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# HUNT'S

## MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

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 JANUARY, 1844.  
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### ART. I.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF BRITISH AMERICA.

THE dependencies of England in North America, exclusive of such of the West India islands as form part of that division of the world, are—The province of Canada, Upper and Lower; the province of New Brunswick; the province of Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton; Prince Edward's island; Newfoundland; the Northwest, or Hudson's Bay Territory; the Bermudas.

The capture of Quebec by General Wolfe, in September, 1759, brought the province of Canada under the dominion of England, in whose possession it has since continued without interruption. This important possession is bounded on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic ocean, on the north by the Hudson's Bay territory, on the west by the Pacific ocean, and on the south by the United States of America. It lies between 42° and 53° north latitude, and between 64° and 143° west longitude. It is usually considered, however, that the western extremity of the province is Goose lake, near Fort William, on Lake Superior, in 90° 20' west longitude. The length of Canada, thus limited, from east to west, is about 1,000 miles; and its average breadth, from north to south, 300 miles—so that its area is 300,000 square miles, or two and a half times that of Great Britain and Ireland.

Upper and Lower Canada contained 270,718 inhabitants in 1806, 333,250 in 1816, and 580,450 in 1824.

The population of the four districts of Lower Canada, in 1831, was—

Quebec,.....	137,126		Gaspé,.....	9,550
Montreal,.....	284,650			95,000
Three Rivers,.....	70,157		Total,.....	501,438

The increase in the numbers of the people, by natural means, is rapid. The difference between the births and deaths, in the six years from 1831 to 1836, is equal to an average annual increase of 2½ per cent. But this increase is importantly assisted by emigration. In the same six years, the number of emigrants from the United Kingdom, who landed at Quebec and Montreal, was 194,936. The greater part of these went forward to

the upper province, and some of them probably crossed over to the United States; but, on the other hand, a number, probably greater than those, of British emigrants who landed at ports in the United States, proceeded onward to Canada. During the six years, (1831 to 1836,) the number who landed at the port of New York, alone, was 169,354. The increase altogether, in the districts of Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, between 1831 and 1836, was 70,789. The population of the whole of Lower Canada, in the latter year, was supposed to exceed 600,000.

The population of Upper Canada, in 1831, had reached 296,544; making the numbers in the entire province, in that year, 797,982. In 1836, they were but little, if at all, below a million. At this time, (1843,) the Canadians have probably increased to 1,250,000, being about equal to the population of Denmark, exclusive of the duchies of Sleswick Holstein.

The trade of England with this part of her dominions is considerable. The exports exceed in value the return shipments, as must be the case while any considerable number of British subjects are emigrating thither. The custom-house accounts do not, indeed, state the full measure of this excess, since no entry is made of the greater part of the property taken with them by emigrants; and which, although the value may not be great in the individual cases, must amount to a considerable sum in the aggregate.

The total imports and exports of Canada in each year, from 1832 to 1839, were valued in official documents as under:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£1,567,719	£952,463	1837,.....	£1,602,353	£908,702
1833,.....	1,665,144	965,026	1838,.....	1,413,269	968,599
1834,.....	1,063,643	1,018,922	1839,.....	2,137,374	1,099,337
1835,.....	1,496,378	896,848			
1836,.....	1,941,053	1,034,514	Total, ..	£12,886,933	£7,844,411

It thus appears that, during those eight years, this province has imported to the value of five millions beyond its exports; the whole of which excess has been drawn from England.

The value of British cotton, linen, silk, woollen, and iron manufactures, that found a market in Canada in each of those years, was—

Years.	MANUFACTURES OF					Tot. of the foregoing.
	Cotton.	Linen.	Silk.	Woollen.	Iron.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1832,.....	309,170	54,320	62,389	229,631	68,246	723,756
1833,.....	247,616	50,576	50,191	257,652	83,373	689,408
1834,.....	173,347	26,733	40,909	133,490	56,663	431,142
1835,.....	349,831	60,039	58,988	237,961	56,884	763,703
1836,.....	473,160	61,235	63,143	303,166	91,643	992,347
1837,.....	283,858	52,847	50,222	224,671	64,839	676,437
1838,.....	249,872	43,936	43,889	193,859	54,871	586,427
1839,.....	544,110	67,468	95,772	329,598	111,604	1,148,552

The value of ashes, grain, and timber, the most important articles of Canadian produce that were exported, was as follows:—

Years.	Ashes.	Grain, &c.	Timber.	Together.
1832,.....	£204,667	£221,552	£471,837	£898,056
1833,.....	174,281	241,720	489,367	905,368
1834,.....	108,287	139,742	683,208	931,237
1835,.....	176,231	39,590	620,182	836,003
1836,.....	238,951	28,804	703,165	970,920
1837,.....	180,571	15,331	651,786	847,688
1838,.....	168,980	46,034	706,185	921,199
1839,.....	142,457	32,052	880,403	1,054,912

The shipping that entered and cleared from the ports of the province, in the same years, were as follows:—

Years.	Inwards.									
	GREAT BRITAIN.		BRITISH COLONIES.		UNITED STATES.		FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		TOTAL.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	860	255,527	1,162	142,280	780	101,497	25	5,938	2,827	505,242
1833,	812	234,844	1,155	162,320	994	179,266	19	4,868	2,980	581,298
1834,	931	275,518	1,157	127,034	771	159,133	20	5,259	2,879	506,944
1835,	947	297,109	*217	*24,022	1,349	75,748	28	6,910	2,541	403,789
1836,	953	310,645	1,093	202,715	910	91,753	44	11,446	3,000	616,559
1837,	854	288,481	827	189,862	874	90,847	40	10,496	2,595	579,686
1838,	863	306,241	896	152,443	1,113	89,225	46	12,376	2,918	560,285

  

Cleared outwards.										
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Total.	
1832,	962	272,468	157	7,418	883	46,176	2	493	2,004	326,555
1833,	899	260,967	200	16,977	327	68,623	4	1,613	1,430	348,180
1834,	1,024	302,308	180	14,216	399	69,776	9	2,837	1,612	389,137
1835,	1,015	317,990	218	17,090	832	70,682	9	1,740	2,074	407,502
1836,	1,092	350,741	230	18,175	419	59,697	1	199	1,742	428,812
1837,	980	331,883	164	13,875	432	49,301	1	353	1,577	395,412
1838,	955	344,153	143	11,939	445	67,816	1	343	1,544	424,251

Ship-building forms an important and increasing branch of industry in the province. There were built and registered in the different ports of Canada, in each of the ten years, (1832 to 1841,) the following numbers:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	25	4,414	1837,.....	32	6,356
1833,.....	29	5,154	1838,.....	33	6,916
1834,.....	32	6,176	1839,.....	42	10,857
1835,.....	26	5,465	1840,.....	54	19,768
1836,.....	32	7,704	1841,.....	64	20,707

The greater part of these vessels are sent for sale to England, and are then registered in the various ports of the United Kingdom. There were registered, as belonging to Canadian ports, at the end of 1841—

	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.
Sailing vessels, under 50 tons,.	225	6,134	Steam vessels, under 50 tons,.	1	47
“ above “	236	42,767	“ above “	8	983
Total,.....	461	48,931	Total,.....	9	1,030

Total sailing and steam vessels,..... 470 49,931

The fisheries for cod, herrings, mackerel, and salmon, carried on from Lower Canada, furnish, after supplying the inhabitants of the province, a yearly export, chiefly to our West India colonies, to the value of £50,000 to £80,000.

Agriculture must necessarily, for many years to come, engage the chief part of the attention of the Canadian population; and, if even the assumed necessity for emigration thither, from the parent country, should cease, she will continue to find customers among them for her cheap manufactures, although the commonest articles of clothing and household utensils have long been produced in their cottages. It was found that, in 1830, there were 13,400 domestic looms in Lower Canada, estimated to produce about 1,400,000 yards of coarse woollen cloth, 1,000,000 yards of common flannel, and 1,350,000 yards of linen. There were, at the same time, in

\* Sailing vessels only included in this year. The greater part of the trade with neighboring colonies is carried on by means of barges.

that division of the province, 90 carding, and 97 fulling-mills, 3 paper-mills, 395 grist-mills, and 737 saw-mills, many whiskey distilleries, and 7 iron foundries. Sugar is very generally made for use by families, from the juice of the maple-tree. In Upper Canada, in 1834, the weaving of woollen cloth was a common occupation in the cottages. There were numerous distilleries, breweries, tanneries, fulling-mills, and carding-mills. The number of grist-mills was 551, and of saw-mills 843.

The growth of this province of England has been, and will continue to be, greatly stimulated by the advantage of easy communication which is offered through the navigation of the St. Lawrence, and the magnificent chain of lakes connected with that noble river. In aid of this natural advantage, some costly works have been completed, partly by private enterprise, and partly at the expense of England. The most important of these works, the Rideau canal, cost her a million of money. It is 135 miles long, beginning at Kingston, on Lake Ontario, and ending at the foot of the Chaudière Falls, in the Ottawa river.

The province of New Brunswick, which formerly comprised part of Nova Scotia, is bounded on the north by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the river Ristigouche; on the south by the Bay of Fundy and Chignecto Bay; on the east by Northumberland Strait and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and on the west by the state of Maine.

The area of the province, in square miles, is 25,324.

The population was, in 1806, about 35,000; in 1816, about 56,000; in 1824, about 78,000.

The inhabitants, in 1834, were found to consist of—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,.....	61,756	56,078	117,834
Free blacks,.....	757	866	1,623
Total,.....	62,513	56,944	119,457

During the five years from 1835 to 1839, besides the natural increase of the inhabitants, there were added to their numbers 18,957 emigrants; and it is probable that at this time the province contains a population of 160,000 souls.

The trade of New Brunswick in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was to the following amount:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£531,875	£471,527	1836,.....	£863,783	£547,720
1833,.....	549,215	469,464	1837,.....	730,563	588,397
1834,.....	567,719	491,301	1838,.....	720,042	656,052
1835,.....	621,511	577,209	1839,.....	1,011,546	690,836

The value of imports, during those eight years, exceeded that of the exports by about £1,100,000; the greater part of which sum was probably conveyed to the province by emigrants from the parent country, together with much other property not noticed by the custom-houses.

The greatest part of the exports of the province consists of timber and fish, with small quantities of grain. The value of those articles, exported in the foregoing eight years, was—

Years.	Lumber.	Fish.	Corn, &c.	Years.	Lumber.	Fish.	Corn, &c.
1832,.....	£384,900	£31,130	£5,071	1836,.....	£475,431	£25,295	£1,879
1833,.....	371,479	25,124	5,786	1837,.....	476,670	30,550	2,630
1834,.....	417,773	26,395	2,531	1838,.....	568,857	21,115	1,527
1835,.....	498,789	25,102	1,709	1839,.....	610,380	24,610	3,975

The shipping, inwards and outwards, during the years 1833 to 1839, were—

Years.	Entered.									
	GREAT BRITAIN.		BRITISH COLONIES.		UNITED STATES.		FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		TOTAL.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1833,	452	129,089	1,615	105,775	829	68,568	6	1,460	2,902	304,892
1834,	472	137,796	1,577	92,280	562	46,637	4	868	2,615	277,581
1835,	637	192,555	1,712	86,892	615	45,852	15	3,589	2,979	328,895
1836,	512	157,862	1,919	118,394	543	56,626	19	4,178	3,002	337,060
1837,	455	156,579	1,621	108,514	421	52,614	22	4,868	2,519	322,575
1838,	567	207,907	1,878	127,648	393	38,601	36	8,703	2,874	382,859
1839,	578	208,712	1,923	118,176	944	64,053	37	8,181	3,482	399,122

*Cleared outwards.*

1833,	613	183,121	1,565	102,602	625	29,289	3	428	2,806	316,300
1834,	654	189,857	1,453	91,903	218	19,018	1	86	2,326	330,864
1835,	816	242,625	1,388	79,983	287	22,077	2	166	2,493	344,851
1836,	688	219,259	1,789	108,435	318	18,670	6	671	2,801	347,035
1837,	638	224,238	1,534	94,262	261	18,244	8	1,231	2,441	337,975
1838,	762	266,566	1,885	109,234	209	18,645	68	4,760	2,924	399,205
1839,	826	290,925	1,899	118,800	798	33,688	4	638	3,527	444,051

Ship-building is a more important branch of industry in New Brunswick than it is in Canada. During each of the ten years from 1832 to 1841, there were built and registered in the province the following number of ships :—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	68	13,682	1837,.....	94	24,957
1833,.....	86	15,450	1838,.....	116	26,931
1834,.....	87	21,803	1839,.....	162	43,091
1835,.....	93	25,309	1840,.....	156	55,618
1836,.....	94	27,712	1841,.....	116	45,555

The number and tonnage of sailing and steam vessels that belonged to the various ports of the province, at the end of 1841, were—

Sailing vessels under 50 tons,.....	335	8,508
“ above “ .....	350	106,370
	685	114,878
Steam vessels above 50 tons,.....	11	1,362
Total, .....	696	116,240

A considerable part of the shipping built in this and the other provinces of British America, are sold in England, after conveying thither their first cargo; and their value, which does not enter into our custom-house accounts, must be considered in estimating the amount of their exports.

By far the largest part of the surface of this province is still in a state of nature—nearly three-fourths remain still ungranted, in the hands of government.

The peninsula of Nova Scotia is joined to the continent of North America by an isthmus 11 miles wide, which unites the province with New Brunswick. It is bounded on the west by the Bay of Fundy; on the north by the Gut of Canso, which separates it from the island of Cape Breton; on the south and on the east by the Atlantic. The length of Nova Scotia, from east to west, is 280 miles; and its mean breadth about 60 miles.

From an early period, England claimed the sovereignty of Nova Scotia, including New Brunswick, by right of its discovery by Sebastian Cabot.

Early in the seventeenth century, an attempt was made to form a settlement on the peninsula by the French, who were driven away by the English settlers of Virginia, but it was some time before any effectual steps were taken to colonize it; and in 1667 it was ceded to France by the treaty of Buda. In 1710, it was captured by a British force; and, by the treaty of 1713, was fully ceded to Great Britain. It has since remained subject to the British crown.

