we find them such as, from their employment, we might suppose them to be—a wild, roving, and reckless set of men, fond of anything but hard work. Ignorant and poor we also know them to be; and while they continue as they now are, they will remain poor and ignorant, afflicted by those vices that are the consequences of ignorance and poverty. To educate them while they remain as they are, is a matter of as much impossibility as it is to educate the Indians on our western frontiers, who wander from place to place, without fixed habitations. Our missionaries tell us that it is impossible to educate the Indian, unless he can be induced to quit his present mode of life, and to settle down as a cultivator of the soil. The Cherokees were more easily educated and improved than the Choctaws or Chickasaws, because they were more easily induced to become farmers; and we find, as a consequence, what all experience proves we might have expected, that they became richer than their Indian neighbors, and now they are the most enlightened tribe in the United States. The arts and sciences never have flourished, and never can flourish, where the population is so scattered; and it is to the progress made in these arts and sciences that Europe and the United States owe their unexampled progress in wealth since the commencement of the seventeenth century. The invention of the cotton gin has more than quadrupled the wealth of the southern part of the confederacy; and the amount of wealth created by the invention of the steam engine and of the steamboat is incalculable. Would a people, whose wealth consists in flocks and herds, be likely to make improvements in natural science, or to pursue such kinds of study? The progress of the mechanic arts depends upon, and must be preceded by, discoveries in science; but will a race of herdsmen make any such discoveries? Has

* Otis.

history left us any record of such discoveries made by such a people, or of inventions which change the instruments or the forms in which capital is invested? Adam Smith acknowledges that, on the principle he has laid down, there is a limit to the profitable investment of capital; but has the most far-reaching intellect yet discovered any bounds to the progress of the inventive faculty, or ascertained any limit to the application of invention to the varied wants of human life? We know, also, that a great part of the cost of the products of the soil to the distant consumer, is made up of the cost of transportation, and the cultivator of the soil obtains a higher price for his products, if the cost of transportation is diminished. In this case, the producer and the consumer are mutually benefitted. But railroads and canals, by diminishing the cost, and facilitating transportation, increase the amount of capital, and augment its revenues. But is there any probability that a pastoral people will construct railroads and dig canals? Will they even lay out and construct common roads and highways? Will they dig down and level hills, fill up the vallies, and bridge the rivers, and thus not only band together distant parts of the country, but increase the wealth of the common whole? History gives us no information of such works ever having been undertaken by a pastoral people; and as long as it records the rise and fall of nations, never will. Population and wealth are spread over too large an area, and scattered over too large an extent of territory, to make such works profitable to a pastoral people. But look at an agricultural people, and they reverse the picture. They find such works to be of advantage to the community, and if individual wealth is not adequate to the undertaking, the public revenues are employed, and the whole community is benefitted, although part of the revenues which the people pay must be expended. But these improvements in the means of transportation diminish the number of persons necessary to be employed in the carriage of commodities; and although it may be necessary to invest a greater amount of capital than before, yet the number of persons employed, being diminished, they become producers instead of carriers. This is an advantage to the community; and increases the wealth of the whole. We think it has been sufficiently shown, that when a nation from pastoral becomes an agricultural community, that the same extent of territory will support a denser population, and as one of the consequences of this increased density of population, a greater division of labor follows; or, in other words, the application of labor to materials is changed, so as to draw out more profitably the peculiar skill and talent of each individual in the community. By this the national wealth increases more rapidly than it did before, as the revenue is increased, which is the same in effect as increasing the capital of the nation. This we cannot now stay to argue. Another consequence will be, that as the population has become more dense, the common funds of the state can be better applied to the education of the people, so that the advantages of education are extended to a greater number than before. This all will acknowledge to be a great advantage, as it is principally by the application of knowledge and skill to the improvement of the instruments of labor, that the wealth of the nation is increased.

Enough has been said, however, already, to show that the propositions of Mr. Raguét should be somewhat modified. To what extent, I leave with others to determine; but I must be permitted to say, that although taught to believe the doctrines and principles of Adam Smith and his fol-

lowers to be true, I have as yet never been able to bring myself to assent to those principles so broadly stated, even as a matter of theory. They may be true, but the arguments to me do not seem conclusive, and the proofs are unsatisfactory. Broadcast flings at the advocates of the opposite theory, prove nothing as to the truth or falsity of the propositions attempted to be established. They may be both interested and superficial reasoners; but it must be proved that the arguments they use are inconclusive, and that the facts they adduce do not apply, notwithstanding. It is an old maxim, that truth lies in the middle, and not on the extremes, and it is a maxim worthy of our especial consideration. And if statesman and people would remember it, nations would be more prosperous, and revolutions would be less frequent.

C. C. W.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT, NEW YORK.

LIFE INSURANCE.—EFFECT OF THE PROVISIO IN REFERENCE TO THE INSURED'S DYING BY HIS OWN HAND.

Breasted and others, administrators, *vs.* The Farmers' Loan and Trust Company. January, 1843.

This was an action brought upon a policy of insurance on the life of Hiram Comfort, of whose estate the plaintiffs were administrators. The policy contained a clause providing that, in case the insured should die upon the seas, &c., or by *his own hand*, or in consequence of a duel, or by the hands of justice, the policy should be void. The defence set up by the Loan and Trust Company was, that Comfort committed suicide by drowning himself in the Hudson river, although it was admitted that he was at the time of *unsound mind, and wholly unconscious of the act.*

The chief justice observed, in delivering his decision in this cause, that the question to be settled in the case was whether Comfort's self-destruction, in a fit of insanity, can be deemed a death *by his own hand* within the meaning of the policy. He was of opinion that it could not. The words in the policy import death by suicide. Provisos declaring the policy to be void, in case the insured *commit suicide or die by his own hand*, are used indiscriminately by different insurance companies as expressing the same idea. The connection in which the words stand in the policy would also seem to indicate that they were intended to express a criminal act of self-destruction, as they are found in conjunction with the provision relating to the termination of the life of the insured in a duel, or by his execution as a criminal. Speaking legally, too, self-destruction, by a fellow-being bereft of reason, can with no more propriety be ascribed to the act of *his own hand*, than to the deadly instrument that may have been used for that purpose. Self-slaughter by an insane man is not suicide within the act of the law—and judgment was ordered for the plaintiffs.

THE LIABILITY OF THE MORTGAGEE OF A SHIP FOR REPAIRS.

Spinola vs. Miln. January, 1843.

Spinola sued Miln for supplies furnished to the ship Henry Kneeland, amounting to \$146. On the 10th of March, 1840, D. H. Robinson executed an absolute bill of sale of two-thirds of the ship to defendant; and on the 10th of April following the defendant, on his own oath that he and one Thomas D. Bickford were the sole owners of the ship, took out a register in their own names. The defendant took immediate possession

of the ship, and in November following the supplies in question were furnished, when the ship was about sailing from New York to Gibraltar. The defendant found that the bill of sale, although absolute on its face, was in fact intended as a mortgage security only.

Judge Bronson decided, that although the mortgagee of a ship, who has not taken possession, cannot be charged as owner, yet where he is in possession, and has caused the ship to be registered in his own name, there is no reason why he should not be regarded as owner, and, as such, answerable for supplies furnished and repairs made upon the ship. Although the plaintiff probably expected to get his pay from Robinson when the supplies were furnished, he charged the goods to the "ship and owners," and I think he was at liberty to resort to defendant. Judgment for plaintiff.

THE EFFECT OF MAKING PAYMENTS TO PARTIES WHO ARE RESTRAINED, BY INJUNCTION OF
CHANCERY, FROM COLLECTING DEBTS.

Kellogg & Marcy vs. Corning.

This was an action on a note. The defence was, that it had been paid.

The chief justice observed that the only question in this case was, whether the payment of the note on which the action is founded is to be regarded as having been made by the defendant in his own wrong, by reason of the injunction restraining the payee from collecting or receiving the debts due Hempstead & Keeler, or whether the defendant is to be considered as discharged from his liability by reason of such payment. After a discussion of the principles and authorities involved, his Honor concluded by deciding that the Supreme Court would take no notice of a Chancery injunction, and that, consequently, the payment of the note must be considered valid.

LOANS OF CREDIT WITH REFERENCE TO USURY.

Suydam and others vs. Westfall.

The plaintiffs were commission merchants in the city of New York. They agreed to accept the drafts of Norton, Bartle, & McNeil to the amount of \$20,000, taking a bond and mortgage from them for twice that sum as security; and it was further agreed that all produce shipped to New York by Norton, Bartle, & McNeil should be sent to the plaintiffs, to be sold upon commission; that the latter should be thus kept in funds, to meet their acceptances as they became due; and that they should be entitled to two and a half per cent commission on all advances or acceptances met otherwise than with produce. Norton, Bartle, & McNeil's drafts were afterwards accepted and paid by the plaintiffs to an amount exceeding the value of the produce consigned; and they charged N. B. & M. interest on the sums thus paid, together with two and a half per cent commission on all advances met otherwise than with produce.

The present action was brought to recover the sum advanced upon one of the drafts, and a majority of the judges held that this transaction was not essentially usurious, especially as it appeared that the charge for a commission was customary among merchants engaged in similar business. Justice Cowen dissented from the opinion of his brethren.

Ketchum vs. Barber.

The *bona fide* sale of one's credit by way of guaranty or endorsement, though for a compensation exceeding the legal rate of interest, is not usurious, if the transaction be unconnected with a loan between the parties. If connected with a loan the transaction will be deemed usurious, unless the excess beyond legal interest be fairly ascribable to trouble and expense actually and *bona fide* incurred in and about the business of the loan. In such cases it is, in general, a question for the jury, whether the excess, by whatever name the parties may have called it, was really taken as a compensation for trouble and expense, incurred in good faith, or was mere usury in disguise.

Robert Muir, desirous of raising money on a note at four months, drawn by himself and endorsed for his accommodation by Barber & Leonard, authorized a broker to buy an additional name or guaranty, for the purpose of getting the note discounted. Application was therefore made to Ketchum, also a broker, who endorsed the note on receiving a commission of two and a half or three per cent, and it was then discounted at a bank. About the time it fell due Muir made another note, corresponding in amount, which, after being endorsed, was discounted by Ketchum, and the proceeds applied in payment of the first. The second note not being paid at maturity, Ketchum brought the above-named suit upon it against the maker and endorser, in which the Court, Judge Cowen dissenting, held that the commission did not necessarily render the note usurious.

UNITED STATES TARIFF—IMPORTING INDECENT PAINTINGS.

In the United States District Court, Judge Betts presiding, an action was brought to confiscate three cases of toys and snuff-boxes, Messrs. Poppy and Mr. L. Smith claimants, on the ground of there being indecent and obscene paintings in the same invoice.

The action was brought under the tariff law of 1842, the twenty-eighth section of which says: "The importation of all indecent and obscene prints, paintings, lithographs, engravings and transparencies, is hereby prohibited, and no invoice or package whatever, or any part thereof, shall be admitted to entry in which any such articles are contained; and all invoices and packages whereof any such article shall compose a part, are hereby declared to be liable to be proceeded against, seized and forfeited by due course of law, and the said articles shall be forthwith destroyed."

The indecent paintings were attached to snuff-boxes, nine in number, which were contained in the same invoice as the other articles, and imported here from Germany in September, 1842. The snuff-boxes had false bottoms, on each of which was painted an indecent scene or figure, of so very obscene a character that they were unfit to be produced in court, and only one of them was exhibited, having been first defaced with ink to hide its obscenity, for the purpose of showing in what manner the paintings were attached to the boxes.

For the defence, it was alleged, and there was no evidence to show the contrary, that the present claimants were innocent of any intent to import these obscene paintings, as the snuff-boxes containing them were ordered by another party without their knowledge. It was also alleged in mitigation, that even if the claimants had ordered the indecent prints, they had done so before the law prohibiting such articles was passed, as the law was passed in August, and the goods arrived here in the following September. But the main ground of defence was that those articles were not paintings, nor could so be considered, or would they be so called by any merchant or trader, but that they were snuff-boxes, well known under such denomination in commerce, and that the circumstance of paintings being attached to them could not alter their denomination of snuff-boxes.

The Court charged the jury.