The population of this province, in 1806, was 65,000; in 1816, it had increased to 73,000; in 1824, it contained 84,000 inhabitants; and in 1838, when the last census was taken, the numbers were declared to be as follows:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 6 years of age,.....	17,294	16,760	34,054
From 6 to 14 years of age,.....	17,522	16,079	33,601
Above 14 years of age,.....	51,305	36,031	87,336
Total,.....	86,121	68,870	*154,991

The returns did not include the population of two counties, which, in 1827, contained 18,176 inhabitants. There is further reason to doubt their accuracy as regards the numbers which are given, because of the great inequality in the numbers of the two sexes above 14 years. The proportions found in 1827 were 48·7 females to 51·3 males, while the above proportions give only 44·4 females to 55·6 males, and there are no peculiar circumstances attending the province which should occasion such a variation.

The trade of Nova Scotia, in each of the years from 1832 to 1839, was to the following amounts:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£765,167	£392,255	1836,.....	£733,540	£446,097
1833,.....	757,620	431,335	1837,.....	790,765	478,461
1834,.....	700,127	404,650	1838,.....	923,563	524,311
1835,.....	612,495	455,547	1839,.....	1,212,984	642,849

The shipping, inwards and outwards, in these years, was—

<i>Inwards.</i>										
GREAT BRITAIN.		BRITISH COLONIES.		UNITED STATES.		FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		TOTAL.		
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Tons.	
1832,	129	32,310	1,869	124,026	578	52,867	42	7,637	2,618	216,840
1833,	130	32,053	2,200	145,424	1,343	112,893	69	10,597	3,627	271,995
1834,	115	33,651	1,297	74,760	967	80,340	38	8,636	2,417	194,387
1835,	100	26,685	2,285	154,469	833	161,051	25	2,985	3,243	345,190
1836,	108	29,544	2,295	147,781	965	97,689	36	6,119	3,404	381,133
1837,	91	26,524	1,986	129,758	882	83,846	57	6,924	3,016	247,052
1838,	97	30,298	2,478	162,170	978	101,325	112	12,360	3,665	316,063
1839,	97	27,886	2,517	149,631	1,211	136,580	181	18,039	4,006	332,136

  

<i>Outwards.</i>										
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Tons.	
1832,	111	26,733	1,957	128,946	648	62,876	32	3,819	2,748	222,374
1833,	124	30,936	2,149	144,459	1,466	122,905	30	3,900	3,869	302,201
1834,	136	31,906	1,340	93,278	945	78,040	20	3,165	2,441	206,389
1835,	117	30,182	2,430	159,103	876	80,417	29	3,472	3,452	273,174
1836,	112	33,931	2,540	170,407	902	90,399	20	2,783	3,574	294,520
1837,	89	26,695	2,171	148,945	841	82,496	31	3,726	3,132	261,772
1838,	103	31,459	2,804	189,962	963	100,572	39	4,150	3,909	325,083
1839,	102	29,739	2,815	179,712	1,266	139,427	49	5,299	4,232	354,177

\* A corrected account, including the population of Cape Breton, states the number to have been 178,237.



The amount of shipping built within the province, in each of the ten years, (1832 to 1841,) was as follows :—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	95	7,313	1837,.....	142	12,659
1833,.....	104	9,475	1838,.....	182	16,966
1834,.....	108	8,956	1839,.....	198	19,435
1835,.....	100	4,531	1840,.....	199	31,207
1836,.....	114	9,280	1841,.....	167	23,904

The shipping belonging to the province, at the end of 1841, was—

		Vessels.	Tons.			Vessels.	Tons.
Sailing vessels, under 50 tons,	1,181	24,537	Steam vessels, under 50 tons,.	1	35		
“ above “	615	84,906	“ above “	2	117		
		<u>1,796</u>			<u>3</u>		<u>152</u>
		109,343					

Total sailing and steam vessels,..... 1,799 109,495

The fisheries of Nova Scotia are of the greatest importance to its prosperity, and their produce furnishes the most valuable article of its export trade. The great bulk of the fish taken is cod ; but herrings, mackerel, and salmon, are also found, and cured for exportation. The value of fish, grain, and lumber, exported from the province in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was—

Years.	Fish.	Corn, &c.	Lumber.	Years.	Fish.	Corn, &c.	Lumber.
1832,...	£137,744	£12,447	£98,888	1836,...	£157,204	£18,980	£115,620
1833,...	149,046	25,652	82,142	1837,...	181,961	11,768	143,736
1834,...	127,889	12,672	122,898	1838,...	205,840	15,310	137,716
1835,...	155,801	51,660	115,148	1839,...	233,075	30,180	143,138

The province of Nova Scotia is invaluable to the parent country from the number and commodious nature of its harbors. The port of Halifax, the capital of the province, is entered by a creek sixteen miles long, which ends in a sheet of water, the area of which is ten square miles, and in which one thousand ships can ride in safety. Its entrance is effectually protected by forts, erected on small islands. Margaret's bay, also on the Atlantic coast, is two miles wide at the entrance, but widens to six miles, and is fourteen miles long. At the southwestern end of the province is St. Mary's bay, four to ten miles broad, and thirty-five miles long. The Annapolis basin is entered by the Gut of Digby, in the Bay of Fundy, and is one of the most beautiful harbors in America, extending ten miles parallel to the Bay of Fundy, with a width varying from one to four miles. The basin of Mines, lying at the extremity of the Bay of Fundy, is entered through a strait three miles wide, and within enlarges to from eight to sixteen miles, extending about fifty miles to the head of Cobequid bay. Cumberland basin, which divides the province from New Brunswick, forms also a secure and capacious harbor. Pictou harbor has a bar at its mouth, but within is safe and capacious ; and there are other smaller harbors along the north shore, in Northumberland strait, which elsewhere would be deemed of importance.

A considerable number of live stock are reared in the province. At the census of 1827, there were found 14,074 horses, 127,642 horned cattle, 197,375 sheep, and 80,223 swine.

The number of acres in crop, in the same year, was 327,676 ; and of uncultivated land there were 9,668,801 acres. Some coal mines are worked in the district of Pictou.

The island of Cape Breton is a dependency of Nova Scotia, from which province it is divided by the Gut of Canso and St. George's bay. It is bounded on the north and northwest by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, on the south and east by the Atlantic, and on the west by St. George's bay and Northumberland strait. Its length, from northeast to southwest, is about 100 miles, and its greatest breadth is 80 miles. The population, which in 1806 was 2,513, in 1816 about 7,000, and in 1824 about 14,000, consisted in 1827 of 9,345 males, and 9,265 females—together, 18,700 souls. At this time, the island is computed to contain about 27,000 inhabitants.

The custom-house accounts do not furnish an accurate statement of the trade of this island, a great part of its imports being included in the accounts of Nova Scotia. The value not thus included, during the eight years, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£18,072	£31,891	1836,.....	£8,809	£34,460
1833,.....	10,324	28,608	1837,.....	7,591	41,337
1834,.....	10,501	22,188	1838,.....	8,350	33,546
1835,.....	11,666	31,039	1839,.....	8,027	42,859

The exports consist principally of fish and coals. Of this mineral, there are mines at Sydney, Bridgeport, and Little Bras d'Or. The quantity exported in each of the above years was—

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1832,.....	21,855	1836,.....	27,759
1833,.....	15,680	1837,.....	32,701
1834,.....	8,374	1838,.....	23,550
1835,.....	9,955	1839,.....	38,199

Ship-building is carried on in the island. There were built and registered in each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841, the following number of vessels:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	18	1,197	1837,.....	17	1,067
1833,.....	22	1,503	1838,.....	27	1,445
1834,.....	19	1,111	1839,.....	25	1,233
1835,.....	17	1,354	1840,.....	40	2,352
1836,.....	23	1,613	1841,.....	23	2,247

There were belonging to the island, at the end of 1841—

	Ships.	Tons.
Vessels under 50 tons,.....	22	5,462
“ above “ .....	18	3,969
Total,.....	40	9,431

Prince Edward's island, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is bounded on the south and the west by Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, on the east by the island of Cape Breton, and on the north by the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It lies between 46° and 47° 10' north latitude, and between 62° and 65° west longitude. Its extreme length is 140 miles, and its mean breadth is about 15 miles. Its area is 2,134 square miles.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497, but no settlement was made upon it by the English, and it was for some time occupied by the French as a fishing station. It was first taken into their possession by the English in 1758, and has since remained subject to this country.

The population in 1806 was 9,676; in 1816, it had increased to

16,000; in 1827, it consisted of 23,473, (12,211 males, and 11,262 females.) In 1841, a census was taken, according to which the inhabitants were—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 16 years of age,.....	11,580	11,186	22,766
From 16 to 45 years,.....	9,456	9,324	18,780
From 45 to 60 years,.....	1,945	1,726	3,671
Above 60 years of age,.....	1,082	734	1,816
Total,.....	24,063	22,970	47,033

Among this population, there were—Deaf and dumb persons, 30; blind, 29; insane, 78.

The external trade of the island is very small. The value of imports and exports in each of the years, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£1,015	£8,267	1836,.....	£1,394	£11,610
1833,.....	1,693	3,956	1837,.....	1,946	7,271
1834,.....	2,339	10,693	1838,.....	1,170	11,918
1835,.....	1,174	9,029	1839,.....	1,626	13,628

The progress of this island in improvement has been checked by an extraordinary proceeding of the English government, which, in 1767, granted very nearly the whole surface, by a gratuitous kind of lottery; the holders of the tickets to which benefits were attached being bound to pay a few shillings per annum for each one hundred acres, and to settle their lands in the proportion of one settler for every two hundred acres, within ten years from the date of the grant. These conditions have been mainly evaded. The grantees were, for the most part, permanently absent from the island, and settlers have been unwilling to embark their capital and industry in the improvement of property which they could not make their own, while, on the neighboring continent, there was an abundance of land to be had in fee simple, and on easy terms.

There are comparatively but few emigrants now resident on the island. Of the 47,033 persons living there in 1841, there were 31,561, or about two-thirds, who were born in the colony; and who, for the most part, were descended from Scotchmen.

The soil is fertile, and the climate good and healthy. The island is in a great measure free from the fogs which visit the shores of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia.

The great bulk of the people are agriculturists and stock farmers. There were on the island, in 1841, 9,861 horses, 41,914 neat cattle, 73,643 sheep, and 35,521 swine; 10 breweries and distilleries, 87 grist-mills, 11 carding-mills, and 83 saw-mills.

The number of ships built and registered in the island, during each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841, was as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	42	4,094	1837,.....	44	6,715
1833,.....	44	5,000	1838,.....	46	7,099
1834,.....	34	4,315	1839,.....	69	9,986
1835,.....	40	4,888	1840,.....	77	11,098
1836,.....	35	4,347	1841,.....	63	10,797

The number and tonnage of shipping belonging to the island, at the end of 1841, were—

	Ships.	Tons.
Under 50 tons,.....	112	3,106
Above ".....	80	12,967
Total,.....	192	16,073

The island of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, lies between 46° 40' and 50° 37' north latitude, and between 52° 40' and 59° 20' west longitude. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 400 miles, and its greatest breadth is about 300 miles. Its area is about 35,000 square miles.

The value of this possession has been confined to the fisheries carried on upon the "banks" in its neighborhood. We know little or nothing of the interior of the country, the settlements being limited to a few stations on the shores, having reference solely to the business connected with the taking and curing of fish. Some attempts at forming such settlements were made between 1585 and 1614, but the first permanent colony was established in 1623, by Lord Baltimore, who proceeded to the island in person. Another colony followed in 1633, under the auspices of Lord Falkland; and in 1654, Sir David Kirk went there with a few settlers, authorized by a grant from the parliament. Early in the eighteenth century, the island was taken by the French; but by the treaty of Utrecht it reverted to England, and has since remained in her possession.

The population, in 1806, was 26,505; in 1816, it was 52,672; and in 1824 had rather diminished, having been 31,746 males, and 20,411 females—together, 52,157. In 1832, it contained 59,280 inhabitants. In 1836, the latest account, there were in the island 42,462 males, and 32,238 females—together, 74,705.

The value of the import and export trade of the colony in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£573,872	£594,486	1836,.....	£579,799	£787,099
1833,.....	595,909	715,098	1837,.....	711,155	863,907
1834,.....	556,087	663,264	1838,.....	580,384	727,559
1835,.....	576,800	737,022	1839,.....	624,166	818,110

The greater part of the imported articles consist of various kinds of provision, clothing, salt, and fishing-tackle; and nearly the whole of the exports consist of fish, fish oil, and seal-skins.

The shipping that arrived at, and left the colony in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

<i>Inwards.</i>										
Years.	GREAT BRITAIN.		BRITISH COLONIES.		U. STATES.		FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		TOTAL.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	265	36,067	388	29,454	56	6,104	149	20,719	858	92,344
1833,	251	35,171	417	33,012	73	8,787	151	18,872	892	95,842
1834,	271	39,365	351	30,845	52	6,733	226	30,339	900	107,282
1835,	211	30,821	341	31,983	50	5,828	249	34,601	851	103,233
1836,	186	26,646	323	29,718	39	5,720	262	36,746	800	98,830
1837,	191	26,553	419	35,936	22	2,354	293	41,714	925	106,557
1838,	138	17,706	262	20,298	24	2,681	393	53,997	817	94,682
1839,	163	19,390	356	28,064	48	5,207	294	39,000	861	91,661

  

<i>Outwards.</i>										
Years.	GREAT BRITAIN.		BRITISH COLONIES.		U. STATES.		FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		TOTAL.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	167	12,128	424	28,749	23	2,727	195	24,700	809	68,304
1833,	151	18,515	444	41,544	29	3,515	221	27,386	845	90,960
1834,	233	16,500	443	24,146	25	2,871	270	41,052	971	84,569

Outwards—Continued.

Years.	GREAT BRITAIN.		BRITISH COLONIES.		U. STATES.		FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		TOTAL.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1835,	156	20,040	402	46,272	26	3,448	249	32,110	833	101,870
1836,	145	18,546	376	42,144	18	2,157	246	32,710	785	95,557
1837,	158	17,630	474	50,333	9	1,239	249	32,725	890	102,927
1838,	150	16,779	437	49,763	9	732	236	27,521	832	94,795
1839,	136	15,286	419	40,217	20	1,962	259	32,830	834	90,295

A considerable number of small vessels are built in the island. The number and tonnage so constructed in each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841, were as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	34	2,767	1837,.....	25	1,164
1833,.....	35	3,029	1838,.....	31	1,541
1834,.....	26	1,546	1839,.....	17	921
1835,.....	50	2,428	1840,.....	30	1,698
1836,.....	22	1,232	1841,.....	35	1,332

The number of vessels registered in, and belonging to the island, at the end of 1841, were—

	Ships.	Tons.
Sailing vessels, under 50 tons,.....	310	10,103
“ above “ .....	415	34,273
Total,.....	725	44,376

The Hudson's Bay Territory is a tract of country extending between 49° and 70° north latitude, and from Cape Charles, in Labrador, (near 55° west longitude,) to the Rocky mountains, and the mouth of the Mackenzie river, (in 135° west longitude.) This territory is so little known, that its area cannot be given; but it is said certainly to exceed 2,000,000 square miles, and probably not to fall much short of 3,000,000 square miles.

The description of this immense tract belongs to the province of the geographer, and would be out of place in this article. The only purpose to which it is applied, is that of hunting-ground for the Hudson's Bay company, through whose instrumentality the markets of the world are yearly supplied with the most valuable furs.

The Bermudas, or Somers' islands, is a numerous group, of which only five are of any importance, viz: St. George, St. David, Long Island, Somerset, and Ireland. They are situated in the North Atlantic, 580 miles east of Cape Hatteras, in North America. The western point of the group is in 32° 15' north latitude, and 64° 50' west longitude. The area of the inhabited islands is 12,424 acres, or about 20 square miles. Their population, in 1806, consisted of 10,000 persons, of whom nearly one-half were slaves. In 1824, the numbers were—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,.....	1,897	2,751	4,648
Free colored,.....	312	410	722
Slaves, .....	2,620	2,622	5,242
Total,.....	4,829	5,783	10,612

In 1839, the population consisted of—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,.....	1,638	2,428	4,066
Colored and black,.....	2,086	2,781	4,867
Total,.....	3,724	5,209	8,933

The climate is exceedingly healthy, and an increase of the population by natural causes would certainly be experienced. The diminished number of the inhabitants must, therefore, be owing to emigration; which, considering the limited nature of the employments offered in the islands, must be resorted to by the natives.

The value of articles imported into, and exported from the Bermudas, in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£102,742	£13,784	1836,.....	£116,067	£21,967
1833,.....	86,145	13,522	1837,.....	105,794	25,945
1834,.....	77,925	8,418	1838,.....	113,589	14,899
1835,.....	100,783	21,353	1839,.....	124,884	21,258

The imports consist of a great variety of British manufactures, with some grain and flour, and miscellaneous articles left by vessels putting in for repairs. The islands afford nothing of their own produce for exportation except arrow-root, the value of which is small, and ships; the building of which was formerly more successfully followed than at present. The number and tonnage of vessels built in each of the years, from 1832 to 1839, were as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	10	804	1836,.....	8	631
1833,.....	3	200	1837,.....	8	514
1834,.....	no return.		1838,.....	8	850
1835,.....	6	393	1839,.....	8	523

The difference between the value of goods imported and those exported, is provided for by the government expenditure on account of convicts, about one thousand of whom have for some years been employed in constructing fortifications on the islands.

The shipping that entered and cleared from these islands in each of the years, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Years.	<i>Inwards.</i>						<i>FOREIGN COUNTRIES.</i>		<i>TOTAL.</i>	
	GREAT BRITAIN.		BRIT. COLONIES.		U. STATES.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	8	2,052	76	6,502	65	6,995	6	708	155	16,257
1833,	8	2,159	76	6,251	57	5,805	4	459	145	14,674
1834,	7	1,502	74	5,657	53	5,427	1	51	135	12,637
1835,	9	2,233	71	5,312	50	5,098	16	2,658	146	15,301
1836,	10	2,616	62	4,690	48	4,697	4	720	124	12,723
1837,	8	1,804	53	3,867	45	4,567	16	1,413	122	11,651
1838,	11	3,148	51	3,419	47	5,681	16	946	125	13,194
1839,	8	1,956	45	3,112	42	4,732	25	2,816	120	12,616
<i>Outwards.</i>										
1832,	...	.....	102	9,418	48	5,501	13	1,522	163	16,441
1833,	2	364	84	7,253	50	5,874	6	646	142	14,137
1834,	1	58	83	7,256	49	4,837	9	1,101	142	13,252
1835,	10	1,900	81	7,227	43	4,509	14	1,408	148	15,044
1836,	9	1,661	68	6,063	49	5,129	...	.....	126	12,853
1837,	4	552	62	4,879	40	4,063	19	1,507	125	11,001
1838,	3	316	62	5,408	47	4,948	22	2,427	134	13,099
1839,	3	520	68	5,139	36	3,936	9	607	116	10,202

ART. II.—POST-OFFICE REFORM, AND UNIFORM POSTAGES.

THE post-office department of the United States is at this moment the subject of more public discussion than any other department of the public service. One can hardly take up a newspaper, or meet an individual in conversation, without reading or hearing complaints. The conviction is gaining ground among the people, that the whole system is inefficient and oppressive—the call for *reform* is almost universal.

The department finds itself embarrassed, and its revenue deficient. The postmaster-general is attempting, though quite ineffectually, to increase its revenue, by carrying into effect the laws which give the government the monopoly of the transportation of what is called "mail matter." His attempts are only vexatious to the public, and increase the conviction that prevails, of the worthlessness of the present post-office machinery.

No one pretends that the embarrassments of the department arise from the lowness of the rates charged. The rates of postage are most unreasonably extravagant. The government are now charging twelve and a half cents for conveying a single letter one hundred miles; and, at the same time, endeavoring to monopolize the carriage of all the newspapers that pass over post-routes, each of which weighs ten times as much as the letter, for a cent or a cent and a half each, and give one-half of this to the postmaster who delivers them. This fact, alone, proves the rates to be excessive; but the most certain test is the fact that, despite the law and the postmaster-general, the people employ other and cheaper modes of conveyance, and will continue to do so until the department, if not reformed and reconstructed, and made to suit the present wants of the people, shall fall to pieces.

The plan of organization of our post-office department is essentially the same as at the time of its organization. Some inconsiderable alterations have been made, from time to time; but its administration, in its main features, is essentially the same as at the beginning. For the sake of having a clear view of its evils and burdens, we will recapitulate here the substance of the laws now in force. Under existing laws, the rates of postage are as follows:—

FOR A SINGLE LETTER.

Under 30 miles,.....	6 cents.
Over 30 " and under 80,.....	10 "
" 80 " " 150,.....	12½ "
" 150 " " 400,.....	18¾ "
" 400 " .....	25 "

Ship letters, delivered at the port of arrival, six cents; or elsewhere, at the ordinary postage, and two cents in addition. Two pieces of paper are double; three pieces, triple these rates; and so on.

FOR PAMPHLETS AND NEWSPAPERS.

Newspapers in the state where published, or out of state, not over 100 miles,...	1 cent.
" " " " " over 100 miles,.....	1½ "
Periodical pamphlets, under 100 miles,.....per sheet	1½ "
" " over " .....	2½ "
Not periodical, under 100 miles,.....	4 "
" " over " .....	6 "

The *franking privilege* is enjoyed as follows:—By the president of the United States; vice-president; heads of the departments; comptrollers

and auditors of the departments; members of the senate and house of representatives, commencing sixty days before the first session of the Congress to which they are elected, and ending with the commencement of the next Congress; postmasters, of whom there are now about fourteen thousand; clerks of the senate and house of representatives. Under the act of December 19th, 1821, certain documents are also free.

*Compensation of Postmasters.*—Since January 1, 1842, the compensation has been somewhat reduced. It is now a commission of 27 per cent on the first \$100; between \$100 and \$400, 23 per cent; between \$400 and \$2,400, 17 per cent; above \$2,400, 7 per cent. Also, 45 per cent on newspapers, at offices producing less than \$500 per annum; and two cents on each free letter.

*Regulations as to Dead Letters.*—Letters remaining in the post-offices uncalled for, after a certain time, having been duly advertised, are sent to the dead letter office, at Washington. If, on examination, they are found to be *valuable*, measures are taken to find the parties to whom they are addressed. If not valuable, they are destroyed.

The *weight* of any one package transmitted through the mail, excepting public documents, is limited to three pounds.

Letters may be *prepaid*, or otherwise, at the option of the sender. Letters, whether paid or not, may be *marked up* at the place of delivery, if the postmaster deems them undercharged.

Such is an outline of the present system; and it is not difficult to show that the whole organization is based upon wrong principles. Its defects are of the most glaring description; and, on examination, are so evident, that the only matter of wonder is, that it has been tolerated so long.

To begin with the rates:—That they are extravagant, would seem evident at first sight, when it is considered that the government charge two-thirds as much for carrying a quarter of an ounce of paper from Boston to Albany, as the western railroad do to carry a barrel of flour over the same distance; or that Harnden & Co. could carry, between Boston and New York, (if the law permitted,) all the correspondence that now goes through the mail, for one-tenth of the price charged by the government, and get rich by so doing. This part of the system, it is admitted on all hands, is radically wrong. The enormous price of the commodity furnished the public, beyond its natural cost, as measured by the rates at which private individuals would be glad to carry on the business, not only embarrasses the department itself, but is vexatious to the public. The government will neither perform the service for what it is worth, nor allow others to do it. Consequently, an amount of postage is evaded, almost beyond belief. Facts have been made public, from time to time, showing that the extent of the evasion is immensely greater than might, at first sight, be supposed.\* The extension of railroads, and steamboat navigation, afford facilities for this evasion, much greater than formerly existed.† Merchants often *club* together, and make up their packages alternately, and forward them by private hand. Between Boston and New York, a single individual will frequently convey eighty or, one hundred letters. No passenger ever complains of the trouble—everybody

\* See Document appended to the Report of the Postmaster-General, December, 1841, being the Report of S. R. Hobbie, Esq., on this subject.

† See Report of Postmaster-General at extra session, June, 1841.



seems to feel that he is performing a Christian duty, in aiding his neighbor to evade an enormously oppressive tax. Nothing is more common than for letters, frequently valuable ones, to be sent to a railroad station by a boy, who hands them to some good-looking stranger, with a request to carry them along, which is always cheerfully complied with. These letters seldom or never miscarry. Everything goes on as well as it would with government patronage, and \$50,000 a year. Vast numbers are sent in bundles of goods, and by the expresses, without the knowledge of the carriers; and, on many lines, vast numbers *with* their knowledge. To make any exact estimate of the amount of this evasion, is obviously impossible; but, should an accurate inquiry be instituted, it would be found, no doubt, very much greater than has ever been imagined.

Government can stop this clandestine transmission of letters in only one way, viz: to carry them for a fair price; and, until it does this, the "private-hand" correspondence will increase, unless government shall find means to subject to examination all the packages, parcels, portmanteaus, and *pockets*, that are passing and re-passing through every channel of communication in the country.

The conviction that the rates of postage are too high, is so universal, that argument is unnecessary. The fact is everywhere acknowledged; and, as we are here making a short-hand statement of the evils of the present system, we merely state it as the *first*.

Another evil, or, more correctly speaking, *abuse* in the present system, is the franking privilege. To what extent it is enjoyed, has been already stated. The abuse has become intolerable. Nearly fifteen thousand persons have the free use of the post-office. The amount of matter that weekly passes through the mails, free of postage, is enormous. Many persons, well qualified to form opinions upon the subject, think that, of all the matter that passes through the mails, the largest part in weight goes free. This enhances the cost of transmission upon the part that does pay, and thus operates as a tax, of the most obnoxious kind, upon the public, for the benefit of the privileged few. The wrong has become so great, the abuse so enormous, that, if the franking privilege is not abolished, the public will abolish the post-office, to all intents and purposes, by finding other modes of conveying their correspondence.

From a return made by the postmaster at Washington, it appears that, during three weeks, in 1841, the number of free letters sent from the post-office department was twenty-two thousand and thirty-eight; being over one thousand per day. From members of Congress, twenty thousand three hundred and sixty-three; being about seventy letters per day, from each member, upon an average. Of documents and franked packets, three hundred and ninety-two thousand two hundred and sixty-eight; being about one thousand from each member, in the space of three weeks—and these free letters, documents, and packets, averaged nearly an ounce and a quarter each. At this rate, the weight of the mails sent from Washington, during the three sessions of the late Congress, would be upwards of seven hundred thousand pounds; and the postage, supposing it to be charged as low as fifty cents per ounce, would amount to \$575,000. This is but one item. It only gives the weight of mails sent *from* Washington. How many thousands of letters are *received* by the members of Congress, and the heads of departments? Probably not as many, but still an immense quantity.

But this is not all. Members of Congress not only frank their own letters, but, during their term of office, frank immense numbers for others. It has become so common for members to be solicited for *franks*, that it is almost uncivil to refuse. Often, the weight of letters is doubled and tripled, by this abuse. A person in Cincinnati writes a letter to a friend in Boston—he encloses it to some member of Congress in Washington, with a request that he would frank it. This makes a double letter; and, being directed to a member, goes free of the legal postage, fifty cents. The member encloses the letter to the person to whom it is directed—this makes another double letter; which, being franked by the member, goes free, also, of the additional postage. Thus government lose what, at present rates, should be worth a dollar, when a reasonable charge of a few cents would be cheerfully paid. This is no imaginary case—it has actually happened, in very many instances. The abuse of the franking privilege, by postmasters, is enormous. Partners in mercantile firms, cashiers of banks, attorneys, and others, solicit the commission of postmaster, for the purpose of covering their business letters with their frank, and thus saving themselves from an excessively burdensome tax.

The privilege is enjoyed by the members of Congress not only during their term of office, but to the commencement of the next session. There have been numerous changes among the members during the recent elections; and at this moment (November) there are nearly five hundred members, old and new, franking letters in various parts of the country, for themselves, their friends, neighbors, &c., &c.

The mere act of franking is a serious tax upon the time of members. They neither fold nor direct the pamphlets they forward to their constituents and others—they write their names, only, upon the cover; and even this is found, by many, to be an intolerable drudgery. Many members have a list of two or three thousand names, to whom, as an act of courtesy, and, in many cases, without much expectation of their being read, they send their speeches, and other documents; and, after all this folding, at public expense, this labor of franking, this overloading the mails, in many instances the documents are consigned by the receivers, unopened and unread, to the “receptacle of things lost on earth.”

The franking privilege is an abuse—a tax upon the public, of the very worst kind—wrong in principle, and an unmitigated curse to the whole post-office system. It must be abolished, and the government not only pay its own postages, but that of members of Congress also, if necessary to relieve them from that burden. There is no more reason why the merchants and letter-writers of the country should pay the carriage of the correspondence of the departments of government, and the two houses of Congress, than that *they* should be taxed, exclusively, for the transmission, from place to place, of arms or public stores.

Another burden upon the mails is the dead letters. Large numbers of letters, received at the post-offices, are returned to the general post-office, as dead. Some regulation should be adopted for securing the department from loss, by returning them to the writers, or otherwise.