It is said by counsel that if you exclude every article which is in itself of an indecent character, you must necessarily prevent the importation of many of the fine arts. But let us look at what was the evident intent of the legislature in passing this law. It does not say that articles merely indelicate or indecent shall be confiscated. It says something more. It says, "all indecent and obscene paintings," &c. No language could be more significant to mark out the limits intended by the legislature, or to show more manifestly that they meant only productions offensive to modesty and subversive of morality, and that they did not intend to prohibit the productions of a higher order in the fine arts. If, for instance, it was a painting or statue of the human figure, although perfectly naked, and so far, in a limited acceptance of the word, indecent, yet it could not be called obscene. But if, when the case is given to the jury, they say that the paint-

ing has the characteristics of an obscene production, it matters not what may be its merits in a foreign market, it comes under the law of Congress, prohibiting indecent paintings. The great and important question is, do these boxes come within the meaning the act. You are to bear in mind that, on this trial, these paintings, representations, or whatever they may be termed, are admitted to be both indecent and obscene. So much so, that they were not brought before you. The question is, then, whether the articles come within the denomination under which paintings are included by Congress, inasmuch as they are attached to snuff-boxes. It is said that Congress meant a distinct fabric, or work of art, known only as a painting. But to say so, would, I think, be limiting too much the intended scope of the law, and counteracting its purposes. Congress acted on the principle that indecent prints or paintings were likely or liable to taint the public morals, and ordered that everything of that sort should be confiscated. But Congress did not say in what manner or fashion those articles should be produced. They did not say whether the print or painting should be on wood or canvass, or on some article of ordinary use, but merely that it be a painting or print likely to produce the mischief which Congress intended to prevent. Suppose that you imported window-curtains or bed-curtains, and those curtains or covers are daubed over with indecent paintings, could it for a moment be maintained that they might be imported as curtains or covers, and thus escape the law which prohibits the importation of indecent paintings? Can it, because it is attached to a thing with another name, not be called a painting, although it is in reality such a painting as is calculated to cause the mischief which Congress intended to counteract? I apprehend that, taking the language of Congress in its plain and obvious acceptation, it intended to prohibit indecent paintings of all and every description, no matter to what material or article they were attached; and it is our duty to give full effect to the language employed by the law—and the only question for you to determine is, was that article an indecent painting?

Congress also said that not only shall all such indecent paintings be destroyed, but also that all articles in the same invoice shall be condemned. The statement made in this case shows that there were looking-glasses in the same invoice belonging to a merchant who is probably innocent of any intentional offence against the law. But the law does not allow us to make any discrimination. If these paintings came as part of the invoice, whatever be its amount or quality, the whole of it is subject to confiscation.

The jury, without leaving the court, brought in a verdict for the United States, thereby confiscating the whole of the goods. The value of the goods thus confiscated on account of the nine snuff-boxes, was about \$700.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

A FAIR amount of business has been done generally, throughout the fall months, and still continues, in some degree. The leading features of the market may now be described as follows:—Money abundant, and easily obtained, on good security, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ a 4 per cent—stocks gradually rising, although exposed to fluctuations consequent upon speculation, stimulated by the cheapness of money—the internal trade of the country safe, regular, and moderate—the external commerce seriously depressed—the crops of all kinds abundant, inducing a downward tendency in prices—the revenue of the government deficient, and an extension of the old loans necessary, in the form of treasury-notes, which are issued at a nominal interest. These are the leading features, and will be operated upon, in an eminent degree, by the progress of events in Europe during the coming year. The

great point of depression in England has passed. The enormous expansion of former years, re-acting upon a succession of bad harvests, caused a powerful and long-continued contraction of mercantile credits, which has crushed commercial interests, and plunged the manufacturing classes and operatives in a distress perhaps greater than ever before occurred after so long a period of profound peace. In the course of this contraction, the consumption of goods has been greatly retarded, and the wants of the community much enhanced. At the present time, prices of provisions and goods are probably lower than for twenty years. Money, for a year or eighteen months, has been cheaper than ever before; and the paper currency seems now to be recovering its buoyancy. The bullion in the Bank of England is still on the increase, although higher now than ever before, being near \$60,000,000. The consumption of cotton, and the export of the manufactured articles, have, during the first six months of the present year, reached an enormous extent; and will, undoubtedly, as the influence of cheap money in London is extended over the face of the commercial world, swell to an enormous extent. The extraordinary abundance of raw produce in the United States is a great element in promoting the successful extension of the markets for manufactured goods, particularly of cotton, the prospects of which article have, in some degree, changed since our last number. The estimates at that time were of a large falling off in the crop, consequent upon the lateness of the spring, and the expectations of an early frost. We remarked that some speculation in the market was apparent, in consequence of the supposed decrease in the supply. That speculation carried prices pretty high; but of late the accounts from the south have been of exceeding fine weather in the most productive districts, favoring, in an eminent degree, the "picking out." Hence the estimates have risen from 1,600,000 bales, to over 2,000,000 bales. The market, in consequence, has lost its buoyancy, and prices have given way. This, although an untoward event for those engaged in speculation, we look upon as beneficial to the planting interests generally, because it will impart steadiness to the market by preventing speculation from reaching any serious extent, so as to check the regular course of the market. The quantity of the crop is therefore likely to be nearly as large as last year, with a steady market, and prices gradually improving, under the effective demand of increased consumption. The progress of American exports for several years, ending September 30, 1842, is as follows:—

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1833 TO 1842, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Products of the Sea.	Products of the Forest.	Agriculture.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Manufactures.
1834,...	\$2,071,493	\$4,457,997	\$10,884,052	\$49,448,402	\$6,595,305	\$7,113,885
1835,...	2,174,524	5,397,004	11,285,893	64,961,302	8,250,577	8,567,590
1836,...	2,666,058	5,361,740	9,992,929	71,284,925	10,058,640	7,261,186
1837,...	2,711,452	4,711,007	14,658,919	63,240,102	5,795,647	8,995,368
1838,...	3,175,576	5,200,499	9,105,514	61,556,811	7,392,029	9,463,299
1839,...	1,917,969	5,764,559	13,588,866	61,238,982	9,832,943	10,927,529
1840,...	3,198,370	5,323,085	18,593,691	63,870,307	9,883,957	12,868,840
1841,...	2,846,851	6,264,852	16,737,462	54,330,341	12,576,703	13,523,072
1842,...	2,823,010	5,518,862	16,759,725	47,593,464	9,540,755	9,472,000

These rates show but little variation in the values exported. It will be remembered, however, that they are the valuations at home, and vary greatly from the values actually realized abroad. In some years, where the export value is the highest, large losses were sustained by the shippers, because the market prices here were induced by an excess of paper money, and by no means indicated the amount of sales in foreign markets. In the year 1842, prices had nearly reached a specie level, and the values in that year indicate a much larger quantity of produce than in some former years. This will be illustrated by taking the leading articles of exports in 1836, the year of highest values, and in 1841, the year of lowest values, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES.

	1836.		1841.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Flour,.....bbls.	505,400	\$3,572,599	1,515,817	\$7,759,646
Tobacco,.....hhds.	109,442	10,058,640	147,828	12,576,703
Cotton,.....lbs.	415,086,888	71,284,925	523,966,676	54,330,341
Rice,.....tierces	212,983	2,548,750	101,617	2,010,107

This represents the manner in which a false valuation is given to produce by the operations of paper here. The difference in value in 1836 came back in reclamations upon broken speculators, and that of 1841 now comes back in cash profits. To the shippers, the real value of the products of American labor are now actually more valuable when exchanged for the products of an equal amount of European labor—that is, although the money prices of labor may be low here and in England, yet one day's labor of the farmer or planter will command nearly two day's labor of the European operative. The result is, an accumulation of wealth to the former. For some time to come, the relative difference in value will increase in favor of the farmer and planter, and enhance his general profits. The proportion of exports in American and foreign vessels has been as follows:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, DISTINGUISHING THE FLAG.

	Domestic articles.		Foreign Goods.		Total exports.
	Am. vessels.	For. vessels.	Am. vessels.	For. vessels.	
1834,....	\$61,286,119	\$19,738,043	\$16,407,342	\$6,905,469	\$104,336,973
1835,....	79,022,746	22,166,336	15,112,445	5,392,050	121,693,577
1836,....	80,845,443	26,071,237	16,282,366	5,463,994	128,663,040
1837,....	75,482,521	20,081,893	15,725,042	6,129,920	117,419,376
1838,....	79,855,599	16,178,222	9,964,200	2,488,595	108,486,616
1839,....	82,127,514	21,406,377	12,660,434	4,834,091	121,028,416
1840,....	92,030,893	21,864,736	13,591,359	4,598,953	132,085,946
1841,....	82,569,389	23,813,333	12,239,249	3,229,832	121,851,803
1842,....	71,467,634	21,302,362	8,425,389	3,296,149	104,691,534

This table discloses the fact that a very large proportion of the whole trade is done in American vessels; and that, as the exports of domestic produce increase or diminish, in the same degree are the freights of our shipping swelled or contracted. The value of the freights of outward-bound American vessels rose \$31,000,000, or 50 per cent, from 1834 to 1840. In the same period, those of foreign vessels were enhanced but \$2,000,000, or 10 per cent. Again—the decline in values, from 1840 to 1842, was \$20,000,000 in American vessels; but the profits in the latter year were actually larger, because the quantities of bulky articles exported were larger in the latter than in the former year. The figures present, however, the general result, that the value of exports in 1842 was very nearly the same as in 1834, nine years previous. The tonnage entered and cleared in the United States, for the same number of years, was as follows, distinguishing the American and the foreign:—

TONNAGE ENTERED AND CLEARED IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Entered.			Cleared.		
	American.	Foreign.	Total.	American.	Foreign.	Total.
1834,.....	1,074,670	568,052	1,642,722	1,134,020	577,700	1,711,720
1835,.....	1,252,653	641,310	1,993,963	1,400,517	630,824	2,031,341
1836,.....	1,255,384	680,203	1,935,597	1,315,523	674,721	1,990,244
1837,.....	1,299,720	765,703	2,065,423	1,266,622	756,292	2,022,914
1838,.....	1,302,974	592,110	1,895,084	1,408,761	604,166	2,012,927
1839,.....	1,491,279	624,814	2,116,093	1,477,928	611,839	2,089,767
1840,.....	1,576,946	712,342	2,289,288	1,647,009	706,486	2,353,495
1841,.....	1,631,909	736,444	2,368,353	1,634,156	736,849	2,371,005
1842,.....	1,510,111	732,775	2,242,886	1,536,451	740,497	2,276,948

The foreign tonnage cleared, it appears, has increased 30 per cent, and the American tonnage 50 per cent, while the goods exported in the latter have increased 16 per cent

in value, and 50 per cent in quantity. In the former, the value of the freights have not increased, but the quantity has done so slightly. The general result, up to the close of 1842, was that of generally increasing prosperity. In that year, there was probably a less amount of money afloat in the United States than in any of the previous twenty years. An immense reduction in banking capital had taken place, and the void created by the withdrawal of paper credits had not yet been filled with specie. A quantity had, indeed, been liberated from the banks in liquidation. In Alabama, the state institutions held about \$1,200,000, which was appropriated last winter to the payment of the interest on the state debt. Nearly one-half the amount has already been paid out, and gone into circulation. In most of the states a similar process, to a greater or less extent, has been going on, probably to the extent of \$5,000,000 altogether; and near \$25,000,000 have arrived from abroad. A large proportion of this, however, remains utterly useless in bank vaults, although slowly finding its way into the channels of trade. Hence, the amount of real money in circulation is rapidly increasing; while the exchanges, having fallen into private hands, mostly, are prompt, regular, and cheap. The accumulation of specie at the centres of business, New Orleans, New York, Boston, &c., causes it to be exceedingly cheap; and it can grow dearer only through the gradual dissemination of specie, through all the channels of trade, over the face of the country. There is now very little disposition to speculate, and no buoyancy of credits, which would stimulate a great sudden demand for money. The same elements which have caused it to become plenty, are still in operation to increase the abundance. The progress of business thus far, in 1843, may be indicated in the following table of exports from Liverpool for the first nine months of each of the last eight years, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES FROM LIVERPOOL—JANUARY 1, TO OCTOBER 1, IN EACH YEAR.

	Cottons. <i>Packages.</i>	Linsens. <i>Packages.</i>	Woollens. <i>Packages.</i>	Worsted. <i>Packages.</i>	Blankets. <i>Packages.</i>	Total. <i>Packages.</i>
1836,.....	30,429	15,985	24,911	8,133	5,130	84,588
1837,.....	11,163	5,863	8,678	4,397	2,477	32,578
1838,.....	14,629	10,025	11,869	5,851	1,645	44,019
1839,.....	22,162	15,508	19,388	7,456	3,742	68,256
1840,.....	11,250	9,451	6,969	3,649	1,173	32,462
1841,.....	18,405	16,883	11,624	6,937	2,226	56,075
1842,.....	12,365	9,583	9,643	5,106	1,784	38,275
1843,.....	9,821	10,976	12,500	5,922	1,963	41,187

This displays an immense falling off in cottons. The other articles show a slight improvement over last year, but far less than in some of the previous ones. The American trade in England has revived in a far less degree than that destined to other directions, particularly China and the East Indies, for which destination the demand has far exceeded that of former years; and in all directions the renewal of activity is apparent, in an eminent degree, constantly stimulating the demand for the raw produce of the United States.