The transmission of newspapers, through the mails, tends to overload them, and delay their transmission. Unquestionably the government ought, in order to afford facilities for the dissemination of intelligence, to *permit* the mails to be used, under proper restrictions, for the transmission of papers at a low rate; but it should be left to the public to use the mail

or not, as best suits their convenience. It is a monstrous contradiction for the government to carry newspapers for almost nothing, to aid in the diffusion of intelligence, and, at the same time, *prohibit the diffusion of intelligence* by cheaper and more expeditious means.

Such is the present postage system of the United States. The post-office department is, as we have seen, full of abuses; and is, to the great part of the country, not what it should be—a blessing; but what ought not to be tolerated—a nuisance.

What is to be done? is the question; and fortunate will be the man who shall be able to answer it satisfactorily. If some Rowland Hill could arise, and point out a plan, founded on correct principles, and properly arranged in its details, the public, with united voice, would demand its adoption. Individuals in all parts of the country, unconnected by business or party relations, would start up at once, and labor, each in his own way, for the accomplishment of the common object. The press would demand it—public bodies would speak in its favor; and, under the influence of public sentiment, the desired end would be accomplished.

Previously to the year 1839, the state of public feeling in England, in respect to the post-office system in that country, was much the same as it is in this country, at this time. Previous to that time, the rates of postage were extravagantly high—in many instances equal to a half cent per mile, for a single letter. Despite the heavy penalties of the law, and the rigorous espionage of the post-office department, the public could not, and would not endure the burden; and the letters were, in various other ways, forwarded through the kingdom. The writer has frequently known merchants in Manchester and London associate together, and forward four or five hundred letters for a few shillings, by special messengers, which it would have cost twenty pounds to transport by mail. Schemes of all sorts were resorted to to evade the government monopoly; and so successfully, that, during twenty-five years, ending in 1838, while the population and business of the kingdom increased 40 per cent, the gross revenue of the post-office department remained nearly stationary.

So general did the feeling become that reform somewhere was necessary, that, sometime about 1836, a royal commission was appointed to “inquire into the management of the post-office department.” During the sitting of this commission, a comparatively obscure individual in London published a pamphlet, in which he broached the bold scheme of conveying letters, by government, from any one part of the kingdom to any other part of the kingdom, at the rate of one penny per half ounce; and that, too, according to a series of calculations therein made, without ultimate loss to the revenue.

From the very boldness of the plan, it was likely enough that it should be quietly cast aside, as one of the whimsical schemes of the thousand and one *plan-mongers* who exist in every large community; and whose projects, ninety-nine times in the hundred, are not worth the paper they are written upon. But such was not the fact in this case. Although the project obtained no authority from the reputation of its author, who was little known to the public—although it could not encounter anything but opposition from the officers of government, who, naturally enough, look very coolly upon all new schemes, and especially upon schemes which threaten so startling an effect upon the revenue; yet, when the project was examined, the public discovered that it was founded on a correct prin-

cept. It was examined and approved by the merchants, manufacturers, and bankers; by the clergy of the Church, and the clergy of the dissenters; by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and other institutions. It found universal favor; and, in the space of about two years, the theory of a private individual, promulgated at first with very little prospect of success, was universally adopted; and, by enactment of the queen, lords, and commons, became the law of the land in Great Britain. Nor was this all—it excited the attention, and commended itself to the understanding and common sense of the whole civilized world.

In this country, the burdens of the post-office department had long been complained of; but, until the adoption of Rowland Hill's plan in England, little had been thought of reform, beyond a trifling reduction of the postages—perhaps merely altering the rates from Spanish fractions to decimals. But now, that an experience of three years has demonstrated the practicability and utility of Rowland Hill's plan in England, the public attention has been more aroused here. Many persons begin to think more extensive reforms can be made than have been heretofore contemplated; and the question is, whether a plan that has worked so well in England is adapted to this country, under our different circumstances. In respect to the mail service, there are two or three popular errors extensively prevalent, which may be here mentioned, in order to save the necessity of pointing them out at greater length hereafter.

One is, that it is impossible, in the nature of the case, that government can perform this service as cheaply as individuals can do it. The popular belief is expressed by Colonel Maberley, in his evidence before the committee of the house of commons. He says—"The price at which correspondence can be conveyed by coach, (that is, private conveyance,) is so infinitely lower than any price the post-office can put upon it, it is perfectly impossible the post-office price can ever be one that shall meet the smuggler in the market." The success of the penny system in England has already proved the common opinion to be a mistaken one.

The second prevailing notion is, that the post-office should be allowed to be a source of revenue to the state, if not directly, at least sufficiently to pay its own expenses; to transport the government correspondence free, and allow to certain privileged persons that free transmission of "mail matter" that now goes under frank. As to its being made a source of revenue, either directly or indirectly, a more correct opinion was never entertained in relation to it, than that of Lord Ashburton, who stigmatized it as the "worst of taxes." Mr. S. J. Lloyd goes further. He says, "that, if there be any one thing which the government ought to do gratuitously, it is the carriage of letters." Every advocate of post-office reform should maintain, everywhere, *that the post-office, as a source of revenue, DIRECTLY or INDIRECTLY, is not to be tolerated. That the public convenience is the primary, and indeed only object; and the financial result a matter of secondary importance.*

The third erroneous notion is, that the charge of transit should be increased according to the distance. On this subject, we propose to say a few words. It is evident that the cost of transmitting letters, to the government, may be, with propriety, divided into three heads:—

1. The cost of receiving the letter at the office where it is mailed.
2. The cost of transmitting it to the office of delivery.
3. The expense of delivery, and collecting postage.

It is evident that whether the letter be sent three miles, or three thousand, the expenses attending it, under the first and third of these heads, are the same, and in no way increased or diminished by the distance.

We have then, only, to consider the second head.

It would, indeed, seem evident, at first sight, that the cost of transmitting any article must be increased, in proportion to the distance travelled over. But we apprehend this will not prove correct in respect to lighter articles, more particularly in reference to so very light an article as a letter. In respect to these, or any articles of extreme lightness, the *cost diminishes in proportion as the quantity increases*. For example, suppose, between Boston and Roxbury, (three miles,) there were no conveyance except by special messengers. If one be employed to carry a letter, his charge would be at least half a dollar. Now, employ the same porter to convey a thousand letters, to be received at one place in Boston, and delivered at one place in New York, (two hundred and twenty miles,) and his charge would not amount to a cent and a half for each. We think this statement establishes our position, which we repeat—*that the cost of transit (the second head of the expense) is not in proportion to the distance travelled over, but the number of letters that travel together*. But, supposing it to be objected that an unfair example is adduced in the way of an illustration, by taking one of the greatest mail routes for that purpose; and that, because government can afford to carry letters between Boston and New York for two cents each, it can afford to do so through all the routes in the interior. Well, what then? Take, for example, the route between Northampton and Brattleborough, where the expenses of transit may be large, and the letters comparatively few. It only proves that it costs *more* to transmit letters forty miles than it does two hundred and twenty, and makes the position still stronger, that it is not distance that governs the cost, but the quantity carried.

It can, we believe, be demonstrated that the government can afford to carry letters from Boston to New Orleans cheaper than it can afford to carry them from Bangor, Maine, to Montpelier, Vermont, a twentieth part of the distance, but points between which there is comparatively little correspondence. It can be demonstrated, that the cost of transmission, heretofore considered the principal item, would, (if the government, by carrying at a low rate all the present correspondence and the increase that low rates would induce,) be so exceeding minute on each letter, that *absolute uniformity would be nearer to exact justice than any differences in rates could possibly be*. Therefore, if the cost of transmission, merely, should be uniform, and justly so, as the other two heads of expense ought from their nature to be, *let the rate be uniform*.

This view of the subject is established by the inquiries made by the committee of inquiry of the house of commons, who, after a careful and laborious investigation, found the cost per letter of all letters transmitted through the British mails, to be as follows, viz:—

Cost of reception and delivery,.....	0.57
Cost of transmission,.....	0.19
Total, .....	.76-100

of a penny. The cost of reception and delivery being much increased in England by their extensive penny-post system, which we have not in this country.

If the number of letters should be increased, it would reduce the item of nineteen-hundredths still lower; but whether reduced or not, the cost per letter, for mere transmission, was found to be so small, as to prove the justice of uniformity of change without respect to distance.

It will be seen, however, that uniformity of *rates* is based upon uniformity in *weight* of letters; and, where the weight of the letter is in excess of the standard allowed, the rates ought to be doubled, or trebled, or still more increased, as the case may be. But the principle of increase should be by weight, and not by the number of pieces, irrespective of weight, as is now the case. It is clearly unjust to the letter-writer to compel him to pay, on a sheet of thin paper and bank-note, double the rate of the coarse foolscap sheet that travels in its company, and weighs double. No feature of the law tends so much to injure the department as this; for seldom does the sender of a double or treble letter employ the post-office, if he can avoid it. Of the innumerable bank-notes, bills of exchange, and commercial obligations, that travel in letters, a very small proportion go through the mails. The limits of this article will permit no more than an allusion to this subject; but its injustice to the public is self-evident, as also its evil effect upon the revenue of the post-office.

Should an investigation be made, and should it be proved by the result that a uniform rate would come as near, or nearer, to exact justice, than differential rates, a question would then arise what that rate ought to be. To make the calculations necessary to determine this question, is beyond the power of any individual, who has not at his command the information and statistics that can be furnished by the post-office department only. A moment's reflection, however, will be sufficient to show that this rate would be found much lower than is generally supposed—certainly below *five cents*, for a single letter.

The present revenue of the department is probably about four and a half millions annually, from all sources. This is furnished by the postage collected on newspapers, pamphlets, and letters.

By the booksellers' memorial to Congress, 1842, it is stated that the quantity of newspapers annually printed in the United States is three hundred millions. If one-ninth, only, of these pass through the mails, it would be thirty-three millions annually. The postage on these papers, with the pamphlets, &c., might leave the amount of four millions of dollars to be derived from letter postage. This sum, at an average postage of twelve and a half cents, would represent thirty-two millions of letters.

The franked letters and free matter are estimated, by many persons, to amount to more than the postage-paying part of the mail. Whether it is so in number, or not, it undoubtedly does engross a great share of the *weight*. But, estimating the value of it at the same, it would give thirty-two millions of letters more.

These three amounts, added together, would give ninety-seven millions; or, roundly stated, the transmission of mail matter, of all kinds, may amount to one hundred millions of letters, &c., per annum.

If this estimate is anywhere near the truth, what does it show? It shows that, to transmit one hundred millions of letters, papers, &c., through the country, the government pay as follows:—

For compensation of postmasters,.....	\$1,015,000
“ incidentals,.....	330,000
	<hr/>
Total, as taken from the report of 1841,.....	\$1,345,000

These two items are the cost of *reception and delivery*; and, averaged upon the number of one hundred millions, gives the cost of each  $1\frac{3.5}{100}$  cents, nearly.

The amount paid for transportation of the mails, from the same report, was, for the year, \$3,145,000. This is the cost of *transportation*; and, averaged upon one hundred millions, gives the cost of each  $3\frac{1.5}{100}$  cents, nearly.

The two items make, together, the total cost four and a half cents. The newspapers, now paying *under* four and a half cents, being taken into the account, would carry the letter postage above it; but we are confident that an accurate investigation would prove that the average cost of reception, transmission, and delivery, for single letters, to the government, would be *under five cents each*. But, supposing the postage to be now reduced to the uniform rate of four or five cents for letters under half an ounce in weight, franking abolished, and payment in advance required for everything sent through the mails, this cost would, no doubt, be materially reduced.

It is evident that mail contractors base their contracts upon the quantity of matter they may, under ordinary circumstances, be expected to carry. A railroad, for example, appropriates a car to the mails. If the car is empty, or full, the charge to the government is the same; the cost per letter being very high when the bags are empty, and very low when the bags are full. If the franking privilege were abolished, not only would room be provided for an immense increase of paying matter, without increasing the present weight of the mails, but the number of letters, being increased four-fold, would probably add little or nothing to the present cost of transportation.

Would the quantity of letters increase? Undoubtedly it would, at the low rate of four or five cents. At this rate, the government might reasonably expect to carry as follows:—

1. Newspapers, as at present—call this.....	$\frac{1}{3}$
2. Letters now paying postage,.....	$\frac{1}{3}$
3. Free matter, now carried by the mail,.....	$\frac{1}{3}$
<hr/>	
Present amount of the mails,.....	1
4. Letters now sent by private hand, evasion, by writing on newspapers, &c., estimated at double the number sent by the mails, but call it same as those now paying,	$\frac{1}{3}$
5. Increased correspondence, in consequence of low rates, from persons at present writing letters, would double the present paying-letters.....	$\frac{1}{3}$
<hr/>	
Total from present letter-writers,.....	$1\frac{2}{3}$
Add, for mercantile circulars, advertisements, catalogues, invoices of goods, and from the poorer classes of the community, who would be glad to write occasionally, but who, on account of the high postages, do not write at all,.....	$\frac{1}{3}$
<hr/>	
Total,.....	2

This estimate is undoubtedly much below the truth. The results, in the English post-office, show a much greater increase than is here supposed. But, if the quantity of paying matter were only doubled, it would be found that, if the present cost to the government is four and a half cents per letter, it would, by doubling the quantity, be reduced to two and a quarter; or, in other words, the government could carry the newspapers, as at present, for one cent, and the letters for three cents, from any one part of the country to any other part.

All experience goes to show that a reduction in price of any commodity, universally desired by the people, increases its consumption in a greater proportion than the price is reduced. It would be interesting if the statistics of different railroad and steamboat companies, who have carried passengers for low fares, could be collected and analyzed, so as to discover the proportion in which numbers increase as price decreases. The North river steamers would be found to carry a thousand passengers at a trip, at a fare of twenty-five cents; while, at two dollars, they would scarcely carry a hundred. There is a curious propensity in people to avail themselves of any facility that happens to be cheap—the very cheapness of the article being a temptation to enjoy it, that is frequently irresistible. There is an illustration of this principle in the letter of the Irishman to his son, when the postage from London to Dublin was reduced from one shilling to one penny. "Write often," says he; "every letter you write saves eleven pence."

We copy here some statistics, brought forward in England at the time the reform of the post-office was in agitation, for the purpose of showing that the reduction of the rate would not only increase the quantity of letters, but not diminish the income of the department. They establish both points conclusively.

In 1781, Mr. Pitt made a reduction in the duty on tea, which reduced the price about one-third. The following is a statement of the effects of a diminished price upon consumption:—

Year.	Quantity of Tea sold.	Average prices.	Total expenditure in Tea.
1781,.....	5,031,649 lbs. }	6s.	£5,221,352
1782,.....	6,495,518 " }		
1783,.....	5,877,340 " }		
<i>Duty reduced in 1784.</i>			
1785,.....	14,921,893 lbs. }	4s.	9,417,699
1786,.....	15,943,682 " }		
1787,.....	16,222,923 " }		

In 1837, the rates of admission to the tower of London were reduced from 3s. to 1s., and in 1839, further reduced to 6d. The following is a statement of the effect of these reductions, taking the time from May to November, in each year:—

Year.	Rate.	No. of visitors.	Total receipts.	Rate of increase of visitors from 1837.
1837,.....	3s.	7,533	£1,130	.....
1838,.....	1s.	31,333	1,566	Over 3 for 1.
1839,.....	6d.	56,213	1,405	Nearly 7½ for 1.

About five years since, the stamp duty on newspapers in England was reduced, we believe, from 4d., with 20 per cent discount, to one penny, with the following effect upon their circulation:—

	No. of papers sold.	Price.	Cost to public.
Twelve months before the reduction,.....	35,576,056	7 d.	£1,037,634
“ after “ .....	53,496,207	4½	1,058,779

At the same time, the duty upon advertisements was also reduced, and with the following effect:—

	No. of advertisements.	Average cost.	Tot. cost to the public.
Annual number before reduction,.....	1,010,000	6s.	£303,000
“ after “ .....	1,670,000	4s.	334,000



To these might be added the statistics of the railroads in this country and in England; which, as before remarked, find success to result from the very principle we are recommending for the post-office. We have not at hand statistics of the roads in this country; and if we had, it would not be necessary to copy them here, as enough has been said to establish our position. The returns of some of the English railways are before us, and we copy from them the following statement:—

RAILROADS AT REDUCED, OR LOW FARES.

	Income per week.		Gain.
	1842.	1843.	
London and Brighton,.....per mile	£80	£102	26 per cent.
London and Blackwall,.....	247	315	27 “
Sheffield and Manchester,.....	29	60	101 “
Southeastern,.....	28	55	99 “
<i>Railroads at high fares.</i>			
Midlane Counties,.....per mile	£56	£50	12 per cent.
Eastern “ .....	37	59	7½ “
North Union,.....	60	49	20 “

The management of the post-office, by the government, is a close monopoly. All competition is, by the hand of power, driven, or attempted to be driven, from the field. It is the only remnant of a system of monopolies which existed in earlier ages; but which, before advancing knowledge and wisdom, have been, one after another, abolished. It is a question with many whether this should not be abolished; but, properly managed, the people would, no doubt, be contented to let it remain. All the evidence collected by the British government in their investigations, previous to the adoption of the new system, tended to establish the fact that, at rates approximating towards those at which private individuals could afford to do the business, the government establishment would be universally preferred. Let it remain, then, but on condition only that the government, in carrying on their trade, conduct their operations on sound commercial principles, and sell the commodity they offer at its fair natural price.

Our railroads, as before stated, depend for success upon the very principle we have stated in respect to the post-office. Their income is enhanced, not by the high rates they can charge each single passenger, but by the numbers they can carry at once. Thus these corporations have laid out their money by millions, upon a calculation of profit, based upon this principle; and experience has everywhere demonstrated its correctness, by the success that has attended them in their business of carrying passengers and freight at rates lower than were ever dreamed of before their introduction. And shall the government, with the vast means and resources of the country at its command, hesitate at an experiment that a private company would laugh at?

What is wanted, is a complete remodelling of the whole post-office system. We want a much-reduced and uniform rate of postages. We want the entire abolition of franking, and free transmission of every kind. We want, on the score of economy, prepayment of postages, by stamps or otherwise, so that every man may be his own M. C., and frank his own letters. We want the principle of increase in the rates to be that of *weight* only. We want the whole system to be so arranged that its benefits may be enjoyed by all classes, the poor as well as the rich, and

become what it should be—the life-blood of our social and commercial system.

What shall be done? Are we to wait the tardy movements of government, and of politicians who are more busy at president-making than in promoting the public welfare? Let the people put their own shoulders to the wheel, and cease to call upon Hercules. Let meetings be called in the principal cities, and committees of correspondence appointed. Let a committee of inquiry be raised from the best qualified men in the country, and funds provided, by a very small contribution from citizens who feel an interest in the matter, to enable them to make a thorough investigation of the whole system, and collect statistics which will expose the abuses of that system. Let facts be published to awaken the public mind, so that a memorial to Congress shall be backed by the strong power of the public voice, and the work will be done.

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#### ART. III.—OUR TRADE WITH THE BRITISH COLONIES.

THE commerce of the United States with the colonies of Great Britain, has long been considerable in its amount. During the earliest period of our own colonial existence, our trade with these colonies was of no little value; and, since we have arrived at the position of an independent country, it has constituted a subject of strenuous negotiation between the two governments. It is the design of this article to trace briefly the progress of our commercial relations with those colonies, as it is now a matter of pecuniary interest to the commerce of the nation.

By our commerce with the British colonies, we mean the commercial intercourse which is carried on by our own country with the British West India islands, the settlements upon the South American continent, and their continental and insular North American possessions. It is well known that, before the revolution, the proximity of the islands of the West Indies to the shores of the United States laid a natural foundation for a beneficial commerce, that was long carried on between their respective ports. During the years 1771, 1772, and 1773, the colonies now forming our country had exported to those islands freights to the annual amount of about three millions of dollars, for which we received rum and molasses to the value of about two millions, our own being the only market opened to the West India planters for those articles, as there was a very small consumption of them in England. About one million of dollars, the balance of the trade, was annually paid in specie; the articles given for it, however, being necessaries of life, such as bread, salted provisions, fish, lumber, boards and shingles, hoops and staves, hogs and poultry, horses and oxen. The continent of North America, indeed, appeared formed by nature to supply those articles to the islands, because they could not produce them with advantage to themselves. The capital expended upon the cultivation of sugar and coffee, would have been unprofitably invested in the production of hoops or staves, grass or grain. They could not be supplied from the mother country, to whose ports their trade was principally confined. Besides, the voyage was much longer; the charges of freight and insurance were greater. Great Britain could not even produce her own lumber for herself; the grain and flour frequently suffered

damage during the long voyages between the two countries; and only the choicest articles of West India production, its coffee and sugar, could be received in payment. Accordingly, the commerce between our country and those islands had not only grown to considerable amount before our own declaration of independence, but, since that time, it has been regarded by our people as of great value.

On the termination of war, William Pitt, in March, 1783, introduced into the house of commons a bill for the regulation of the trade and intercourse between the two countries, established on that broad and liberal basis which, as a nation, we have always advocated, in our commercial intercourse with other nations; but the proposed friendly arrangement between us was superseded by an order in council, bearing date the second of July, during the same year. This order was continued, by annual acts of parliament, and orders in council, until February, 1788—a prohibition which was established by a permanent statute, on the second of April of that year. By this prohibition, the trade between the United States and the British colonies was restricted to a small number of articles, that were to be carried exclusively in British ships.

At this point, let us take a brief view of the commercial policy of the British government, since its mercantile resources were deemed of sufficient importance to be husbanded. England, as well as our own country, has deemed it prudent to establish for itself its own laws for the protection of its agriculture, manufactures, and especially of its commerce; but it is equally true that, while our commercial regulations have been marked by a liberal and conciliatory spirit, her own have been rigid; and, we may add, somewhat grasping. The basis of her policy is easily discerned in the navigation act of 12th Charles II., chap. xviii., entitled "an act for the encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation." The substance of that act is to provide for the monopoly of the carrying trade to and from the possessions of Great Britain, in British ships, and to secure other important advantages for British commerce. The design of those navigation laws cannot be better shown than in the language of Mr. Huskisson, who was foremost in his efforts in behalf of the commercial interests of his country. In a speech delivered in the house of commons on the 12th of May, 1826, that minister remarked—"Our navigation laws have a two-fold object: first, to create and maintain in this country a great commercial marine; and, secondly, (an object not less important in the eyes of statesmen,) to prevent any one other nation from engrossing too large a portion of the navigation of the rest of the world. It is the broad principle upon which the navigation system of this country was founded; and it is obvious that the motives for adopting that system were, first, that such portion of the carrying trade of foreign countries as does not devolve to British shipping, should be divided as equally as possible amongst the other maritime states, and not engrossed by any one of them in particular; and, secondly, that countries entertaining relations of commerce with this country, and not possessing shipping of their own, should export their produce to England in British ships, only, instead of employing the vessels of any third power." The policy whose object was thus expressed, was the real cause of our own revolution; for the plans that were urged upon foreign states were also carried out against our trade, when we were colonies of Great Britain. In this avowed object of the British navigation laws, by one of the most distinguished ministers of the

British empire, we find the principles that have, down to the present period, marked the negotiations of that foreign power with this country.

The consequences of this navigation act of Great Britain, are obvious. In a speech delivered in the house of representatives, on the 14th of January, 1794, by James Madison, of Virginia, in support of his propositions for the promotion of the commerce of the United States, he remarked that, "to illustrate this observation, he referred to the navigation act of Great Britain; which, not being counterbalanced by any similar acts on the part of rival nations, had secured to Great Britain no less than eleven-twelfths of the shipping and seamen employed in her trade. It is stated that, in 1660, when the British act passed, the foreign tonnage was, to the British, as one to four; in 1700, less than one to six; in 1725, as one to nineteen; in 1750, as one to twelve; in 1774, nearly the same. At the commencement of the period, the tonnage was but ninety-five thousand two hundred and sixty-six tons; and, at the end of it, one million one hundred and thirty-six thousand one hundred and sixty-two."\* To counteract a policy attended with such results, required, on our part, extraordinary vigilance; but, with the exercise of our utmost watchfulness, we have not shielded ourselves from the inconveniences attending the exclusive policy to which we have alluded.

To this system of Great Britain, in its tenacious adherence to the spirit of the navigation act, we have opposed a policy of liberality and conciliation, particularly respecting the colonial trade with that country. The first measure of prominent importance, connected with the colonial trade, was the commercial treaty of November, 1794, negotiated by Mr. Jay. By this treaty, the right of Great Britain to levy countervailing duties was reserved; for our discriminating duties, inasmuch as they operated upon British navigation, were counteractive in the exclusion of our vessels from the British colonial ports, while the treaty secured the admission of our vessels to those ports.

As early as the 3d of December, 1816, President Madison, in his message to Congress, exhibits, in a condensed form, our relations with Great Britain. "The depressed state of our navigation," he remarks, "is to be ascribed, in a material degree, to its exclusion from the colonial ports of the nation most extensively connected with us in commerce, and from the indirect operation of that exclusion. Previous to the late convention at London, between the United States and Great Britain, the relative state of the navigation laws of the two countries, growing out of the treaty of 1794, had given to the British navigation a material advantage over the American, in the intercourse between the American ports and British ports in Europe. The convention of London equalized the laws of the two countries, relating to those ports; leaving the intercourse between our ports and the ports of the British colonies subject, as before, to the respective regulations of the parties. The British government, enforcing now regulations which prohibit a trade between its colonies and the United States in American vessels, whilst they permit a trade in British vessels, the American navigation loses accordingly; and the loss is augmented by the advantage which is given to the British competition over the American, in the navigation between our ports and British ports in Europe, by the circuitous voyages enjoyed by the one, and not enjoyed by the other."

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\* See Mr. Madison's Speech on our Commerce.

“The reasonableness of the rule of reciprocity, applied to one branch of the commercial intercourse, has been pressed, on our part, as equally applicable to both branches; but it is ascertained that the British cabinet declines all negotiations on the subject, with a disavowal, however, of any disposition to view in an unfriendly light whatever countervailing regulations the United States may oppose to the regulations of which they complain. The wisdom of the legislature will decide on the course which, under these circumstances, is prescribed, by a joint regard to the amicable relations between the two nations, and to the just interests of the United States.”

In a speech delivered by the Honorable Rufus King, in the senate of the United States, in 1818, on the American navigation act, he then stated that the amount of the annual exports from the United States to the English West India colonies was estimated at four millions of dollars.\* He remarked, moreover, that we imported annually upwards of six millions of gallons of West India rum, more than half of which came from the English colonies, besides seven millions of gallons of molasses; and, since every gallon of molasses yielded, by distillation, a gallon of rum, the rum imported, added to that distilled from molasses, probably was equal to twelve millions of gallons.

The commercial articles of Mr. Jay's treaty expired in the year 1803, and England passed a new act of parliament concerning the American navigation and trade. That act maintained the exclusion of American vessels from the intercourse between the United States and the English colonies, and confines the same to English vessels. Numerous overtures have been made, moreover, on our side, with a view to the placing of our intercourse with that country upon grounds of reciprocal advantage, but without success. In consequence of the depressed condition of our navigation and trade, and the embarrassment of the public finances, the general convention of 1787 was called, which resulted in the establishment of the constitution of the United States. Laws were immediately passed by the first Congress that was assembled under the new constitution, for the purpose of equalizing our navigation and trade with foreign nations; and a small discrimination in duties of impost and tonnage was at that time made. A number of resolutions on the subject of navigation and trade, having especial reference to the refusal of England to enter into an equal commercial treaty with us, and aiming to countervail her exclusive system, besides other resolutions bearing more directly upon the policy of England, were proposed; but those measures were superseded by the mission of Mr. Jay to England, on account of our dissatisfaction of their commercial system.

By the act of 1815, the commercial intercourse between the United States and the British possessions in Europe was established upon just and equal terms, and the United States desired to place its trade with the British American colonies upon the same footing. The government of Great Britain would not, however, consent to this arrangement; and the commerce between the two last-named countries was left in the same situation as before. Since that time, although it has been the wish, on the part of this country, and the avowed desire, on the part of Great Britain, to place our commercial relations upon a just and equal footing, no sub-

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\* Mr. King's Speech.

stantial measures have been passed to place it upon that ground. From that period, down to the year 1827, although repeated endeavors had been made to conclude a reciprocal intercourse, they had been altogether unavailing; and their respective acts had resulted in the almost entire suppression of the trade.