In the midst of this plethora of money, the treasury of the federal government experiences a continuation of that distress which has pursued it since 1837. From the 4th March, 1837, to the 30th June, 1843, the federal government has used, to defray the expenses of the government, over and above the ordinary revenues, \$78,925,466, resulting in a debt of about \$29,000,000. The receipts and expenditures of each year have been nearly as follows:—

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

	<i>Receipts.</i>			<i>Expenses.</i>		
	Ordinary.	Borrowed.	Total.	Ordinary.	Debt.	Total.
1837,	\$24,895,864	\$2,992,989	\$27,883,853	\$37,243,215	\$21,822	\$37,265,037
1838,	26,313,562	12,716,820	39,019,382	33,849,718	5,605,720	39,445,438
1839,	30,023,966	3,857,276	33,881,242	26,496,449	11,117,987	37,614,936

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

	Receipts.			Expenses.		
	Ordinary.	Borrowed.	Total.	Ordinary.	Debt.	Total.
1840,	\$19,442,646	\$5,589,547	\$25,032,193	\$24,139,920	\$4,086,613	\$28,226,533
1841,	17,148,809	13,261,358	30,410,167	25,496,996	6,528,074	32,025,070
1842,	19,662,593	14,890,000	34,502,593	25,836,891	9,471,743	35,308,634
1843,*	8,150,270	5,190,960	11,340,220	10,500,000	1,000,000	11,500,000
Tot.,	\$145,577,710	\$58,498,950	\$222,069,660	\$160,563,689	\$37,931,959	\$221,395,648

* Six months.

This money has been borrowed in the shape of treasury-notes and stock. From 1837, up to July, 1841, treasury-notes, bearing mostly 6 per cent interest, were the medium of borrowing. By the act of 1841, stock, bearing not more than 6 per cent, was authorized. That stock was negotiated nearly as follows:—

	Redeemable.	Rate of interest.	Amount.
September, 1841,.....	1844	5 2.5	\$14,996
“ 1841,.....	1844	5½	3,213,000
“ 1841,.....	1844	6	2,439,000
2d quarter, 1842,.....	1852	6	1,587,259
3d “ 1842,.....	1852	6	701,649
4th “ 1842,.....	1852	6	1,129,200
January, 1843,.....	1862	6	4,883,358
June, 1843,.....	5	7,000,000
Total,.....			\$21,072,442

The present state of the revenues requires a fresh issue of treasury-notes; and, under the act of August, 1842, they are to be issued in denominations not less than \$50, and bearing not more than 6 per cent interest. The Secretary of the Treasury, therefore, availing himself of the abundance and cheapness of money on the seaboard, and its comparative scarcity in the interior, with the want felt in the commercial circles of some known paper, which will answer the purpose of remitting small sums in all directions, particularly to those sections where banks have now ceased to exist, and where private houses have not established correspondence, has decided upon issuing the new notes in a form which will at once supply this mercantile desideratum, and at the same time save to the treasury the interest on the issue, which will, under existing laws, reach \$5,000,000. The notes will therefore be made payable on demand, in New York, and bearing an interest of 1 mill per cent only. On the part of the treasury department, the operation is judicious and economical, although the issues undoubtedly partake of the nature of government paper money. Whenever this form of paper has been used, it has grown, for the most part, out of the exigencies of governments in time of war, and has generally ended in bankruptcy, operating like a war-tax upon the people. Without going back to the paper issues of the United States, we will state that, at this time, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, have government paper money in circulation, the financial legacies of the wars of Napoleon. Russia, in opposing the French invasion, was necessitated to issue a large amount of paper, on the faith of the government, to meet its extraordinary expenses. This issue soon became enormously large, and in the war districts depreciated to six paper roubles for one silver rouble, or sixty-six cents. After the war closed, it continued to improve in value up to 1822, when the government obtained a loan of £3,500,000 from the Rothschilds of London, and a like sum from Holland, in order to redeem the currency. This redemption went on, not at par, but at first at the rate of one silver for four paper roubles. In the succeeding year, the rate was 1 for 3.50, and went on according to the improvement of the finances of the empire. Prussia, for the same causes, pursued the same course, and issued paper money; the management of which, however, it retains in its own hands entirely. The amount out-

standing was never exactly known to the public, but has been estimated at about \$30,000,000. It is kept at a fair valuation by being received for government dues, the taxes being payable one-half in paper money. Austria used the same fatal means to obtain its war-resources. An incredible amount was issued, until it fell so low as to threaten to become altogether valueless. To reduce the outstanding amount, voluntary contributions were called for; the church plate confiscated; a coin known as "billon," debased one-half its nominal value, introduced; the exportation of gold and silver prohibited; a forced loan of \$38,000,000 exacted; enormous duties laid upon colonial produce; the post-money raised 300 per cent; a property-tax introduced, and the faith of the emperor publicly pledged that no more paper money should be issued—all without attaining the desired object. The amount of paper afloat reached \$500,000,000. In this state of affairs, in 1811, a decree was promulgated, amidst the roll of drums, that the government would issue new paper, of which one dollar should redeem five of the old paper. This was simply repudiating \$400,000,000, and leaving in circulation \$100,000,000, in paper of another form only. This being done, the issues again commenced, and the amount outstanding again rose to 412,000,000 florins, in 1813. Repudiation was again resorted to, and new paper was issued to redeem the old, at the rate of 1 for 2.50. Thus, for one hundred florins originally issued, the government reduced its obligation first to twenty, and then to eight. The extent of injury done to public morals, by this atrocious conduct of the government, has been incalculable. The government, since the peace, has been compelled to borrow, in different sums, over 300,000,000 florins; and its receipts have never equalled its expenditures. These are the leading features of the paper money now existing in the leading states of Europe. No country has ever resorted to paper issues in time of profound peace, merely from a disinclination on the part of the members of the government to prescribe the true remedy of economy and taxation. As we have said, the present issues of treasury-notes are limited by law to \$5,000,000, and cannot be increased without the action of Congress. The difficulty to be apprehended is, however, that Congress, governed as it is by party action, may be more prone to authorize the continuance of this seductive mode of raising means, than to pursue the rigorous and thankless means of taxation. The amount—\$5,000,000—is not a dangerous amount; and it will doubtless be all absorbed in the operations of exchange, and may command a small premium for that purpose, especially while money is so plenty, and the tendency of funds is to go west. The means of redeeming the notes on demand, in specie, must be derived from the receipts of the custom-house. If the amount should be increased, and the foreign exchanges become adverse, causing serious shipments of specie, the whole of the notes would tend immediately to one point—New York—and perhaps in such amounts as to exhaust the means provided for their redemption; exposing the federal government to dishonor, and leaving in the hands of the people a depreciated paper, which, until all absorbed, would be the only means of revenue. The ability of the government to borrow on stock to supply its wants, in such a moment, would be greatly impaired. It is now scarcely twelve months since the agent of the United States government returned from abroad, after an unsuccessful attempt to negotiate a 6 per cent stock. This was the effect of the delinquency of the state governments upon the credit of the federal treasury, which has paid, principal and interest, since its formation, \$450,000,000, and never faltered in a payment. A failure, arising from the dishonor of paper money, would indeed be fatal. These are contingencies which may arise, should Congress perpetuate this manner of supplying the treasury. From the present issue, liable as it is to bear 6 per cent interest, there is but little danger; because, if money should rise in value, and exchanges become adverse, a gradual increase of the rate of interest would prevent them from being presented too suddenly for payment. In this view, they form a description of paper which has never yet been fully tested.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Official Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of Imports from, and Exports to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1842.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Countries.	Value of imports.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		Total.
		Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	
Russia,	\$1,350,106	\$316,026	\$520,567	\$836,593
Prussia,	18,192	149,141	7,547	156,688
Sweden,	890,934	238,948	105,970	344,618
Swedish West Indies,	23,242	129,727	3,320	133,047
Denmark,	70,766	27,819	98,585
Danish West Indies,	584,321	791,828	157,260	949,088
Holland,	1,067,438	3,226,338	386,988	3,623,326
Dutch East Indies,	741,048	85,578	193,580	279,158
Dutch West Indies,	331,270	251,650	15,581	267,231
Dutch Guiana,	74,764	101,055	101,055
Belgium,	619,588	1,434,038	176,646	1,610,684
Hanse Towns,	2,274,019	3,814,994	749,519	4,564,513
England,	33,446,499	36,681,808	2,932,140	39,613,948
Scotland,	655,050	1,522,735	80,279	1,603,014
Ireland,	102,700	49,968	49,968
Gibraltar,	12,268	466,937	115,961	582,898
Malta,	7,300	11,644	8,261	19,905
British East Indies,	1,530,364	399,979	283,825	683,804
Mauritius,
Australia,	28,693	52,651	52,651
Cape of Good Hope,	23,815
British African ports,
British West Indies,	826,481	3,204,346	23,367	3,227,713
British Guiana,	15,004	115,991	2,462	118,453
Honduras,	202,868	127,339	36,648	163,987
British American colonies,	1,762,001	5,950,143	240,166	6,190,309
Other British colonies,
France on the Atlantic,	16,015,380	15,340,728	1,076,684	16,417,412
France on the Mediterranean,	958,678	1,674,570	73,868	1,748,438
Bourbon,
French African ports,	3,899	80	3,979
French West Indies,	199,160	495,397	23,609	519,206
French Guiana,	50,172	44,063	1,030	45,093
Miquelon, & French fisheries,	4,932	4,932
Hayti,	1,266,997	844,452	55,514	899,966
Spain on the Atlantic,	79,735	333,222	1,200	334,422
Spain on the Mediterranean,	1,065,640	221,898	16,578	238,476
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	91,411	12,723	518	13,241
Manilla & Philippine islands,	772,372	235,732	100,444	336,176
Cuba,	7,650,429	4,197,468	572,981	4,770,449
Other Spanish West Indies,	2,517,001	610,813	19,718	630,531
Portugal,	142,587	72,723	1,388	74,111
Madeira,	146,182	43,054	1,930	44,984
Fayal and other Azores,	41,049	49,183	19,600	68,783
Cape de Verd islands,	17,866	103,557	11,529	115,086
Portuguese African ports,
Italy,	987,528	515,577	304,940	820,517
Sicily,	539,419	237,861	195,797	433,658
Sardinia,	40,208	40,208
Ionian islands,	14,294
Trieste,	413,210	748,179	136,526	884,705

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Countries.	Value of imports.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		Total.
		Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	
Turkey,	\$370,248	\$125,521	\$76,515	\$202,036
Morocco, &c.,	4,779
Texas,	480,892	278,978	127,951	406,929
Mexico,	1,995,696	969,371	564,862	1,534,233
Venezuela,	1,544,342	499,380	166,832	666,212
New Granada,	176,216	57,363	46,361	103,724
Central America,	124,994	46,649	22,817	69,466
Brazil,	5,948,814	2,225,571	375,931	2,601,502
Argentine Republic,	1,835,623	265,356	145,905	411,261
Cisplatine Republic,	581,918	201,999	67,968	269,967
Chili,	831,039	1,270,931	368,735	1,639,676
Peru,	204,768
South America, generally,	147,222	1,200	148,422
China,	4,934,645	737,509	706,888	1,444,397
Europe, generally,	19,290	19,290
Asia, generally,	979,689	283,367	294,914	578,281
Africa, generally,	539,458	472,841	51,135	523,976
West Indies, generally,	205,913	1,790	207,703
Atlantic ocean,
South Seas,	41,747	128,856	17,524	146,380
Sandwich islands,
Northwest coast of America,	2,370	2,370
Uncertain places,	10,144
	\$100,162,087	\$92,969,996	\$11,721,538	\$104,691,534

Official Statistical View of the tonnage of American and Foreign vessels, arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1842.

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.	Entered the U. States.	C'd from U. States.
Russia,	8,068	5,691	1,597	1,699
Prussia,	603	2,063
Sweden,	3,394	1,311	13,291	5,161
Swedish West Indies,	1,266	2,663	73	726
Denmark,	453	795	231	917
Danish West Indies,	21,680	26,740	5,334	700
Holland,	24,502	33,589	2,906	18,804
Dutch East Indies,	4,861	794
Dutch West Indies,	8,974	4,254	708	528
Dutch Guiana,	3,900	5,454
Belgium,	12,132	12,949	7,810	12,875
Hanse Towns,	14,125	16,779	40,988	54,060
England,	307,343	285,479	141,989	139,054
Scotland,	4,736	6,390	27,778	10,045
Ireland,	3,369	631	20,797
Gibraltar,	3,297	12,115	1,758
Malta,	521	756
British East Indies,	10,099	9,079	285	1,129
Mauritius,	565	362
Australia,	1,205	1,787
Cape of Good Hope,
British African ports,	312	312	117
British West Indies,	64,363	86,691	37,466	16,670
British Guiana,	2,445	5,334	7,010	3,945
Honduras,	5,271	5,679	274	17
British American colonies,	334,634	323,315	359,830	417,409
Other British colonies,	68
France on the Atlantic,	116,356	130,865	11,877	16,042

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.	Entered the U. States.	Cl'd from U. States.
France on the Mediterranean,	15,527	21,944	2,095	2,147
Bourbon,.....	98
French African ports,.....	559
French West Indies,.....	13,326	29,790	6,120	1,180
French Guiana,.....	1,986	1,512	392	257
Miquelon & French fisheries,	2,002	446
Hayti,.....	26,531	21,115	419	363
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	11,948	11,656	628	2,398
Spain on the Mediterranean,	16,587	5,319	2,884	90
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	1,856	426	1,035	473
Manilla & Philippine islands,	7,817	4,797	214
Cuba,.....	170,797	182,456	10,757	9,719
Other Spanish West Indies,.	56,635	29,565	1,304	1,134
Portugal,.....	8,290	3,305	1,921	787
Madeira,.....	1,244	2,253
Fayal and other Azores,.....	2,276	1,622	100	100
Cape de Verd islands,.....	448	3,219
Portuguese African ports,....	198
Italy,.....	4,560	7,367	1,031	1,402
Sicily,.....	18,360	1,272	6,167	3,016
Sardinia,.....	314	1,153	255	776
Ionian islands,.....	315
Trieste,.....	4,547	10,520	332	361
Turkey,.....	4,257	1,815
Morocco, &c.,.....
Texas,.....	22,490	24,316	1,768	1,369
Mexico,.....	13,481	15,912	1,586	1,226
Venezuela,.....	12,287	9,742	2,796	3,211
New Granada,.....	1,837	1,615	744	161
Central America,.....	2,281	1,638	165
Brazil,.....	37,058	37,778	5,593	2,643
Argentine Republic,.....	11,617	2,120	2,260
Cisplatine Republic,.....	6,104	14,215	938	812
Chili,.....	3,072	7,092	694
Peru,.....	316
South America, generally,....	1,587
China,.....	12,125	7,259	362	364
Europe, generally,.....
Asia, generally,.....	3,261	6,155
Africa, generally,.....	8,125	6,462	396	117
West Indies, generally,.....	16,920	71	710
Atlantic ocean,.....	9,882	9,056
South Seas,.....	39,946	50,481
Sandwich islands,.....	799	510
Northwest coast of America,	202
Uncertain places,.....
Total,.....	1,510,111	1,536,451	732,775	740,497

EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The exports during the year ending on the 30th September, 1842, amounted to \$104,691,534; of which \$92,969,996 were of domestic, and \$11,721,538 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, \$71,467,634 were exported in American vessels, and \$21,502,362 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$8,425,389 were exported in American vessels, and \$3,296,149 in foreign vessels.

IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The imports during the same year amounted to \$100,162,087; of which there was im-

ported in American vessels \$88,724,280, and in foreign vessels \$11,437,807. 1,510,111 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,536,451 tons cleared from the ports of the United States. 732,775 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 740,497 tons cleared during the same period.

Tonnage of the United States, September 30, 1842.

Registered,	975,358.74
Enrolled and licensed,.....	1,045,735.39
Fishing vessels,.....	71,278.51
Total,.....	2,092,390.69

Of the registered and enrolled tonnage, there were employed in the whale fishery 151,612.74.

Total Tonnage of Shipping built in the United States during the year ending September 30, 1842.

Registered,.....	54,532.14
Enrolled,.....	74,551.50
Total,.....	129,083.64

Of the domestic articles exported, there were products of—

The Sea,.....	\$2,823,010	Agriculture,.....	\$11,903,652
" Forest,.....	5,518,262	Tobacco,.....	9,540,755
Agriculture, animal and vegetable,.....	4,856,073	Cotton,.....	47,593,464
		Manufactures,.....	9,472,000

STATISTICS OF THE COTTON TRADE.

The following table, derived from "Burns' Commercial Glance," compiled from custom-house reports, exhibits the weekly transactions in cotton at Liverpool, for the first six months of 1843, that is, from January 1st to June 30th:—

1843.	No. of bags imported.	No. of bags taken by the trade.	No. taken by exporters.	No. taken by speculators.	Total number sold.	Weekly price of uplands.
January 6,.....	9,881	19,470	500	4,000	23,970	3½ to 5¼
" 13,.....	30,981	22,200	450	4,600	27,250	3½ 5¼
" 20,.....	24,743	17,140	550	3,500	21,190	4 6
" 27,.....	47,747	22,780	1,400	2,500	26,680	3½ 5½
February 3,.....	69,350	23,600	1,200	4,000	28,800	3½ 5½
" 10,.....	11,477	28,130	700	9,500	38,330	3½ 5¼
" 17,.....	5,253	22,910	1,000	4,000	27,910	3½ 5½
" 24,.....	2,517	30,880	1,000	14,000	45,880	3½ 5½
March 3,.....	5,923	12,390	1,300	3,000	16,690	3½ 5¼
" 10,.....	63,838	18,130	500	4,000	22,630	3½ 5½
" 17,.....	183,423	23,460	400	3,300	27,060	3½ 4¼
" 24,.....	33,219	35,150	3,000	14,000	52,150	3½ 5¼
" 31,.....	7,940	29,630	3,400	23,000	56,030	3½ 5¼
April 7,.....	93,445	17,690	1,920	5,300	24,910	3½ 5¼
" 13,.....	52,238	9,650	11,030	9,000	29,680	3½ 5½
" 20,.....	56,652	26,230	2,800	5,000	34,030	3½ 4½
" 28,.....	88,779	19,230	1,900	5,000	26,130	3½ 5½
May 5,.....	14,233	25,770	3,450	12,000	41,220	3½ 5½
" 12,.....	18,081	16,400	900	31,700	49,000	3½ 5½
" 19,.....	24,345	18,720	950	11,500	31,170	3½ 4½
" 26,.....	68,619	17,860	1,250	4,700	23,810	3½ 5
June 2,.....	56,169	25,620	1,000	2,000	28,620	3½ 5
" 9,.....	78,817	22,700	1,000	1,000	24,700	3½ 5¼
" 16,.....	52,375	21,800	900	500	23,200	3½ 5¼
" 23,.....	17,370	20,410	300	1,700	22,410	3½ 4¼
" 30,.....	31,772	22,870	2,500	1,000	26,370	2½ 5¼
1st three months,....	23,700	} Forwarded into the country by interior im- } porters, and not accounted for in the sales.			
2d "	22,630				

Cotton Wool imported into Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, from 1st January to 30th June, 1842 and 1843.

Bags.	Description.	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.
At Liverpool,....	American,....	684,365	1,045,103	360,738
"	Brazil,.....	44,006	50,056	6,050
"	Egyptian,	6,398	25,148	18,750
"	East India,....	87,452	33,701	53,751
"	West India,....	500	2,235	1,735
At London,	American,....	1,635	2,024	389
"	Brazil,.....	954	1,304	350
"	Egyptian,	377	388	11
"	East India,....	48,563	14,876	33,687
"	West India,....	122	256	104
At Glasgow,....	American,....	29,974	72,871	42,897
"	Brazil,.....
"	Egyptian,	156	156
"	East India,....	2,234	4,809	2,575
"	West India,....	39	11	28
Total, first six months,.....		906,619	1,252,938	433,785	87,466
			906,619	87,466	
Increase imported,.....bags			346,319	346,319	

RECAPITULATION.

Cotton Wool imported and exported into Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, from 1st January to 30th June, 1842 and 1843.

Description.	1842.	1843.	Increase.	1842.	1843.	Decrease.
American,	715,974	1,119,998	404,024	42,679	34,176
Brazil,.....	44,960	51,360	6,400	4,989	2,810
Egyptian,	6,775	25,692	18,917
East India,....	138,249	53,386	84,863	37,141	21,332
West India,....	661	2,502	1,841
	906,619	1,252,938	431,182	84,863	84,809	58,318
		906,619	84,863		58,318	26,491
Increase,.....bags			346,319	346,319	26,491	Decre'e.

Stock of cotton in England and Scotland, 1st January, 1843,.....bags 664,584

Imported from 1st January to 30th June,..... 1,252,938

Total number of bags,..... 1,917,522

Deduct exported,..... 58,318

Destroyed by fire, estimated at..... 19,000

77,318

Supply of cotton up to 30th June,..... 1,840,204

Consumption, (26 weeks,) at 26,484 weekly,..... 688,584

Stock of cotton in Great Britain, equal to 43½ weeks,..... 1,151,620

Cotton Wool imported into Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, from 1st January to 1st July, 1841, 1842, and 1843.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.
Into Liverpool,....bags	716,568	822,721	1,156,143	333,522
" London,.....	28,054	51,651	18,848	32,803
" Glasgow,.....	39,399	32,247	77,847	45,600
	784,021	906,619	1,252,938	379,122	32,803
			906,619	32,803	
Total increase imported in 1843,.....bags			346,319	346,319	

Statement showing the number of bags and bales of Cotton Wool imported into England and Scotland; the quantity taken for consumption, for the first six months, from the year 1835 to 1843, both inclusive; and the price of uplands Cotton on the 1st July in each year.

In the first six months of	Imported into England and Scotland.	Average con. per week.	Total consumption first six months.	Prices of Uplands cotton, on 1st July.
	<i>Bags.</i>	<i>Bags.</i>	<i>Bags.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1835,.....	698,742	17,384	451,984	10 $\frac{5}{8}$ to 12 $\frac{1}{2}$
1836,.....	723,417	18,227	474,902	8 $\frac{3}{8}$ 11 $\frac{5}{8}$
1837,.....	674,523	19,127	497,302	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ 7 $\frac{7}{8}$
1838,.....	952,445	21,629	562,354	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1839,.....	698,213	20,000	520,000	7 9
1840,.....	955,618	24,500	637,000	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ 6 $\frac{3}{8}$
1841,.....	784,021	22,382	581,932	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1842,.....	906,619	24,312	632,112	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{2}$
1843,.....	1,252,938	26,484	688,584	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ 5 $\frac{1}{4}$

Duty paid on Cotton Wool in the first six months of the years 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843, at London and Liverpool.

	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
At Liverpool,.....cwt.	2,428,900	1,510,723	2,485,424	1,958,467	2,212,824	2,823,048
London,.....	25,864	74,682	34,820	20,983	23,776	11,570

Total paid upon. 2,454,764 1,585,405 2,520,264 1,980,450 2,236,600 2,834,618

N. B.—The duty upon the growth of British plantation, 4d. per cwt.; and upon all other descriptions, 2s. 11d. per cwt., if imported into the United Kingdom for consumption. The duty into France, 8s. per cwt.

Cotton Wool taken by the trade from Liverpool, in the first six months of the years 1842 and 1843; also, the Weekly Average for each three months.

	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decre'e.	Average per week. 1842.	Average per week. 1843.
1st three months, ...bags	263,139	305,770	42,631	20,241	23,520
2d " "	298,750	264,950	33,800	32,981	20,381
	561,889	570,720	42,631	33,800	<i>Weekly av. during the first 6 months.</i>	
		561,889	33,800		1842, bags	21,611
		8,831	8,831		1843, "....	21,951

Taken by the trade first six months, from Liverpool, 1843,....bags	570,720	21,951
Imported by spinners, and received direct,..... "	47,330	1,820
Consumed in Scotland,..... "	59,800	2,300
Spinners' stocks reduced,..... "	10,788	413

Weekly average, for 26 weeks, in England and Scotland,.....bags 26,484

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement and total amount of the Growth, Export, and Consumption of Cotton for the year ending 31st August, 1843; derived from the New York Shipping List.

NEW ORLEANS.		Bales.	Total.	1842.
<i>Exports—</i>				
To foreign ports,.....bales	954,738			
Coastwise,.....	134,132			
Burnt and damaged,.....	500			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	4,700			
		1,094,070		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	4,428			
Received from Mobile,.....	10,687			
" " Florida,.....	3,381			
" " Texas,.....	15,328			
		33,824		
			1,060,246	727,658

ALABAMA.		Bales.	Total.	1842
<i>Export from MOBILE—</i>				
To foreign ports,.....	366,012			
Coastwise,.....	115,882			
Stock in Mobile 1st September, 1843,....	1,128			
	<hr/>	483,022		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock in Mobile 1st September, 1842,....	422			
Received from Florida,.....	886			
	<hr/>	1,308		
		<hr/>	481,714	318,315
FLORIDA.				
<i>Exports—</i>				
To foreign ports,.....	58,901			
Coastwise,.....	102,237			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	200			
	<hr/>	161,338		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....		250		
		<hr/>	161,088	114,416
GEORGIA.				
<i>Export from SAVANNAH—</i>				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	186,655			
Sea Islands,.....	6,444			
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	86,681			
Sea Islands,.....	1,046			
	<hr/>	280,826		
<i>Export from DARIEN—</i>				
To New York and Providence,.....	13,656			
Stock in Savannah 1st September, 1843,	3,347			
Stock in Augusta and Hambro' 1st Sept., 1843,.....	7,401			
	<hr/>	305,230		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock in Savannah and Augusta 1st Sep- tember, 1842,.....	5,110			
Received from Florida,.....	629			
	<hr/>	5,739		
		<hr/>	299,491	232,271
SOUTH CAROLINA.				
<i>Export from CHARLESTON—</i>				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	257,035			
Sea Islands,.....	16,351			
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	78,523			
Sea Islands,.....	681			
	<hr/>	352,590		
<i>Export from GEORGETOWN—</i>				
To New York and Providence,.....	13,042			
Stock in Charleston 1st September, 1843,	8,274			
	<hr/>	373,906		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock in Charleston 1st September, 1842,	2,747			
Received from Savannah,.....	14,916			
" " Florida and Key West,....	4,585			
	<hr/>	22,248		
		<hr/>	351,658	260,164
NORTH CAROLINA.				
<i>Exports—</i>				
To foreign ports,.....	512			
Coastwise,.....	8,577			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	200			
	<hr/>	9,289		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....		250		
		<hr/>	9,039	9,737

VIRGINIA.		Bales.	Total.	1842.
<i>Exports—</i>				
To foreign ports,.....	1,917			
Manufactured,.....	9,347			
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	975			
		12,239		
<i>Deduct—</i>				
Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....		100		
Received at Philadelphia and Baltimore, overland,.....			12,139	19,013
			3,500	2,000
Total crop of the United States,.....			2,378,875	1,683,574
Total crop of 1843,.....			bales	2,378,875
" " 1842,.....				1,683,574
Increase,.....				695,301

Export to Foreign Ports from 1st September, 1842, to 31st August, 1843.