A brief review of the negotiations of the two governments upon the subject, may, perhaps, be of some value. In 1817, a proposition was submitted to our minister at London, by the secretary of state for foreign affairs, upon the subject of our trade with the British colonies, but this proposition was not accepted; and, in order to evade its terms, we resorted to countervailing measures. During the following year, (1818,) an act of Congress, concerning navigation, was passed; and it provided that our ports should be closed against British vessels coming from any British colony which was closed against vessels of the United States; and all British vessels sailing with cargoes from our ports were laid under bonds to land their cargoes in some port or place other than a colony closed against vessels of the United States. To this, followed the act of Congress of the 15th of May, 1820, by which the ports of the United States were, after a certain day, closed against British vessels coming or arriving by sea from any British colonial port in the West Indies or America; and bonds were also required from British vessels sailing from our ports, not to land their cargo in any British American colony.

In May, 1822, Congress authorized the president, on his being satisfied that the British colonial ports were opened to the vessels of the United States, to open our ports to British vessels, upon terms of reciprocal advantage. An act of parliament, of June of the same year, which the prior act anticipated, repealed several former acts, and opened certain colonial ports to American vessels, laden with certain articles of our own produce, upon specified conditions, and confining the intercourse to the direct trade between the United States and the colonies.\* On the passage of this act, the president, by proclamation, opened the ports of the United States to British vessels engaged in the colonial trade, subject to a like restriction, and upon terms that were deemed of reciprocal and equal advantage, and at the same time retaining our discriminating duties. The retaining these discriminating duties was, however, made the subject of complaint, on the part of that government; but this measure was defended by us, on the ground that it was only a fair equivalent for the protective duties imposed on American produce in all of the British colonial ports, and the export duties in some of them.

A more important act was passed by Congress, in March, 1823, which exercised an important bearing upon the trade of the two countries. At that period, we were in the possession of a valuable trade with the colonies, in virtue of the last acts of the two governments, to which allusion has been made. The substance of this last act was the continuation of the suspension of the acts of 1818 and 1820, which had been effectuated before by the proclamation of the president, and opened our ports to a direct trade only with such of the British colonial ports as had been opened to us by the act of parliament of June, 1822; subject, at that time, to the payment, by British vessels, of our alien or discriminating duties. It

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\* See the letter of Honorable Martin Van Buren to Mr. M'Lane, on the subject of our trade with the British colonies, July 20th, 1829.

put forth a claim that no higher duties should be imposed upon the productions of the United States, in the British colonial ports, than upon those of Great Britain herself, or her other colonies, which had been levied for the protection of their own produce. It restricted the trade to those British vessels coming directly from the colonial ports, and touching at no other port after they had left the colony. It declared that its provisions should continue in force with the continuance of the privileges granted to our vessels by the act of parliament of June, 1822; and that, if at any time afterward trade was prohibited to us by Great Britain, its provisions should cease, and the acts of 1818 and 1820 should be revived.

Although various efforts were made to conclude this vexed question of our colonial trade, no satisfactory measures appear to have been adopted; and, on the 27th of July, 1826, the king, by an order in council, based upon the act of parliament of July, 1825, directed that the trade and intercourse between the United States and the greater part of the British colonial ports should cease from the coming December. On the refusal of the British government to enter into any new negotiations upon the subject, the president, by proclamation of the 17th of March, 1827, declared the acts of Congress of 1818 and 1820 revived, and our commerce with the British colonies, permitted by act of parliament of 1822, prohibited. In 1827, Mr. Gallatin was authorized to consult the government of Great Britain respecting the renewal of the colonial trade, by separate acts of legislation.\* All negotiation upon the matter was, however, declined by the British government; and this indisposition to enter into any arrangement continued down to the year 1829. By the arrangement negotiated by Mr. M'Lane, under the instructions of Mr. Van Buren, our relations with the British colonies are established upon their present basis through the act of Congress of 1830, which is now in force.†

We now propose to consider the practical effect of this arrangement upon our existing commerce with the British colonies in America. Our trade with those colonies is regulated by the act of Congress of the 29th of May, 1830; the president's proclamation, of October 5th, 1830, the British order in council, of November 5th, 1830, and succeeding orders, enlarging the number of warehousing and free ports. The trade is limited to the following places:—Jamaica: Kingston, Savanna la Mar, Montego bay, Santa Lucia, Antonio, Saint Ann, Falmouth, Maria, Morant bay, Annotto bay, Black river, Rio Bueno, Port Morant, Old Harbor; Grenada: Saint George; Dominica: Roseau; Antigua: Saint Johns; Trinidad: San Josef; Tobago: Scarborough; Tortola: Road Harbor; New Providence: Nassau; Crooked Island: Pittstown; Saint Vincent: Kingston; Bermuda: Port Saint George, Port Hamilton; Bahamas: Any port where there is a custom-house; Barbadoes: Bridgetown; New Brunswick: Miramichi, Saint Johns, Saint Andrews, Port of Magaguadavic, Welch Pool, in the island of Campo Bello; Anguilla: Anguilla; Nova Scotia: Halifax, Pictou, Digby, Arichat, Windsor, Parsborough, Cumberland, Shelburne, Lunenburg; Canada: Quebec; Newfoundland: Saint Johns, Harbor Grace; Demarara: Georgetown; Berbice: New Amsterdam;

\* See the letter of Honorable Henry Clay to Mr. Gallatin, upon the subject of the colonial trade, April 11th, 1827.

† For interesting views upon this subject, we would refer our readers to Mr. Cushing's Report, made during the last session of Congress.

Saint Lucia : Castries ; Saint Kitts : Basseterre ; Nevis : Charlestown ; Montserrat : Plymouth ; Cape Breton : Sydney ; Prince Edward's Island : Charlottetown, Georgetown.

By the act of 3d and 4th William IV., cap. 59, sec. 2, it is declared that no goods shall be imported into any of the above-named possessions, excepting "the free ports aforesaid;" and, if thus imported, these goods shall be forfeited. At those places, all vessels of the United States are admitted, on paying the same tonnage duties and charges as British vessels, provided their cargoes be the produce of the United States, and are imported directly from the United States. Whether laden, or in ballast, these vessels are permitted to clear out for any foreign country. The productions of the United States, (if similar articles from other foreign countries are not entirely prohibited,) are admitted on the payment of the same duties and charges as similar articles, the produce of any other foreign country, (when imported in American vessels,) subject to the same conditions (as to the character of the vessel and crew) as when imported into the British possessions of Europe. The importation of all articles from the United States, except those of their own growth, produce, or manufacture, is prohibited. The same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, are granted upon exportations, whether the goods be exported, or originally imported, in American or British vessels. In the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, vessels and boats of the United States are admitted by paying the same tonnage duties and charges as British vessels and boats in the ports of the United States.

The warehousing system was adopted in 1803, but it has been recently much extended by subsequent British acts, which took effect at a later period. Under this system, goods which are imported into places denominated "free ports," are allowed to be deposited in the public warehouses in the United Kingdom and the British colonial possessions, chargeable with rent and storage, without payment of duties on importation, until they are withdrawn for home consumption. If warehoused for re-exportation, no duties are paid, the charges for rent and storage, only, being exacted; for which charges, the merchandise is made liable—thus doing away the former system of drawbacks, and the immediate payment of duties upon importation. In order to secure to British vessels a larger share of the carriage of the United States to her own colonies, the following places are among those which have been created free warehousing ports:—Jamaica : Kingston, Montego bay, and Falmouth ; Saint Vincent : Kingston ; Nova Scotia : Halifax, Pictou, Liverpool,\* Yarmouth,\* Digby, and Arichat ; New Providence : Nassau ; Saint Kitts : Port of Basseterre ; Grenada : Port of Saint George ; Tortola : Port of Road Harbor ; Trinidad : San Josef ; Canada : Quebec, Kingston,\* and Montreal;\* Demarara : Georgetown ; Dominica : Roseau ; Newfoundland : Saint Johns, and Harbor Grace ; New Brunswick : Saint Johns, Saint Andrews, and Welch Pool, Campo Bello ; Bahamas : Grand Key, Turk's Island ; Barbadoes : Bridgetown ; Bermuda : Port Saint George ; Cape Breton : Sydney ; Nevis : Charlestown ; Island of Mauritius : Port Lewis ; Saint Lucia : Astries.

The advantages that are secured by this system to British commerce,

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\* For the warehousing of goods brought by land or inland navigation, as also those imported by sea.



are, that all goods admitted to warehouse, in either one of the colonies, may be conveyed thence, in British vessels exclusively, to other British colonies, at a lower rate of duty than similar goods imported in our own vessels to such colonies, direct from the United States.\*

It cannot be denied that the direct consequence of the law of 1830, and the proclamation of the president, that was issued in October of the same year, has been to place in British hands the great bulk of the colonial trade. By them, our own ports were opened to their commerce; we trusting to the passage of correspondent acts, in order to place us upon an equal and reciprocal footing. We can readily perceive how our own legislation was met on their side. No sooner had the proclamation of the president reached England, than an act was passed by the British parliament, permitting the articles of flour, wheat, corn, grain, rice, live stock, beef, pork, hams, or bacon, wood, and lumber, to be imported from the United States into the Canadas, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, free of duty, while they were subject to a high rate of duty if imported directly from the United States into the British West Indies. For example: the duty upon flour was \$1 33 per barrel, \$5 per barrel upon beef and pork, \$6 50 per thousand upon white-pine lumber, \$5 50 per thousand upon yellow-pine lumber, and that upon other specified articles in the same proportion. The design of that law cannot be more clearly stated than in the words of Mr. Herries, the president of the board of trade, in debate in parliament; namely—"to give encouragement to a supply of the West India islands by the North American colonies of Great Britain, instead of by the United States, or by any other country."

The course of the trade which this measure has opened to Great Britain, is easily traced. A very large amount of articles of our own produce are ordered to be shipped to the British provinces. These are sent in British vessels nominally, landed naturalized, and forwarded directly to the West Indies; and, inasmuch as there are a number of ports in the provinces, within two days' sail from Boston, where this can be done, it is almost equivalent to a direct voyage from our own ports to the West Indies. Flour, and other articles of our produce, are also transported in large quantities into the interior of Canada, across the lakes. There is another mode by which British shipping is favored. British vessels sometimes proceed to our southern ports, and either take in freights to Europe, or cargoes of yellow-pine lumber, return to the provinces, and naturalize the cargo, and carry it to England. A favorite voyage is also frequently undertaken, which is termed the triangular voyage. It appears that, formerly, the British vessels went to the colonies in ballast, or partially laden, where they remained a long time for the preparation of their cargoes, with which they returned to England. Now, they take full freights to the United States, thence freights to the West Indies, and thence full freights to England; or else they proceed with freights from England to the West Indies, whence, in a few days, they arrive at our southern ports, where they obtain full freights for Europe. Thus, in the direct freights to and from our own ports, the British vessels have a decided advantage over us. So great are the advantages possessed by British vessels in our trade, that our own citizens are, to a considerable extent, part owners of

\* For the facts connected with the warehousing system, we are indebted to the Report of the Secretary of State (Mr. Webster) on the commerce of the United States.

British ships. The result is, if we look at our northern ports, we find that British ships constitute a no inconsiderable part of the tonnage; while it was stated, on March 3d, 1842, that half of the vessels in the port of Charleston were, at that time, British. In Savannah, three-fourths of the whole freighting fleet were of the same nation. In Mobile, more than half were British, and in New Orleans about one-fourth; all of which are enabled to undercarry our own vessels. It was the opinion of intelligent merchants at the south, moreover, that at least one-half of all the cotton exported from the United States, in 1842, would be shipped in British vessels. Besides, our own vessels are excluded from the plaster-quarries of Nova Scotia; and the extent of the British trade at the north may be judged from the fact that, during one year, five hundred and eighty-seven British schooners entered the port of Boston.\*

It is alleged, moreover, that the productions of the British provinces, to a large amount, such as wood, potatoes, and other like articles, are imported into the United States, to the manifest injury of our own people; and that, in the same mode, the product of the British fisheries, taken along the coast in the British provinces, under various circumstances of advantage to British fishing-vessels, from which American vessels are excluded, are imported by them into the United States, to the great prejudice of the fisheries of our own country.

It is by such a policy that the enormous increase of British tonnage, in the ports of the United States, has been produced, since the passage of the act of Congress of 1830, as well as the increase of British trade between our own ports and the British colonies, and the diminution of our own. Independent of any legislation upon the subject, it is clear that the cost of building and sailing of vessels in the British provinces is less than it is in the United States; and this fact, of course, gives to British trade to those ports an additional advantage. Moreover, the principal line of mail-steamers between Great Britain and the United States is comprised of British vessels, which come by the way of Halifax, enjoying the advantage of the circuitous voyage, from which the vessels of the United States are excluded; earning a freight upon the transportation of their mails and passengers from England to the British provinces, and conveying mails and passengers to the United States, while an American steamer could only make the direct voyage between the United States and Great Britain.

We have traced the prominent facts connected with our commercial relations with the British colonial possessions of America; and we can scarcely evade the conviction that they are, as at present existing, unequal, and burdensome to our own commerce, and to the interests of the United States. In our negotiations with foreign nations, we stand upon equal and independent ground. We know no reason why we should yield to Great Britain greater advantages in commercial arrangements than that empire yields to us. If it is ascertained that we are excluded from a profitable trade with those colonies, our negotiations, it would appear, should be examined and amended. The true doctrine upon the subject would seem to be embraced in the remark of Mr. Madison, in the first Congress, in 1789, that he would meet interdict with interdict, "until we should be allowed to carry to the West India islands, in our own vessels, the produce of America, which necessity compels them to take." Nor

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\* See Memorial to Congress from Bangor, Maine, March 28, 1842.

should the language of President Washington, conveyed during the same year, in his instructions to Mr. Morris, be lost upon us, even in our present commercial negotiations. In those instructions, he says—"Let it be strongly impressed upon your mind that the privilege of carrying our own productions, in our own vessels, to their own islands, and bringing in return the productions of these islands to our own ports and market, is regarded here of the highest importance; and you will be careful not to countenance any idea of our dispensing with it in a treaty."

ART. IV.—OBSERVATIONS ON COTTON.

THE production of cotton in the United States, in the year 1839, was short of the preceding crop by 32 per cent, which was followed by an augmented yield of 60 per cent the succeeding year. A continued liability to similar fluctuations places in uncertainty all speculations upon the future productions of the country, particularly if based upon the result of a single crop; but, by taking the average for a series of years, in connection with other known facts, the increasing capacity of the country, both to produce and consume, may be estimated, with the probability of approximate accuracy.