FROM	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North of Europe.	Other ports.	Total.
New Orleans,.....	679,438	180,875	50,882	43,543	954,738
Alabama,.....	283,382	55,421	8,032	19,177	366,012
Florida,.....	53,005	4,196		1,700	58,901
Georgia (Savannah and Darien),.	169,676	15,126	6,621	1,676	193,099
South Carolina,.....	201,645	53,725	15,646	2,370	273,386
North Carolina,.....	512				512
Virginia,.....	1,735		182		1,917
Baltimore,.....			246		246
Philadelphia,.....	1,059				1,059
New York,.....	79,259	36,796	35,340	6,311	157,706
Boston,.....			845	1,716	2,561
Grand total,.....	1,469,711	346,139	117,794	76,493	2,010,137
Total last year,.....	935,631	398,129	79,956	51,531	1,465,249
Increase,.....	534,080		37,838	24,962	544,888
Decrease,.....		51,990			

NOTE.—The shipments from Mississippi are included in the export from New Orleans.

RAILROAD IRON.

The annexed schedule exhibits the amount of duty refunded under the acts allowing a return of duties on railroad iron, on proof that it has been actually used as such:—

1831,.....	\$6,847 90	1838,.....	\$910,011 66
1832,.....	336,709 19	1839,.....	672,376 86
1833,.....	202,210 70	1840,.....	688,510 97
1834,.....	421,010 34	1841,.....	391,264 64
1835,.....	529,529 79		
1836,.....	234,194 74		\$4,800,183 84
1837,.....	407,517 05		

ENGLISH COAL TRADE.

The total quantities of coal brought coastwise and by inland navigation into the port of London during the year 1841, amounted to 2,942,738 tons.

It further appears that the total quantity of coals exported from the United Kingdom from the 5th day of January, 1828, to the 5th day of January, 1842, was as follows:—

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1828,.....	357,864	1835,.....	736,060
1829,.....	371,271	1836,.....	916,868
1830,.....	504,419	1837,.....	1,113,610
1831,.....	510,831	1838,.....	1,313,709
1832,.....	588,446	1839,.....	1,449,417
1833,.....	634,448	1840,.....	1,606,313
1834,.....	615,255	1841,.....	1,848,294

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF THE MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

PROHIBITORY TARIFF OF MEXICO.

The Minister of Finance of the Mexican republic has communicated to the Mexican Consulate at New Orleans what follows, under date of the 14th of August, 1843. Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, the Provisional President, has issued the following decree, touching importations, &c. :—

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA, General of Division, well-deserving of his country, and Provisional President of the Mexican Republic, to the inhabitants of the same make known—

That, wishing to protect the national industry, and give occupation and the means of subsistence to the necessitous class, and in order to take advantage of the numerous elements with which the republic abounds, in the exercise of the powers granted to me by the fundamental laws adopted in this city, and sanctioned by the nation, I have thought proper to decree as follows :—

ARTICLE I. The importation of the articles hereinafter mentioned is prohibited, under the penalty of seizure :—

Coaches, gigs, and all kinds of vehicles.	Chalices.	Boxes for the holy bread.
Harness.	Bells.	Censers.
Hats, complete or beaver.	Candelabras for churches.	Shaving boxes.
Furniture of all kinds.	Candlesticks of all sizes.	Jars.
Piano fortes.	Lamps.	Pitchers.
Dolls, and children's toys of all kinds.	Tweezers.	Coffee servers.
All articles of gold, silver, plated, or copper, as follows :—	Cartridge boxes.	Watch keys.
All articles of metal.	Snuff.	Picture frames.
Candelabras.	Metal ornaments for hats.	Medals and medallions.
Urns for churches.	Finger rings.	Thread boxes.
Castors.	Necklaces.	Wafer boxes.
Rings of all sizes.	Goblets for the altar.	Bowls.
Ear-rings and drops.	Saint ciboires.	Shoulder knots.
Desks.	Crucifixes.	Covers for the chalice.
Shaving utensils, such as basins, pots and soap.	Vinegar cruets.	Tin pots.
Fruit baskets.	Lamp reflectors.	Plates of all sizes.
Sugar pots.	Crosses.	Clasps for the bosom.
Basins of all kinds.	Table services.	Stamps for sealing.
Canes of all sizes.	Spoons.	Chocolate cups.
Salvers.	Gravy spoons.	Offrandes.
Chains for the neck, from China.	Small spoons.	Tops for canes.
Shirt buttons.	Knives and forks.	Segar boxes.
Bracelets.	Holy suns.	Glories for altars.
Tinder boxes.	Thimbles.	Bouquets for the church.
Broaches for cloaks.	Snuffers.	All office furniture.
Chains.	Silk reels.	Shrines.
Coffee pots.	Ladies' combs.	Sauce dishes.
	Spit boxes.	Salt-cellar.
	Fountains.	Tureens.
	Military cravats.	Tongs.
	Military and horse ornaments.	Inkstands.
	Buckles for garters.	Forks.
	<i>Articles of Iron and Steel.</i>	
Rings.	Door knockers.	Anvils.
Mexican spurs.	Shoemakers' knives.	Spades.
Aiguillettes.	Pincers.	Adzes.
Steel and iron wire.	Horse brushes.	Fire shovels.
Door and window bars.	Wedges for saws.	Gimblets.
Bolts of all sizes.	Fish hooks.	Weights.

Articles of Iron and Steel—Continued.

Bung borers.	Cords for musical instruments.	Rakes.
Small anvils.	Screw drivers.	Lock wards.
Bridle bits.	Snuffers.	Sledge hammers.
Tinder boxes.	Spurs.	Grates.
Currycombs.	Buckles for harness.	Ploughshares.
Dog collars and chains.	Horse shoes.	Corkscrews.
Iron pots.	Iron work for balconies, &c.	Gun worms.
Bedsteads.	Scythes and sickles.	Gouges.
Baskets.	Stoves.	Saws.
Padlocks.	Files.	Mallets.
Lamps.	Scutcheons for pistols, &c.	Curling irons.
Pullies.	Wheel hooks.	Chimney tongs.
Iron angles.	Porridge pots.	Iron bandages.
Setters.	Large mallets.	All articles of tin and zinc.
Stew pans.	Moulds.	Guards for shutters.
Scissors.	Coach springs.	Steelyards.
Rat traps.	Small crowbars.	Bookbinders' tools.
Door locks.	Shovels.	Hooks.
Bolts.	Snackets.	Dentists' instruments.
All iron plated.	Ladies' hair pins.	Coopers' tools.
Chocolate pots.	Iron work for doors.	Hinges.
Iron nails of all kinds.	Pikes.	Hatchets.
Chapes.	Flat irons.	Frying pans.
Planes.	Sword hilts.	

ART. II. The prohibition mentioned in the preceding article will begin to take effect four months after its publication in the capital of the republic, in respect to the cargoes which shall arrive at the ports on the Gulf of Mexico, and six months after for those which shall arrive in the ports on the South Sea, the Gulf of California, and the sea of Upper California.

ART. III. The goods and effects now actually on hand, the importation of which was never authorized, will be re-sold and re-embarked in the space of six months; after which, they will be seized in the shops and stores where they may be found, and the proceeds will be adjudged to the informers and agents of the seizure, agreeably to the rules of the internal custom-houses; and the holders of the aforesaid goods and effects will be liable to a fine of \$10 to \$300, payable into the public treasury, according to law.

ART. IV. A delay of one year will be granted for the arrangement, by sale or by shipping, of the goods and effects now on hand in the republic, the importation of which is prohibited by this decree; and at the end of said delay, the said goods and effects will be proceeded against in the same manner as those mentioned in the preceding article.

ART. V. The agents and inspectors of the maritime custom-houses where it shall appear that such prohibited articles have been introduced, shall be deprived of their employments.

VESSELS IN THE WHALE FISHERY.

The Senate and House of Representatives of New Grenada, assembled in Congress at Bogota, the 28th of May, 1843, decree—

ART. I. The productions, whether natural or manufactured, of the Republic of the Equator, which may be imported into the province of "Veraguas," by the river San Pedro, to the port of "Montijo," shall enjoy the same exemption from the national duties as if they had been introduced by the custom-houses established on the boundary lines. The vessels so introducing them shall not pay tonnage duty, nor any other port-charges whatever, provided such vessel does not exceed fifty tons by measurement.

ART. II. Vessels employed in the whale fishery, which may arrive at the port of "Montijo" to water, or to purchase provisions, shall not be subject to tonnage duty, nor to any port-charges whatever; but if such vessels should pass from the port of "Montijo" to any other port of the republic, either in ballast, or with part of cargo on board, they will then be subject to pay, in the last port they may go to, the tonnage duty, and other port-charges, as by law established.

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

THE RAILROADS OF NEW YORK.—No. I.

UTICA AND SCHENECTADY RAILROAD.

WE recently made a passage over the different railroads from Troy to Buffalo, an important link in the great chain between Boston and Buffalo. From several of the offices we were furnished, in some instances, and in others promised, through the politeness of the gentlemen connected with the management of the roads, interesting statistical information relating to the business of the several railroad corporations, which we shall from time to time lay before our readers, as it will enable them to judge of the value of the stocks, the amount of travel, &c.

We begin this month with the Utica and Schenectady railroad, which extends from the city of Schenectady to the city of Utica, a distance of about 79 miles; running through the picturesque and beautiful valley of the Mohawk, for the most of the distance, on the north side of the river, and passing through the villages of Amsterdam, Fonda, Little Falls, Herkimer, &c. The total amount paid on construction account to December 31, 1841, was \$1,968,022 17. The construction account, in the last official report of the president, including all money paid on that account, is as follows:—

Lands for roadway, buildings, &c.,.....	\$327,766 41
Total paid for grading,.....	653,739 18
“ “ superstructure,.....	526,028 35
“ “ buildings,.....	100,776 31
Paid for locomotive engines,.....	115,626 61
“ coaches, baggage, mail and freight wagons,.....	90,166 82
“ engineering and superintendence,.....	69,806 33
“ Mohawk turnpike road,.....	62,500 00
“ stationery, printing, advertising, salaries of treasurer, &c.,.....	21,612 16
Total,.....	\$1,968,022 17

The semi-annual dividends paid on the company's stock have been as follows:—

1st dividend of \$5 25 a share, payable Feb. 1, 1837,	\$105,000 00
2d “ “ 5 60 “ “ Aug. 1, 1837,	112,000 00
3d “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1838,	100,000 00
4th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1838,	100,000 00
5th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1839,	100,000 00
6th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1839,	100,000 00
7th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1840,	100,000 00
8th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1840,	100,000 00
9th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Feb. 1, 1841,	100,000 00
10th “ “ 5 00 “ “ Aug. 1, 1841,	100,000 00

Total dividends declared to August 1, 1841,..... \$1,017,000 00

The expenditures on this road have been as follows:—

Amount expended on construction account to December 31, 1841,.....	1,968,022 17
“ “ transportation account to Dec. 31, 1841, viz:—	
For five months of 1836,.....	\$33,498 42
For whole of 1837,.....	124,383 28
“ 1838,.....	125,912 10
“ 1839,.....	131,584 03
“ 1840,.....	187,220 35
“ 1841,.....	156,631 94
Total on transportation account for five years and five months,.....	709,230 12
Amount of dividends declared to August 1, 1841,.....	1,017,000 00

Total expenditures on all accounts to December 31, 1841, \$3,694,252 29

The capital stock of the Utica and Schenectady Railroad Company consists of 20,000 shares, of \$100 each, amounting to \$2,000,000; of which there has been paid in \$1,800,000, or \$200,000 less than the par value of the stock. The first instalment, of \$5 a share, on original subscription for stock, was paid in July, 1833, amounting to \$100,000. There have been eighteen instalments since paid, the last having been paid in August, 1838.

The following is a recapitulation of receipts, and comparison of total amount with total expenditures:—

Amount received for instalments on stock,.....	\$1,800,000 00
“ “ transportation of passengers,.....	1,864,691 53
“ “ United States mail,.....	83,047 10
“ tolls of Mohawk turnpike,.....	22,834 78
“ interest on money deposited,.....	10,226 87
“ from miscellaneous sources,.....	49,134 71
Total receipts from all sources to Dec. 31, 1841,.....	\$3,829,934 99
Deduct for expenditures on all accounts, up to Dec. 31, 1841, viz:—	
On construction account,.....	\$1,968,022 17
On transportation account,.....	709,230 12
On dividend account,.....	1,017,000 00
Total expenditures,.....	3,694,252 29
Balance, being excess of receipts over expenditures up to Dec. 31, 1841,.....	\$135,682 70

N. B.—The above balance was the fund out of which a dividend of \$100,000 was payable on the 1st February, 1842. Deducting that sum from said balance, there remained on the 1st February, 1842, a cash surplus of \$35,682 70.100, without regard to the receipts and expenditures for the month of January, 1842.