By a report of the secretary of the treasury to Congress, compiled from the returns of the weight and value of cotton cleared at all the custom-houses of the United States, the average price of cotton, in the year 1790, was 14½ cents per lb.; and from the year—

1791 to 1800, av. price was 33 cts.; highest av. 44 cts. in 1799, lowest av. 23 cts. in 1793.  
 1801 to 1810, " 22 " " 44 " in 1801, " 16 " in 1810.  
 1801 to 1820, " 20½ " " 34 " in 1818, " 10½ " in 1812.  
 1821 to 1835, " 12¾ " " 21 " in 1825, " 9¼ " in 1831.

From this, it appears that, for thirty years, from 1790 to 1820, the price of cotton averaged 25 cents per lb.; and in the last fifteen years of the forty-five mentioned in the above table, the average price was less, by 20 cents per lb., than it was in the first ten years.

The cause of the great reduction in the value of this important staple is to be found, no doubt, in the augmentation of the quantity produced; the progressive increase of which, in this country, for the last twenty years, appears in the following table of the—

COTTON CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Bales.	Average for 5 years.		Av. inc. per annum.	
		Years.	Bales.	Bales.	Pr. ct.
1824,.....	509,158	.....	.....	.....	.....
1825,.....	567,748	.....	.....	.....	.....
1826,.....	716,290	1824 to 1828,.....	691,000	.....	.....
1827,.....	954,251	1825 to 1829,.....	762,000	71,000	10.27
1828,.....	709,422	1826 to 1830,.....	844,000	82,000	10.76
1829,.....	866,112	1827 to 1831,.....	909,000	65,000	7.70
1830,.....	976,845	1828 to 1832,.....	916,000	7,000	0.77
1831,.....	1,038,847	1829 to 1833,.....	988,000	72,000	7.86
1832,.....	987,477	1830 to 1834,.....	1,056,000	68,000	6.88
1833,.....	1,070,439	1831 to 1835,.....	1,111,000	55,000	5.21
1834,.....	1,205,394	1832 to 1836,.....	1,175,000	64,000	5.76
1835,.....	1,254,328	1833 to 1837,.....	1,265,000	90,000	7.66
1836,.....	1,360,725	1834 to 1838,.....	1,409,000	144,000	11.30
1837,.....	1,422,930	1835 to 1839,.....	1,440,000	31,000	2.20

## COTTON CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Years.	Bales.	Average for 5 years.		Av. inc. per annum.	
		Years.	Bales.	Bales.	Pr. ct.
1838,.....	1,801,497	1836 to 1840,.....	1,625,000	175,000	12.15
1839,.....	1,360,532	1837 to 1841,.....	1,680,000	55,000	3.28
1840,.....	2,182,880	1838 to 1842,.....	1,732,000	52,000	3.27
1841,.....	1,634,945	1839 to 1843,.....	1,848,000	116,000	6.69
1842,.....	1,684,211	.....	.....	.....	.....
1843,.....	2,378,875	.....	.....	.....	.....
				15)101.86	

Average increase per annum, in the above series of years,..... 6.79

So long as the production of cotton shall prove as profitable as that of any other article, we may expect its increased cultivation will continue, until all the lands peculiarly adapted to its cultivation shall be put into requisition. As, however, the cost of producing an article by agriculture, when only one article is cultivated, depends upon many contingencies, it is impossible to fix the lowest price at which it can be profitably produced; but a planter who is out of debt, with a force that makes a crop of three hundred bales of cotton, can, it is said, at the present low prices of supplies, comfortably support his family, and put his cotton in packages ready for market, including cost of bagging and rope, at ten dollars per bale of four hundred pounds, which is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  cents per lb.; and, if he obtain a price that will nett 5 cents per lb., after deducting freights, commission, and other charges, it will give him a nett revenue of \$30,000; thereby yielding, over and above family expenses, an interest of 10 per cent per annum upon a capital of \$30,000, which is a greater sum in proportion, I believe, than has been obtained for any plantation recently sold. The re-establishment of confidence will tend greatly to enhance the value of land and labor; and, as a cotton planter has to buy a large portion of all that he consumes, any considerable upward fluctuation in the price of other commodities, will greatly add to the cost of his own crop. Nevertheless, the cost of producing cotton will probably seldom exceed the price obtainable; and its cultivation is likely to be steadily extended, until the means of extension are exhausted.

The average increase in the growth of cotton in the United States, for the last twenty years, appears to have been about 7 per cent per annum. Should the same ratio of increase be continued until the year 1850, the crop of the United States will then amount to three millions five hundred thousand bales; and, should this great quantity of cotton be produced, past experience warrants the belief that it will all be wanted; for, heretofore, at moderate prices, the consumption has not only kept pace with, but run ahead of the growth, until checked by the reduction of stocks, and the consequent advance of prices. But there is a limit to the extension of cultivation, and there is no longer a capacity in the United States, without a great diversion of labor from other pursuits, to increase the growth of cotton in the ratio of 7 per cent per annum. The average crop of the United States, for five years, from—

1836 to 1840, was.....	1,625,000 bales.		
1837 to 1841, ".....	1,680,000 "	Average increase,.....	3.38 per cent.
1838 to 1842, ".....	1,732,000 "	".....	3.28 "
1839 to 1843, ".....	1,848,000 "	".....	6.69 "

Making the average increase, in these eight years,..... 4.41 "

In this period, are included three very large crops, and only one very short crop; and it will probably be fairer to take the difference between the crops of 1843 and 1840, (the two fullest and largest crops ever made,) which difference is one hundred and ninety-six thousand bales. This shows an annual increase, in the last three years, of about 3 per cent; which may be assumed as the probable increase of the growth of cotton in this country for a series of years to come, provided no extraordinary occurrences interpose, to disturb the settled and steady progress of events.

The two largest crops ever made in North Alabama and Tennessee, were, in the year 1831, about one hundred and seventy-two thousand bales; and in the year 1843, about one hundred and ninety-one thousand bales—showing an increase, in twelve years, of only nineteen thousand bales; and the largest intermediate crop was one hundred and forty-nine thousand bales. In the Atlantic states, there has been no increase in the growth of cotton for six years. The largest crop ever made there, was the growth of 1837—about six hundred and fifty-two thousand bales. In these large portions of the cotton-growing region, it is not probable, therefore, that the crops already made will, for many years to come, be much exceeded; and they may be deemed to have nearly reached their maximum. In the ten years from 1830 to 1840, the population of Alabama increased 55 per cent; and the receipts of cotton, at Mobile alone, have already reached nearly half a million of bales. During the same period, the population of Mississippi increased 220 per cent; and a large portion of her most valuable lands are already under cultivation. There is no probability, therefore, that the future increase in the production of cotton, in these two states, will bear any proportion to the increase in the ten years last past. The largest further augmentation of the growth of cotton in the United States is, therefore, in a great measure, limited to the region of country west of the Mississippi river—to Arkansas, and the western part of Louisiana; and, as population increases in the high cotton-growing latitudes, where the crop is most precarious, it is probable that there will be a gradual diversion of labor from the cultivation of cotton to other objects, as has already been experienced in Virginia and North Carolina, where the crops have been reduced from one hundred and thirteen thousand bales, in the year 1827, to twenty-one thousand bales, in the year 1843.

In North Alabama and Tennessee, the uncertainty of the cotton crop is more than one-half—say, as four in ten. The crop of 1831 was one hundred and seventy-two thousand bales, and the crop of 1839 was sixty-nine thousand bales; and the people of that section of country will, as opportunity offers, gradually direct their attention to less doubtful products.

In view of the successful manufacture of cotton in the United States, which has more than trebled in the last sixteen years, and considering the constantly augmenting capital applicable to manufacturing purposes, this branch of manufacture seems more likely to progress in an accelerated than a diminished ratio. The increase of consumption has now apparently overtaken the increase of production; and, should the manufacture of cotton in this country, hereafter, increase in a ratio corresponding with the past, our surplus for foreign markets, without a greater increase of production than has of late been realized, can never exceed the greatest export already attained.

It is worthy of remark, that the stock of cotton on hand in Great Bri-

tain, at the close of the year 1820, was four hundred and fifteen thousand bales, being a supply for forty-three weeks' consumption; and the stock of cotton in the ports of Great Britain, at the close of each year, from 1818 to 1830, was an average supply for about thirty-two weeks' consumption—exceeding the stock (as compared with the consumption) on hand, at the close of the year 1842, by a supply for about seven weeks. Nevertheless, prices were maintained, during the whole of this period of thirteen years, much above the present quotations; and, subsequent to 1830, they ruled much higher.

S. T. C.



## ART. V.—THE CURRENCY.

THE writers on currency, or on the modification of the banking system, in the Merchants' Magazine, appear to agree in opinion with many of the members of the executive, legislative, and judicial departments of the government of the several states and of the United States, that it is proper, or to the public advantage, in some one way or another, that the quantity of currency should be increased beyond what *mere* industry could supply—very likely because it is easier to make currency, such as they think will answer, to be given in exchange for products of industry, than to make products of industry to be given in exchange for currency—or because, if the industrious be allowed to take their own way of giving and receiving an equivalent in value in making their exchanges of productions of labor, others would have to pursue the same course of industry, or be without money.

An observer of the effects of an increase of currency beyond what *mere* industry supplies to a community, disposed to satire or irony, might represent:—

That the world is divided into a spending class, who may be termed we, our and us; and a producing class, who may be termed they, theirs and them; and that the interests of each class are always in conflict with each other.

The spending class is the government in Europe, Asia and Africa, and it would be out of fashion for social relations to be organized differently in America. The object of government, as generally practised, is to wrest from producers their earnings, in order that others may be relieved from the inconvenience of producing for themselves. The producing classes in other nations are made to pay, feed and clothe large standing armies, who, in consideration, compel their supporters to pay over all their other earnings to dignitaries in politics and piety, and to the holders of the evidences of the spending classes' debts. Under the more enlightened system in the United States, these numerous hordes are kept to work, who would otherwise be idling away their time in standing armies; and the spending class accomplish, by financiering, what behind-the-age nations accomplish by force.

The producing class are governed by the spending class in these "free, independent and republican states of America," as well as elsewhere. In all the frequent changes of men and manners, occasioned by our currency system; in all the divisions and subdivisions among the parties who distinguish themselves as democrats and whigs, it may be noticed that our

financial machinery, of extracting the earnings of industry by raising and lowering values, is never disturbed. The producing classes, with being ignorant that money can rise and fall in value, attribute the constant fluctuations in the quantity of our paper in circulation to the rises and falls in the value of their produce, property, and means of living and of production; or rather, to chance, good or bad luck, or to the good or bad dispensations of Providence. So long as they continue in such delusion and superstition, it will be very easy to manage them, and apply their earnings to the use of the spending class.

The natural effect of our operations, in raising and lowering values, keeps the producing classes wide awake, or on the watch as to how their interests are to be effected, which prepares them for high political excitement. There is not much worth in a cat than its skin; and so we get the earnings of their labor, the producing classes may revel in their elections, and govern their carcasses as they please. By means of the newspapers in our interests, attending political meetings, making speeches in favor of heroes, statesmen, and industry; proposing flaming resolutions in favor of the people; with some of us siding with one, and others of us with another party, and with assuming that the residents of cities know more as to what is best for those of the country than they know themselves, it is easy to put agriculturists, who are the majority as a class, against each other, and set them at loggerheads about this man and that, or about this measure or some other. It is better for the spending class that the producing classes should vent their anger on each other for their losses than on the recipients of them. They may safely be trusted to revenge or amuse themselves in voting at the elections, so long as we make the nominations of a sufficient number of their candidates to answer our purposes. It is immaterial whether they prefer to vote a whig ticket or a democratic ticket, or which of them be elected, so long as we have the ascendancy in the legislatures and judiciaries of the several states to uphold our currency system; or, in other words, so long as we govern the government.

The people's constitution will not admit of idlers wresting from the industrious their earnings by force; donkey might kick up, if that course should be tried; but the producing classes generally appear to be content with being cheated out of their earnings by our financial machinery. It only can be accounted for on the supposition that they may think they are getting some profit by it, or getting part of the spoils. As an instance, they are willing to have their future earnings pledged, and their children's livings and estates saddled with loans for the spending classes' use, under the hope of getting part of the money indirectly through a higher price for their produce. They never dream that the only effect of others filling the channels of circulation with money is, to proportionately raise the prices of everything they have to buy, with adding little or nothing to the value of their exportable productions, as they are governed in their value at home by their value abroad. As an indemnification for their assumption of loans to others, they are left *minus* the whole amount, as there is nobody to earn anything to pay principal and interest but themselves, and *minus* still more in the high price paid for their supplies, without having had their means increased to pay with. The producing classes know, also, that their constitution prohibits others to cheat them, or they to cheat themselves in the use of "bills of credit" or currency notes. But we tell them, and they are fools enough to believe it, that the printing of the word

"dollars" on bits of paper, and giving them in exchange for their productions, at what the productions are worth in other nations, greatly adds to the wealth of the country and to the *price* of their productions: not a word is said, however, about the *price* of their supplies—nor is the quantity of labor and natural advantages in the one deducted from the other, to ascertain the surplus of advantages; or to ascertain if they are not finding the money to others with which to buy their productions. However, inasmuch as the producing classes sanction our financiering arrangements, we shall not dispute with them about it, but take it for granted that there is but one interest to be promoted in men associating together, and that is, the welfare of the spending class. The spending class could not well get along in a "free country" unless their paper be made equivalent in value to others' industry, and hence the necessity for more currency than industry supplies.

As a production of labor of an exchangeable value in other nations is a currency of itself, with which to procure money or other productions of labor, it is evident that, by the industrious exchanging their productions of labor for others' paper, and imagining it to be money, such imagination enables the spending class to exchange paper for productions of labor, and to exchange the productions of labor for their value in coin in other nations; whereby the spending class and producing class are both supplied with money. After the admission, by general consent, that the increased currency belonging to the spending class is right, they have only to make as much more for themselves as is paid out for productions of labor, to render it "a fair business transaction" in supplying both classes with money, in the exchange manner mentioned, as can be proved by rules in arithmetic, viz: If two sets of currencies proceed from one set of exports, then each set of currency is entitled to half the imports derived from such exports. Again, if one set of imports, derived from the exports, rises in value to amount to two sets of currencies, the producers of the exports get for their set of currency in value what they fail to get in quantity, by the rise of *price* of the imports, which settles the account with them, and leaves a surplus of half the quantity of imports for the use of the spending class at home or abroad. In this way everything goes along favorably, and when the producing classes have paid away our paper for high-priced imports, high duties or taxes, and have made their contributions for religious and charitable purposes, they have nothing else to do but to go to work again like good fellows, to earn, for the same purposes, more of our paper. In this round-about way of financiering with "bills of credit," or currency notes, the spending class in this republic do full as well as those in other nations, who take the more direct route by coercion. But it is no more, perhaps, than we are entitled to for our trouble in making artificial industry, or *money* institutions "to regulate the exchanges" for the producing classes and ourselves.