The following statement shows the number of through and way passengers transported, and fare received in each year, together with the receipts from all other sources, (except instalments on stock,) and total amount received from August 2d, 1836, to December 31st, 1841:—

Dates.	NO. PASSENGERS.		RECEIPTS FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.					Total.
	Through.	Way.	Transporta- tion of pas- sengers.	Transporta- tion U. S. mail.	Mohawk Turnpike tolls.	Int. on dep. part prior to 1836.	Miscella- neous re- ceipts.	
1836,....	45,391½	30,324½	\$168,081 08	\$2,921 34	\$5,574 41	\$176,546 83
1837,....	79,095½	59,854	298,265 97	\$11,574 61	4,072 53	\$3,263 76	317,176 87
1838,....	82 459	71,001½	312,808 08	18,563 54	4,009 18	2,327 93	337,708 73
1839,....	95,776½	86,823	375,309 07	18,331 49	4,614 57	8,518 67	406,673 80
1840,....	86,823½	86,619½	343,206 58	21,055 18	3,897 19	2,190 80	10,993 14	381,342 89
1841,....	94,871	78,949	367,050 75	13,622 28	3,319 97	3,461 66	24,031 21	410,485 87
	484,417	413,471½	\$1,864,691 53	\$83,047 10	\$22,834 78	\$10,226 87	\$49,134 71	\$2,029,934 99

This road has never paid less than 10 per cent on its capital stock. The following are the names, with the amount of compensation, of all officers of the company, whose compensation is equal to, or exceeds three dollars a day:—The President, Erastus Corning, Esq., of Albany, receives no compensation for his services. Gideon Hawley, Esq., the secretary and treasurer, (being the same person,) receives, as treasurer, a salary of \$1,000 a year—for his services as secretary, no compensation is allowed. William C. Young, Esq., the chief engineer, and superintendent of the road from its commencement, (and a graduate of West Point,) receives a salary of \$5,000 per annum, with the use of a dwelling-house belonging to the company, in Schenectady. Daniel Mathews, chief locomotive-engineer, receives a salary of \$1,200 per annum.

In passing over this road a short time since, we were struck with its regularity, and the excellent management of Col. William C. Young, the intelligent and efficient chief en-

gineer and superintendent. The facts stated in the following notice, in the Schenectady Reflector, of 1841, speak volumes in favor of the manner in which the affairs of this great thoroughfare are conducted. They are as correct now as at the time they were first published:—

“ This road commenced operations with the month of August, 1836; from which time, up to the 1st of August, 1841, makes a period of five years. Within that time, the company’s locomotive engines have made about 1,870 trips across the road annually; or, in other words, have run on an average about 150,000 miles a year, and within the period of five years 750,000 miles. Within the same period, they have carried 434,893 passengers over the whole length of their road, and 376,695 between intermediate points; making, in the aggregate, 811,589 passengers who have been transported on that road within five years. Within this five years, during which 811,589 passengers have been conveyed on that road, no accident, (with but one exception, in 1836, when two passengers were slightly hurt,) has ever occurred, by which any passenger was injured; and no serious injury, (with but one exception,) has ever occurred to any of the men employed on the engines or train. Within the same period of five years, during which the locomotive engines have made, on an average, 1,870 trips annually, they have never failed to make any one trip; have never but once been six hours behind their time; and, with four or five exceptions, have never been three hours behind their time, although snows have covered the track three feet deep, and floods have carried off, and fire burnt up bridges. There is no line of public conveyance on the face of the globe, not even excepting the Hudson river steamboats, that can show a greater degree of regularity, punctuality, and safety, in the transportation of so great a number of passengers, than the Utica and Schenectady railroad, and certainly no railroad that can at all compete with it. This most complete and gratifying success is owing to the care, attention, and skill of William C. Young, superintendent and engineer; and of David Matthews, superintendent of the motive power on that road.”

SYRACUSE AND UTICA RAILROAD.

This road extends from the city of Utica to the village of Syracuse, a distance of fifty-three miles, connecting with the Utica and Schenectady railroad on the east, and with the Auburn and Syracuse railroad at its western termination, forming one of the continuous line of railroads extending from Albany or Troy to Buffalo. From Utica to Syracuse, way-passengers are put down at Whitesboro’, Oriskany, Rome, Green’s Corner, Verona, Oneida, Wampsville, Canostota, Conasaraga, Chittenango, Kirkville, Manlius, and De Witt. The company was incorporated in 1836, with a capital of \$800,000, and the road was opened July 3, 1839. John Wilkins, Esq., of Syracuse, is the President of the company, and superintendent of the road, assisted by Mr. J. G. Spencer, who resides at Utica. Mr. Wilkins manages the affairs of the road with efficiency, and the conductors are generally courteous, and do all in their power to promote the comfort and safety of the passengers. We are indebted to Mr. Wilkins for the following condensed statement of the operations of this road, from its opening, to July 1st, 1843. It is taken from the books of the company, and may therefore be relied on for its accuracy:—

Cost of constructing road,.....	\$1,074,373 47
Expenses of running, including repairs of road, engines, &c., from July, 1839, to July, 1843,.....	260,511 74

The number of passengers carried over the road from July, 1839, (when the road commenced operations,) to July 1st, 1843, a period of four years, was—

Through passengers,.....	290,122
Way “	205,771½

The total receipts from July 1st, 1839, to July 1st, 1843, four years, was, from—

Passengers.	Freight.	Mail.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
\$699,872 28	\$7,464 73	\$25,948 10	\$3,811 00	\$737,096 11

Capital stock paid by stockholders,.....	\$800,000
Stock dividend paid by profits,.....	200,000
Total capital stock,.....	\$1,000,000

The following semi-annual dividends have been paid the stockholders since the opening of the road :—

	Per cent.	Amount.		Per cent.	Amount.
August 10th, 1840,.....	3.20	\$32,000	February 1st, 1842,.....	4.80	\$48,000
February 1st, 1841,.....	3.20	32,000	August 15th, 1842,.....	4.80	48,000
August 1st, 1841,.....	4.00	40,000	February 15th, 1843,...	3.20	32,000

It will be seen, by the above statement, that the capital has been increased from \$800,000 to \$1,000,000, by stock dividend paid by profits. On the three years, the annual average dividend paid the stockholders is 7 2-5 per cent, nearly 7½ per cent per annum. The annual average of through passengers, in four years, is 72,530; way passengers, 51,443. The gross revenue of the road, for four years, was \$737,096 11, showing an annual average of \$184,274 03. Average annual expense of running, including repairs of road, engines, &c., for the four years, was \$65,172 93 per year.

TONAWANDA RAILROAD.

This road extends from the city of Rochester to the village of Attica, in the county of Wyoming, a distance of forty-three miles, where it unites with the Attica and Buffalo Railroad, forming a link in the chain from Boston and Albany to Buffalo. The Tonawanda company procured their charter April 3, 1832, and completed their road as far as Batavia in 1836, and finished it to Attica in 1842. The chartered capital of the company was \$500,000; but the road has cost, including cars, engines, &c., about \$600,000.

In our recent passage over this road, while at Rochester, through the politeness of Mr. Childs, one of the directors of the company, we were permitted to collect from their books the following statistics of its operations :—

Statement of the Receipts and Disbursements of the Tonawanda Railroad Company, from January, 1839, to August 31, 1843.

	Passengers.	Freight.	Mail.	Total receipts.	Total disbursements.
1839,.....	\$26,923 90	\$20,786 18	\$2,500 08	\$50,210 16	\$23,850 67
1840,.....	20,952 91	30,575 58	2 500 00	54,028 49	27,263 51
1841,.....	27,627 26	15,202 24	3,739 00	46,554 50	27,048 53
1842,.....	32,295 46	19,255 99	4,950 00	56,501 45	31,579 48
	\$107,799 53	\$85,809 99	\$13,689 08	\$206,294 60	\$109,742 19

The receipts for passengers and freight, from January 1st, 1843, to August 31st, was as follows :—

	Passengers.	Freight.	Total.	Total disbursements for the 8 months from Jan., 1831, to August 31.
1843.				
January, February, and March,...	\$1,693 03	\$112 66	\$1,805 69	
April,.....	3,249 40	348 63	3,589 03	
May,.....	5,753 24	1,104 08	6,857 32	
June,.....	5,934 54	912 36	6,846 90	
July,.....	7,202 07	723 76	7,925 83	
August,.....	8,595 27	935 33	9,530 60	
Total, 8 months,.....	\$30,734 52	\$4,024 16	\$36,655 37	\$23,748 13

In the disbursements for 1843, are included two new long coaches, one mail-carriage one second-class car, the building of a new side-track at Batavia, and another at Attica, each amounting to about \$5,500.

It will be seen, from the foregoing statement, that the travel over this road is increasing. The stock of the company is, of course, rising in value, although we believe but little, if any, is in the market.

ATTICA AND BUFFALO RAILROAD.

The Attica and Buffalo Railroad company was chartered May 3d, 1836, with a capital of \$350,000, in shares of \$50. This railroad, which connects with the Tonawanda, extending from Rochester to Attica, is thirty-two miles long. It was commenced September 1st, 1841, and finished January 1st, 1843, so that the cars ran through on that day; but it was not fully completed, and in successful operation, until May, 1843. For the following statement of its cost, receipts, current expenses, &c., we are indebted to V. R. Hawkins, Esq., the secretary and treasurer of the company:—

Cost of road, right of way,.....	\$50,325
Grading, construction, including water-stations, &c.,.....	209,186
Three locomotive-engines and cars,.....	31,347
Total,.....	\$290,858

The receipts for passengers for the first four months after the road was in full operation, was as follows:—

1843—May,.....	\$4,029	1843—July,.....	\$5,668
June,.....	4,544	August,.....	7,538

The current expenses of the road, during the same period, for repairs of road, engines, cars, and running expenses, was as follows:—

	Repairs of road.	Repairs of engines and cars.	Running expenses.	Total.
1843—May,.....	\$265	\$98	\$689	\$1,052
June,.....	186	172	856	1,220
July,.....	138	151	1,040	1,329
August,...	228	249	1,060	1,537

Running expenses includes all expenses, direct and incidental, growing out of running the road.

Rates of fare—1st class cars,.....	85 cents.
“ 2d “	43 “

It is estimated that when the company have completed their track in the city of Buffalo, which is about being changed, and erected suitable buildings for the depot, engine-house, and machine-shop, the cost of the whole, including road, buildings, and running materials, will amount to \$10,000 per mile, or \$320,000. We congratulate the company in having secured for their superintendent Mr. William Wallace, a most energetic and intelligent officer. A majority of the stock of this company is, we understand, owned by the capitalists of Boston.

CANALS AND ROADS IN OHIO.

	Miles.	Cost.
Ohio canal, and branches,.....	334	\$4,694,934
Miami canal,.....	87	1,337,552
Wabash and Erie canal,.....	89	2,257,164
Miami extension,.....	125	2,463,307
Hocking canal,.....	56	842,657
Walhonding,.....	25	568,264
Muskingum river,.....	81	1,432,235
Pennsylvania and Ohio,.....	86	420,000
Milan,.....	10	23,392
Cincinnati and White Water,.....	25	100,000
McAdamized roads, about.....	631	881,820
	1,559	\$15,926,328

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

BOSTON MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

THE twenty-third anniversary of this institution was celebrated on Tuesday evening, October 3d, by an address from the Hon. Philip Hone, of New York, and a poem by the Hon. George Lunt, of Newburyport, Mass. The anniversary address of Mr. Hone was appropriate to the occasion. The leading ideas were—the great importance of commerce, its dependence upon wise and stable laws, and its immediate connection with free government. The history of all commercial nations was adduced to maintain these positions.

The orator passed a warm eulogium upon the merchants of the past generation—Hancock, Cabot, Dalton, Otis, James Perkins, Phillips, and their cotemporaries, whose lives and deeds have made their names so honorable; nor were those of their successors, whose efforts have been devoted to similar pursuits, forgotten.

In closing, Mr. Hone addressed a few words of advice to the young gentlemen connected with the Association, with particular reference to the subjects of reading and elocution. The address, we learn, was delivered in that easy, familiar, and popular manner, for which its author is so justly distinguished.

The poem of Mr. Lunt was a manly, dignified, and high-toned production. The subject was CULTURE. The necessity of a judicious cultivation of the mental and moral powers, to the success and happiness of man, was depicted in a beautiful manner, well calculated to arouse the best feelings of our nature. The address and poem were listened to by one of the largest and most brilliant audiences ever convened in Boston.

The annual meeting of the Association, for the choice of officers, was held on Wednesday evening, Oct. 4, and the following gentlemen were elected for the ensuing year:—Elliott C. Cowdin, President; F. A. Peterson, Vice-President; Francis G. Allen, Treasurer; Alonzo C. Haskell, Secretary; and Charles M. Eustis, Henry A. Reed, M. S. Pike, William H. Towne, Reuben J. Todd, C. C. Webb, C. C. Merritt, Samuel Gould, Warren Sawyer, Directors.

Resolutions were unanimously passed, thanking the anniversary orator and poet for their able and appropriate productions, and asking copies for publication. This request has been complied with, and in our next number we shall have the pleasure of publishing extracts. We are pleased to learn that this institution is now in a most prosperous condition. It is entirely free from debt, and the mercantile community have never shown so great an interest in its welfare as at the present time. The lectures on Wednesday evening are attended by crowded audiences, and the course bids fair to be the most popular and instructive of the season. We earnestly hope the association will continue to prosper, and receive that attention from the community which its wants and interests require.

MERCANTILE HONOR.

In November, 1841, the mercantile house of Shelton, Brothers & Co., found it necessary to suspend payment of their debts, and to close up the business of the firm. Their creditors, after an investigation of their concerns, agreed to receive 50 per cent of the amount of their respective demands, and release the house entirely from their obligations. This agreement was entered into by all the creditors, the stipulated per centage was paid, and the demands cancelled. Since the time of the failure of the house, Mr. Henry Shelton, one of the partners, has departed this life. Mr. Philo S. Shelton, the surviving partner, proceeded, with undaunted and persevering energy, to wind up the concerns of the old firm, and to commence business anew, on his own account. In his enterprise, he has

been prosperous, and recently made a new dividend of 25 per cent among all his creditors, upon the full amount of their cancelled demands against the original house, paying out to them the aggregate sum of forty thousand dollars, for which they had no legal claim upon him whatever. This payment was entirely voluntary on his part; and it has been made not only to individual creditors, but, in some instances, to rich corporations, by whom the loss would not have been felt. Instances of this kind, we regret to state, are rare; and it is therefore honorable to himself, and creditable to the commercial character of Boston.

CONNECTICUT CLOCK COMMERCE.

The extent of the clock manufacture of Connecticut is not perhaps generally known. It is estimated that her citizens manufacture clocks to the amount of one million dollars per annum. A correspondent of the Rochester Democrat, residing at Hartford, says: "For the last three years we have been gradually pushing our *notes of time* into foreign countries; and such has been our success that, within a few hours ride of this city, one thousand clocks are finished daily; and it is a fair estimate to put down five hundred thousand clocks as being manufactured in this state last year. This year the number will be still increased, as John Bull is so slow in his movements that there is no hope of reform until he has plenty of Yankee monitors. These we are now sending him by every ship that clears from our seaports. In 1841 a few clocks were exported there as an experiment. They were seized by the Custom house in Liverpool, on the ground that they were undervalued. The invoice price is \$1,50, and the duties 20 per cent. They, however, were soon released, the owner having accompanied them and satisfied the authorities that they could be made at a profit, even thus low. Mr. Sperry, of the firm of Sperry & Shaw, was the gentleman who took out the article. He lost no time, after getting possession of his clocks, in finding an auction house. They were made of brass works, cut by machinery out of brass plates, and a neat mahogany case enclosed the time-piece. They were a fair eight-day clock, but wholly unknown in England. The first invoice sold for £4 to £5, or about \$20 each. Since that time every packet carries out an invoice of the article, and 40,000 clocks have been sold there by this one firm, Sperry & Shaw. Others are now in the business, and the North of Europe has become our customers. India, too, is looked to as a mart for these wares, several lots have been forwarded to the ports of China."

EFFECTS OF OSTENTATION UPON CREDIT.

The maxim "all is not gold that glitters," if not purely English in its origin and application, is at all events not recognized in France. In the latter kingdom the reputation of a man for wealth is about in proportion to his display of it. A showy house of business, and an elegant style of living, indicating that the proprietor has abundance of wealth himself, are essential prerequisites to his being entrusted with the property of others. The contrast which prevails to this state of things in England, is strikingly illustrated by an incident related in the Edinburgh Review. A retired merchant of enormous fortune, living in great seclusion, is said to have kept his account with a banking firm headed by a baronet. His balance in the bank was generally from thirty to forty thousand pounds, and the baronet deemed it only a proper attention to so valuable a customer to invite him to dinner at his villa in the country. The splendor of the banquet, to which the old man reluctantly repaired, impelled him on his entrance to apologize to his host for subjecting the latter to so much inconvenience. The baronet replied that, on the contrary, it was incumbent on him to apologize, for taking the liberty of asking his guest to partake of a family dinner. Nothing further passed, but the next morning the customer drew his whole balance out of the bank.

CONNECTICUT TOBACCO.

It is not generally known, says the Louisville (Kentucky) Journal, that they cultivate the tobacco plant in Connecticut. Previous to our late visit to that region we heard that such was the case, and we determined to inquire into the matter. We found that a considerable quantity of tobacco is grown on the Connecticut river, that the product per acre is very large, and that the article produced commands a high price. We were told that a ton and a half per acre was no uncommon yield. The crop of last year was sold at an average of 6 cents a pound. As to the mode of cultivation, our information was to this effect: the soil is the sandy loam of the Connecticut river bottoms, and it is manured without stint. The tobacco is planted very thick, two feet and a half each way. How they can get through it to worm and sucker it, we cannot imagine. It is topped very high, until on the point of buttoning. The seed came originally from Virginia. It is cured in houses, without having been yellowed in the sun, and without the use of fire.

STEEL PEN TRADE.

This paragraph was written with one of Gillott's patent steel pens, an article we have used exclusively for the last three years, and we are free to say that it is, in our opinion, in every respect the best article of the kind ever manufactured in England. Joseph Gillott, the manufacturer, who resides at Birmingham, has been engaged in the business for the last twenty-two years, and by repeated experiments has at length brought the manufacture of this article, in all its varieties, to a great state of perfection. The number of pens manufactured at his works in 1841 and 1842 was as follows:—

From Dec. 1840, to Dec. 1841,
was 62,126,928 pens,
or 5,177,244 dozen,
or 431,437 gross.

From Dec. 1841, to Dec. 1842,
was 70,612,002 pens,
or 5,884,333 dozen,
or 490,361 gross.

MANUFACTURE OF TOMATO CATSUP.

Tomato Catsup has become quite an article of commerce and consumption in the United States. The quantity manufactured by Wm. K. Lewis and Co., of Boston, is immense, and the quality which we have tested, having used it in our family for the last five years, is, we have no hesitation in saying, unsurpassed. The New Hampshire Statesman furnishes the following recipe for the manufacture of catsup from the tomato, that may possibly answer the purpose of families who cannot procure the celebrated article of Lewis:—"Take a gallon of skinned tomatoes; four table spoonful of salt; four ditto of black pepper; half table spoonful of allspice; eight pods of red pepper; three table spoonful of mustard. Grind these articles fine and simmer them slowly in sharp vinegar, in a pewter basin, three or four hours; and then strain through a wire sieve and bottle close. It may be used in two weeks, but improves much by age. Use enough vinegar to make half a gallon of liquor when the process is over.

INCREASE OF LIFE INSURANCE AT BALTIMORE.

There was insurance effected on nine persons, during the month of August, in the Baltimore Life Insurance Office, viz: 1 mariner, 1 engineer, 4 merchants, 1 mechanic, 1 clerk, and 1 farmer. Of those, 6 were insured for \$5000 and under, and 3 for \$1000 and under. We are gratified to find that this branch of insurance, so popular in England, is gaining favor in the United States. Merchants, and merchants' clerks, and, indeed, all engaged in the precarious pursuits of trade and commerce, who have families, should invest their surplus revenue in this way.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Progress of the United States in Population and Wealth in Fifty Years, as exhibited by the Decennial Census.* By GEORGE TUCKER, Professor of Moral Philosophy and Political Economy in the University of Virginia, and formerly Representative in Congress from the same State. 8vo. pp. 211. New York: Press of Hunt's Merchants' Magazine. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The author of the present volume, desirous of gratifying the curiosity he felt on the subject of the census of the United States, was induced to make a thorough analysis of it from 1790 to 1840. The result of the laborious inquiries of Professor T. conducted him to important inferences on the subject of the probabilities of life, the proportion between the sexes, emigration, the diversities between the two races which compose our population, the progress of slavery, and the progress of productive industry. On one point they have disclosed an interesting fact, which seems never to have been detected, viz: that as the number of children bear a less and less proportion to the woman in every state of the Union, the preventative checks to redundant numbers have already begun to operate here, although there is no increased difficulty in obtaining the means of subsistence. From this fact we are able to ascertain the law of our natural increase, and thus, in the estimates of our future progress, correct some prevalent errors. To aid those who are not familiar with statistical inquiries, Mr. Tucker has subjoined comments that will enable the general reader to see and understand on what solid basis rest the hopes of the Anglo-Saxon race on this continent. "In the estimate of the annual products of the states, which most will deem rather under than over the truth, by showing how ample are the means to pay their public debts, he has taken away the only ground upon which the base doctrine 'of repudiation' could have found countenance with any large portion of the American people." To the legislator, statesman, political economist, patriot and philanthropist, this work must prove invaluable, furnishing, as it does, data that may be relied on for its accuracy. The deductions of Professor Tucker appear to us at once judicious and correct. The contents of nearly the whole of the present work have already been published in this Magazine, partly with a view of giving it a wider diffusion, and partly that the author might be better able to correct the errors which, in works of this character, are almost unavoidable.

- 2.—*The United States Almanac, or complete Ephemeris, for the year 1844, containing the length and increase of days, and the Sun's rising and setting, etc.; given for six different parallels of latitude, embracing the whole extent of the Union; complete Ephemerides of the Sun and Moon; a collection of such tables as are in most frequent use among astronomers, navigators, engineers, and others, for the determination of latitude, time, etc.* By JOHN DOWNES, Member of the American Philosophical Society, and late of the Northeastern Boundary Survey. Also, numerous Statistics, relative to Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, the General and State Governments, Public Offices, with their salaries, &c. By FREEMAN HUNT, Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, Corresponding Member of the American Statistical Society, &c., &c. 12mo. pp. 316. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler. 1844.

The present is the second volume of the United States Almanac; and the copious title-page quoted above furnishes a pretty good index to the design of this work. Mr. Downes, the astronomical editor, has performed his part, in its preparation, with distinguished ability; and, we are persuaded, with equal accuracy and fidelity. Of the statistical department, to which we have contributed our mite, it does not become us to speak. We may, however, be permitted to say, that the little we have done, it has been our aim to do correctly. No pains or expense, we believe, has been spared by Mr. Butler, the publisher, in rendering the present volume as perfect, in all respects, as the nature of such an undertaking permits. Although embracing more than three hundred pages, it is afforded at the low price of fifty cents per copy.

- 3.—*Voices of the Night*. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. Seventh edition. 12mo. pp. 144. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.
- 4.—*Ballads and other Poems*. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW, author of "Hyperion," &c. Fifth edition. 12mo. pp. 102. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.
- 5.—*Poems on Slavery*. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. Second edition. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.
- 6.—*The Spanish Student*. A Play, in three acts. By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. 12mo. pp. 183. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.

The above are the titles of all Longfellow's Poems, which the publisher has just sent us, and for which we return him many thanks. To speak of Longfellow's merits as a poet now, would be like speaking of Washington's merits as a patriot. The first appearance of the *Voices of the Night* established his fame on a lasting foundation, and it has suffered nothing by the subsequent publications, although they can hardly be said to be equal in merit to the first. *The Spanish Student*, which appeared but recently, is full of emphatic sentiment. Did we not know who its author is, we certainly should have ascribed the glory of it to one much younger in years; not because it is wanting in finish of style, but on account of the youthful feelings it displays. Perhaps Cupid can account for it satisfactorily—he never deserts poets. The ecstatic love-scenes remind us of bygone days, and fire those corners of our heart which have begun to grow cold as the sun of life has marched onward beyond its meridian splendor. The mechanical execution of these books should not be overlooked. It does honor not only to the publisher who planned it, but also to the printer and binder who executed it. As a set of poetical works, or singly, they are the most elegant parlor books of American production we have.

- 7.—*The Wife of Leon, and other Poems*. By TWO SISTERS of the West. 1 vol. pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Who can these two sisters be? This seems to be the universal question from all who have peeped into this book. Its beauties are so striking that no one fails to perceive them at once. We have not read it all through, for who would think of at once reading a number of small detached pieces? but the book has been lying by our side for some time, and whenever a moment of leisure has presented an opportunity, we have read a piece or two, so that by this time a large part has been perused. A freshness of imagination and a striking imagery pervades the whole; and the sentiment is so delicate and tender that it cannot but find a ready response in every uncorrupted heart. Two pieces, "The Lonely Ship" and "Fort Rosalie," seem to us more beautiful than the generality. A different taste than ours will prefer others, for there is no want of variety in either the subjects or the style.

- 8.—*Poems on Man, in his various aspects under the American Republic*. By CORNELIUS MATTHEWS, author of the "Motley Book," "Behemoth," "Puffer Hopkins," etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This little volume contains nineteen pieces, embracing, as will be seen, all classes and professions of men, as follows:—the Child—the Father—the Teacher—the Citizen—the Farmer—the Mechanic—the Merchant—the Soldier—the Statesman—the Friend—the Painter—the Sculptor—the Journalist—the Masses—the Reformer—the Poor Man—the Scholar—the Preacher—and the Poet.

- 9.—*The Wrongs of Woman; or, the Forsaken Home*. By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

Although exhibiting some of the "wrongs of woman" in England, it may be read with profit in our own country, where woman has not yet attained all her rights.

- 10.—*Woman an Enigma; or, Life and its Revelings*. By the author of "Conquest and Self-Conquest," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

- 11.—*Ecclesiastes Anglicanus; being a Treatise on Preaching, as adapted to a Church of England Congregation. In a series of Letters to a Young Clergyman.* By the Rev. W. GRESLEY, M. A., Late Student of Christ Church. First American, from the second English edition, with Supplementary Notes, collected and arranged by the Rev. BENJAMIN J. KNIGHT, M. A., Professor of Pastoral Theology and Pulpit Eloquence in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The author of the present volume starts with the idea that it is essential to the force of all public addresses, and of sermons at least as much as any, that they should be specially adapted to the character, capacity, circumstances, habits, prejudices, mode of thinking, and degree of knowledge of the hearers. "In treating of preaching," says Mr. G., "I have regarded it as one of God's ordinances, and an acknowledged instrument of man's salvation, without assigning to it any exclusive or undue importance." A preacher of printed sermons may be an Arminian one Sunday, a high Calvinist the next. The author has known such mistakes occur. In the present letters, the whole art of preaching is discussed with great force and clearness, and an application of the rules of rhetoric is made to the Church of England pulpit. In preparing the American edition of this treatise, a few foot-notes have been added by the editor, and more extended notes at the end have been selected from the best works on the subject.

- 12.—*Tales of the Village.* By FRANCIS E. PAGET, M. A., Rector of Elford, and chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Oxford. 3 vols. 18mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Three beautiful volumes, uniform with the "Churchman's Library," being the first, second, and third series of tales illustrative of the principles of the "Church of England." The first series is designed to give a popular view of the contrast in opinions and modes of thought between Churchmen and Romanists. In the second series, the same plan is pursued with respect to church principles, as opposed to dissent; and the tale of the third series is to show the characters of the churchman and infidel in contrast. "My endeavor," says the author, in the preface to one of the volumes, "has been, to show generally that in choosing the middle way between papal errors and sectarian novelties, the Church of England has kept the tract which is nearest to that in which the apostles walked; that she is close, in doctrine and discipline, to the apostolic model; that, while we protest against Rome, we remain catholic; and while we protest against Geneva, we are reformed; that our hand is against all error, and all error against us." The principles the author espouses are interwoven in agreeable narrative, and written in a pleasant and attractive style; thus rendering "light reading" subservient to what he conceives to be truth.

- 13.—*Of the Imitation of Christ.* Four Books. By THOMAS A KEMPIS. Translated from the Latin. "Churchman's Library." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the first complete American edition of a work in most parts in high repute with "the good and the gifted" of all Christian denominations. With regard to the present edition, it need only be stated that this translation is chiefly copied from one printed at London in 1677. The Latin edition, which has been principally followed, is that of Herbert Rosneyd, printed at Antwerp in 1617. The first English translation of the work was made by the mother of King Henry VII. It is written in a quaint, sententious manner, and is replete with maxims of deep and fervent devotion.

- 14.—*D'Aubigné's History of the Great Reformation.* Abridged by EDWARD DALTON, Secretary to the Protestant Association. Vol. I., (being an abridgment of the first three volumes,) 18mo. pp. 447. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1843.

We noticed, in a former number of this Magazine, the original work, of which this is an abridgment, and then expressed our high appreciation of it. The editor of the present volume seems to have adhered with great fidelity to the text, and to have embraced, in the abridged form, all that was desirable to retain of the original work, omitting, however, the notes, which, to the general reader, possess little or no interest.

- 15.—*Nature and Revelation, showing the present condition of the Churches, and the change now to come upon the world by the Second Advent in Spirit of the Messiah, with interpretations of prophecies in Daniel and the Book of Revelation.* By H. H. VAN AMRINGE, author of "the Seals Opened, or a Voice to the Jews." 8vo. pp. 258.

The writer of this volume appears to be an independent thinker on religious subjects. The arguments he uses in support of his theory of nature and religion, he says were not taught him by men of the present day, but in opposition to all influences surrounding him. We have not been able to follow him through all his statements. A brief passage, however, from the introduction to the volume, will perhaps give a key to the general scope of the opinions he entertains. After the statement that his views are derived from *Holy Scripture* and *Nature*, which he maintains do not contradict, he goes on to say—"Nor do I announce a complicated system of salvation, nor unrevealed mysteries, nor a limited and partial principle in operation; nor can any one set forth a more transcendent or infinitely glorious and happy perfectability," &c. The volume will doubtless interest many inquirers after truth, who will perhaps find some old truths in a new attire, with suggestions that are rather original.

- 16.—*Lives of the Queens of England, from the Norman Conquest, with Anecdotes of their Courts.* Now first published from Official Records and other Authentic Documents, private as well as public. By AGNES STRICKLAND. Vol. VI. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The present volume of the series, occupying nearly four hundred duodecimo pages, is devoted entirely to the history of the life and reign of Elizabeth, the second Queen-Regent of England and Ireland. In consequence of the interest and importance of the subject, and the great mass of unedited matter, which has never before been offered in any history of Queen Elizabeth's life and times, Mrs. S. found it impossible to complete the memoir of that remarkable sovereign in one volume. The conclusion, therefore, will shortly follow, in the seventh volume of the *Lives of the Queens of England*. The present edition, though cheap, (but fifty cents per volume,) is neatly printed, on fine white paper.

- 17.—*The Boys' and Girls' Library.* Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN. Vols 1 and 2. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

This little monthly has now been continued two years, and the volumes before us give evidence of the good sense, taste and judgment of the editor, Mrs. Colman, as well as of the ability of her contributors, among whom we notice the names of Mrs. Sigourney, Osgood, Graves, Jenett and Godwin, and Miss Hannah Gould, C. M. Sedgwick, the Rev. Jacob Abbott, the author of *Marco Paul's Adventures*, T. S. Arthur, &c. The volumes are neatly printed, and altogether attractive, and worthy a place in every Juvenile Library.

- 18.—*Notes Explanatory and Practical, on the Epistle to the Hebrews.* By ALBERT BARNES. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Dr. Barnes is unquestionably among the most learned and laborious commentators of the school of religionists to which he belongs. His writings are in high repute among theologians of different denominations, and must take a high rank in the department of religious and critical literature. The present volume is the last published of his numerous works on the different books of the New Testament.

- 19.—*The Child's Gem. A Holiday Gift.* Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

- 20.—*The Saint Nicholas Gift for Little Boys and Girls.* Boston: T. H. Carter. 1843.

Two very pretty books, bound in gilt, containing articles in prose and verse adapted to the comprehension of the youngest readers, without being perile or tame. We are not acquainted with better or more presentable books for little children.

- 21.—*Sketches of Yale College*. With numerous Anecdotes, and embellished with more than thirty engravings. By a member of that Institution. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1843.

A neat little volume of one hundred and ninety-two pages, in which the origin and history of ancient "Yale" in the 17th and 18th centuries, is brought down to the present time. It is interspersed with comprehensive notices of the situation of the College and its buildings, exercises, hours, apparatus, library, gallery, cabinet, theological, law, and medical departments, regulations, &c.; and a variety of college anecdotes, and in fact almost every subject of interest connected with its past and present history, character and condition.

- 22.—*The Maid of Orleans, and other Poems*. By WILLIAM PETER, A. M., Christ Church, Oxford. 1 vol., pp. 229. Cambridge: John Owen.

The principal poem in this book is a translation from the German tragedy by Schiller. It is not our business here to speak of the original, even if our dictum could add the least to its unbounded fame. The translation reads as fluently as if it were an original production, and the spirit of the author is incorporated as successfully as we can conceive it possible in the foreign garb. Joanna's Farewell struck us with peculiar force. The "other poems" are four—three translations, and one an imitation of a Latin epitaph, and are as meritorious as the principal one.

- 23.—*The American Poultry Book; being a Practical Treatise on the Management of Domestic Poultry*. By MICAJAH R. COCK. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

This little treatise has been examined by a committee of the Board of Agriculture of the American Institute, and they unanimously "assure the agricultural community in the United States, that it exactly supplies a deficiency which has long been felt in this department of the Agricultural Library." What can we say more?

- 24.—*The Works of Lord Byron, (complete.)* A new edition edited by S. THOMAS MOORE, Esq. With elegant engravings from steel plates. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

We have before noticed this serial issue of Lord Byron's complete works. The present number, the twelfth, brings it to a close. It is a very neat duodecimo, embracing four volumes, and is offered at twenty-five cents per part, or three dollars for the entire works. A former edition from the same plates, was published at ten dollars. It is printed on good paper, and large and handsome type.

- 25.—*The Little Keepsake for 1844*. Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN.

- 26.—*The Little Gift for 1844*. Edited by Mrs. S. COLMAN. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

These two Lilliputian quartos are neatly and even elegantly got up, and contain a great variety of tales, fables, poems, &c., well adapted to the capacity of the infant intellect, and in every respect in advance of the silly and ridiculous fictions of by-gone times. Mrs. Colman has, in these and the various other works under her control, evinced a correct taste and discrimination, derived from sympathy with the young mind and heart.

- 27.—*Sir John Froissart's Chronicles of England, France, Spain, and the adjoining countries*. New York: J. Winchester & Co.

The eighth part of this exceedingly interesting historical work has been published. The remainder of the numbers are to appear in rapid succession. Although among the cheap publications of the day, it is handsomely printed, and will form a volume worthy of a place in any library.

- 28.—*The Power of Faith, exemplified in the Life and Writings of Isabella Graham*. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

The present edition of this popular work is enlarged by the addition of Mrs. Graham's narrative of her husband's death, and other select correspondence. It forms, altogether, a volume of about five hundred pages.

29.—*The Hand Book of Needle-Work.* By MISS LAMBERT. With numerous Illustrations, engraved by G. J. Butler. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This elegantly printed volume of nearly three hundred royal octavo pages, appears to embrace not only a complete history of needle-work in different countries from the Mosaic era down to the present time, but a very complete, scientific, and practical essay of the art in all its manifold branches. It is divided into twenty-two chapters, each chapter under some general head, seems to comprehend all that can impart information on the subject. With this book, our fair countrywomen may array themselves in costumes of every age and country, with a precision that would astonish the women of by-gone days, were they permitted to look down upon their descendants of the present century.

30.—*The Saint's Rest.* By RICHARD BAXTER. Abridged by BENJAMIN FAWCETT, A. M. 12mo. pp. 540. New York: Robert Carter.

Among the writings of this learned, laborious, and eminent divine of the seventeenth century, which are very numerous, (comprising more than one hundred and twenty volumes,) the *Saint's Rest* is esteemed, by many Christians, one of the most valuable parts of his practical works. It has, however, been a source of religious instruction and consolation to, and is too well known by, evangelical Christians, to require any description of its character or contents at the present day. We may say, however, that the present edition is the handsomest and the most readable that has yet been produced in this country.

31.—*Geological Cosmogony; or, an examination of the Geological Theory of the Origin and Antiquity of the Earth, and of the causes and objects of the changes it has undergone.* By a Layman. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

The author of this little volume considers the question, whether the facts from which the geologists infer that the earth existed millions of ages prior to the Scripture era, not so conclusively settled as to preclude further examination. Deeming it safe to adhere to the cosmogony of the Bible, he endeavours to show that the modern geological theory, and the methods proposed for reconciling the Mosaic record with it, adopted by the philosophers and some ecclesiastics, are not well founded; or at least that they are open to as grave objections as the Hebrew text in the commonly received chronology.

32.—*History of the Westminster Assembly of Divines.* By Rev. W. M. HELVINGTON, author of the "History of the Church of Scotland," "Minister's Family," etc. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1843.

This volume, the first American reprint of the Edinburgh edition, embraces a full and succinct history of the Westminster Assembly of Divines, by whose labours were produced the Confession of Faith, the Directory of Public Worship, the Form of Church Government, and the Catechisms, which have so long been held, with occasional and slight changes or modifications, as the standards of Presbyterian Churches throughout the world. The author is a genuine Presbyterian, and of course, attempts to vindicate the character of that venerable body of Presbyterian divines from the aspersions by which it has often been assailed.

33.—*A Treatise on Prayer; designed to assist in the devout discharge of that duty.* By EDMUND BICKERSTETH. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

This work had passed through ten editions as long ago as 1825, in England, where it is received by a large portion of the religious community as a standard of scriptural piety. Its practical character commends it to the religiously disposed of all denominations of evangelical Christians.

34.—*Poetry for the Young.* In two parts: Moral and Miscellaneous. Selected and published for Mrs. JOHN THORP, Lawrence's school. New York: J. S. Taylor & Co.

Th selections in this little volume are made from our best poets, with taste and judgment.