What may be said in favor of an increase of currency beyond what industry supplies, may be mentioned—

*First.* That this is a "free country of equal rights and no monopoly." The spending class allows the producing class to make money by their industry; and the producing class allows others to make money by engraved paper. Without mixing the paper of the spending class among the productions of labor of the producing class, to form what the president of the United States Bank, in 1828, termed "a mixed currency," the pro-



ducing classes would have a *monopoly* of the means of procuring from abroad coin, coffee, wines, silks, and other things, which are as useful to the idle as to the industrious. The reason given for the utility of this mixed currency was, that "it saves the expense of coin:" not that it saves any expense to the producing class, as all the expense to which their produce is liable is incurred previous to its being ready for sale, and all subsequent expense to which it is liable is deducted by the purchaser from its value; but it saves the expense of toil and trouble to the spending class of earning coin, or other things valuable, to be given in exchange for such produce.

*Second.* It saves labor to the spending class. There is no use of all being to work, when a part will answer; and unless the producing class should take paper for their productions of labor, the spending class would have to produce for themselves.

*Third.* Coin is hard to get by those who have no mental or physical commodity of an exchangeable value to be given in exchange for it; which makes it "hard money," and only suitable for those who are "behind the age," such as Cubans and Frenchmen.

*Fourth.* It creates a new employment for a fourth party to operate in between producers, distributors and consumers; and by keeping them busy, to counteract the effects of such interposition, makes "brisk times" for the country.

*Fifth.* It relieves many moneyless idlers from ennui, and "develops the resources of the country" in bringing out the talents of financiers and others, who would otherwise never be known. It employs them in changing their own and their securities' notes for currency notes; in changing currency notes for productions of labor; in changing productions of labor for property or imports; in changing imports for currency notes; and in changing currency notes back for their own notes. But with how much profit to producers who have to support another class in consequence, and the productions of whose labor is the object of all this machinery, it seems hard for producers to tell.

*Sixth.* Lenders supply the paper capital for a share of the profits, and borrowers make use of it in a species of privateering, or trading on the chances of rises and falls of the value of money, occasioned by the lenders being liberal or niggardly in the number of notes that they discount. Lenders, at suitable periods, by a dexterous movement in shoving out into circulation, and hauling in a plentiful supply of their paper, *swamp* the privateersmen and all other borrowers, and purchasers on credit, within their sphere, and pocket the stakes; which, by making some men very rich, is another evidence of paper "developing the resources of the country."

*Seventh.* It causes the imports to be increased in bulk when they are derived from loans, and more generally to be increased by substituting, on the invoices, value for quantity; which is deemed to be an extension of commerce. It enables two classes to consume imports where there would be but one. Without the use of our paper, the producing class, after procuring their own supplies, would bring back the balance of their exports in coin, and cause so much less freight for the shipping. Without paper, freights would be less, unless consumers would produce for themselves the means of getting them; and there is no dependence on all of them for that.

*Eighth.* It causes the exports to be of greater bulk, which is another evidence of the extension of commerce. It causes the producing classes to work harder to produce more, in order to make up in quantity what they fail to obtain in value to pay their expenses; or to make up what they lose by selling their produce at its value in a single currency in other nations, and buying supplies at their value in a double currency in their own nation.

*Ninth.* It preserves peace, as by our producing classes selling their productions to other nations in over-burdened quantities at low prices, and other nations selling to them at two currency prices, other nations realize the chief part of the profits or earnings of our producing classes' industry, which is all the use those nations have for us, and which leaves nine-tenths of our community in the very safe condition of having nothing to be plundered of, or means with which to plunder others, by war.

*Tenth.* It keeps the producing classes in their places, (traces,) according to general usage in all civilized nations. If they were allowed to supply only their own wants by their industry, they would have a large surplus, over and above a sufficient supply of consumable commodities, remaining to be converted into coin. They would then be for using it in employing teachers to educate their children; editors to supply them with newspapers; mechanics to build them good houses; cabinet-makers and upholsterers, mirror-makers and carpet-weavers, to furnish their rooms; which would be as so much money wasted, as regards the spending class. Besides, look at its pernicious effect in disturbing the distinctions in rank. Our patroness Sloth would be cast aside; the goddess Industry would preside, and dispense all favors to her own votaries. The industrious, by having the only road to honor and emolument, might rise to be the superior class, and the idle descend to be the inferior class. The producing class would soon be able to employ more of their time to the improvement of their minds, and more of their labor to the improvement of their premises, to the neglect of producing for export. Others might fill the vacancy of producing for export, and when they could afford to cease from labor, they would give place to others, and so in perpetuity. But this would only be changing one set of producers for another, without benefit to the spending class. The whole business of acquisition would be confined to themselves. Necessitous gentlemen of leisure would be thrown out of employment of getting their livings by their wits, and many of superior financial merits would be excluded from participating in the benefits of commerce and of Christian association, common to Christian communities.

Notwithstanding all the plausible arguments that have been used by increase of currency writers, newspaper editors, speech makers, and constitution deciders, yet there are numerous obstinate persons who do not believe that an increase of currency is beneficial to the public. This discordance of opinion may be accounted for from the fact that they differ as to who is the public. Some claim that appellation for the spending class, and others for the producing class. Many, who are deemed to be very sensible men, argue in favor of what they imagine would be conducive to their own interests, or favorite views, and appear not to notice the consequences of them to the community. For instance, the whole force of the arguments of many, who advocate unrestricted usury, may be summed up in this: that money holders might make 15 or 20 per cent

by lending, and those without money might make by "regular business transactions" 15 or 20 per cent by borrowing; and that they have as much right to hire out money as to hire out a house or a horse, according to the current rate, and should not be restricted. Such abstract reasoners never appear to think that others have rights, nor that any person has a right to deprive others of their rights. They are willing to admit that their and others' property ought to be protected by common consent, and by law. They cannot but know that a community could not exist should the individuals of it cease production, and all turn to the business, so highly commended, of making per cents by lending and borrowing. The question for them to answer is, out of whom are these per cents to be made? If they could be made out of the wind or moonshine, to the detriment of no person, then such per cent making would be adding to the general wealth. Money is nothing more nor less than a product of industry, of an exchangeable value; and there is no such thing as adding to the general wealth by making per cents, except with additional products of labor or industry. If these per cents are to be made out of others' industry, by forestalling producers in the purchase of their supplies, or in the sale of their productions, or in reducing the value of producers' labor or money, with others filling the channels of circulation to the exclusion of theirs, except at a ruinous disadvantage, then such per cent making is an enormous public injury, inasmuch as it tends to discourage and destroy production.

In the hire of houses, arable land, ships, mills, factories, shops, machines, implements, or other things useful in production, the community may be benefited by an increase of production. They are not exchangeable values for foreign consumable commodities, but they are in due time returned to the owner, and kept in the country as so much accumulated wealth. If money be lent out, it cannot be used without being exchanged for something else; nor be used without lowering the value of itself, and the value of labor and all other money in the community, and raising the value of imported consumable commodities, or other thing in which said borrowed money may be invested. The general loss to the community may amount to many times the amount of such lent money; so that the community better support the borrowers in charity, rather than they should borrow industry, wherewith to destroy industry in others. The effect of usury is not only to destroy production in lenders and borrowers, but also in the community generally. It augments the quantity of money in circulation; and, as a consequence, reduces the value of the quantity needed as a medium for exchanges of productions of labor, which causes the surplus earnings of the country, saved in coin, to pass out of it at a low value, in exchange for foreign consumable commodities, at a high value. It causes the annual productions of exports to be insufficient to pay for the annual consumption of imports, which prevents an acquisition of surpluses, and a return of coin with which borrowers may repay lenders. The producing classes fall in debt in their business; and, in time, cease production. From the small beginning of a few usurers, frauds, vices, and corruptions, are engendered, and spread like a pestilence, in time, from one to another, till the whole community becomes infected; when, in poverty, want, and degradation, usurers and their prey, through their descendants, all go to *pot*, or to some worse place, together—matters which increase-of-currency and unlimited-usury advocates never appear to think of.

They who object to an increase of currency otherwise than by an increase of industry, make their money by industry; and they say that increase-of-currency philosophers, charter granters, and constitutional "bills-of-credit" deciders attempt to show that they can make more of a thing than there is substance to make it of; or can supply the public with more of the productions of others' labor, in exchange for its own; or with more money for the sales of its productions abroad, than the sales themselves amount to. But, in all the display of these currency luminaries in making artificial industry, they come to the *sage* conclusion that it cannot be done except by inducing the producing classes to receive bits of paper in lieu of an equivalent in value for their productions; and that this is the great discovery, which we so often hear bragged of; that places us a hundred years ahead of "behind-the-age nations," whose thick heads, it is supposed, prevents them from making a like discovery.

They who make their money by industry, cannot understand how the making, on paper, three representations of the productive labor contained in a silver dollar, can add to the general wealth, for which incorporated paper-currency makers are quartered on the public, more than the making of three representations on paper of the necessary diet for the community, for one month, can make the representations answer the purpose of the reality for three months.

Productions of labor, of an unchangeable value, will sell or exchange for their value in coin, or other productions of labor of an equal value, in any country in which they may be sold. Other nations find their own money, or means with which to make their own purchases, of another nation; and do not require, as a condition of making such purchase, such other nation to supply them with both the productions of its labor, and the money to buy them with. Productions of industry produce their own medium of exchanging them for other productions of industry—then why the necessity of artificial currency makers in a community? Why the absurdity of an industrious community establishing an unproductive class of currency makers and borrowers, and both to be supported out of the labors of the industrious?

Money, labor, currency, and value, are all of the same meaning. The industrious, or producing class of one nation, and of several nations, contribute their labor, which is money and value, to produce and prepare each other's productions, to be exchanged for the productions of each other. Exports and imports consist of the joint productions of several, in agriculture, mining, mechanics, manufacturing, navigation, and other useful employments. These joint producers can, with much advantage, transact their exporting and importing business through the agency of others; who, instead of producing, may employ their services and means in distributing. It is economy to employ such agency, as one can make exchanges for a thousand; and a very small compensation from each would remunerate a distribution merchant as much as if he and his means were engaged in producing. Producers might receive, in lieu of an equivalent in value for their productions, vouchers, notes, tokens, or certificates, till the return of imports of coin, and of consumable commodities, to the amount of them. In the mean time, such evidences of the value of the exports might be transferred to the various laborers, mechanics, manufacturers, navigators, and others, who contributed their labor to such exports, as their vouchers by which to receive their equitable proportion

of imports ; or, in other words, these evidences might be used as a "cheap currency." This arrangement, however plausible it may appear, might prove very disastrous, should these evidences be increased in quantity by the makers of them, or by others.

In the matter of exchanging the productions natural to one latitude and longitude for those of other latitudes and longitudes, by which the industry of each latitude and longitude may have the productions of every latitude and longitude, the people of one latitude, by using no other material for a currency than that which requires as much labor to produce it as is required to produce that for which it may be given in exchange, may become immensely enriched. The people of one or more of other latitudes, by using vouchers, tokens, or other cheap currency, which is easier to be made than that for which it may be exchanged, even with more industry, more products of labor, more natural advantages, more frugality, may become exhausted, impoverished, and degraded, and eventually annihilated (except as serfs) as a community of nations.

The course of nature, in the exchanges of productions of industry, is constantly obstructed and perverted by the artifice or power of those who are the consumers, and not producers, of the earnings of industry. Various measures are vainly resorted to, by which to counteract the effects of such perversion and obstruction, which generally makes the matter worse for the community. Currency derived from productions of industry is one, and currency derived from discounts or loans is another ; and two sets of currencies can no more be put into one set of productions of labor, than two quarts of water can be put in a one-quart bottle. The laws of nature render it impossible ; and it is out of the power of legislative lawyers, or constitutional "bills-of-credit" deciders, to counteract nature, or to circumvent the Creator. To adapt them to each other, industry must either be increased double in quantity, or existing industry must be diminished one-half in value. The bottle must be increased double in capacity, or from a bottle of water half the contents must be ejected, to give place to half the unenclosed intruder, in order to proportion the waste between them. The industrious or producing classes in the United States have always been subjected to this adjustment between their own and some other person's currency.

Producers from the soil, forests, mines, fisheries, mechanics, manufacturing, and navigation, and the various laborers connected with them in production, may deliver over their exportable productions of labor to their merchants, and receive vouchers, notes, tokens, or certificates, for such productions of labor, according to their value in other nations. Such value may be in proportion to producing flour at four dollars and a half per barrel ; and such exportable productions, and the tokens received in exchange for them, may amount to sixty millions of dollars. On the arrival of the imports derived from such exports, it is found, however, that the number of tokens or vouchers in circulation amount to ninety millions of dollars. The quantity of the one must be adapted to the other. In proportion to the quantity of tokens or vouchers in circulation, and the quantity of imports received, a distribution must be made ; or, rather, they proportion themselves to each other. In the adjustment, or in quantity and value proportioning themselves to each other, according to natural laws, which cannot be obviated, producers, and those to whom they transferred the tokens or vouchers as a currency, with much credulity attribu-

ting it to more "prosperous times," a "revival of trade," "*money* more plenty," or "*rise of prices*," receive only two-thirds of the quantity of imports that they are entitled to; and the holders of the other third of the tokens or vouchers in circulation, take the other third of the imports. Now arises the question, whence came this extraneous supply of thirty millions of tokens or vouchers in circulation? Who emitted these "bills of credit," or false tokens? Who were the forgers or counterfeiters of distributors' certificates or vouchers to producers? Who were the circulators of this fraudulent currency? Who are the participants or recipients of this gross robbery of the producing classes? The answer is, that members of the legislature, who act in direct violation of the constitution, (which prohibits "bills of credit,") and under and within the prescribed limits of which they swear to act, have granted to themselves and others, and to their foreign and other assigns, permission, by acts of incorporation, to loan out at usury counterfeit distributors' tokens to producers; and that among the borrowers of them are prodigals, speculators, forestallers, and office-seekers. There is no way by which these false tokens can be used as a currency without having the effect of swindling producers, and those to whom they transfer the genuine tokens, out of part of their earnings. The result of the thirty millions of increase of currency is, that producers, or other holders of the legitimate vouchers or tokens, who receive them at a rate of labor-value of four dollars and a half for flour, only realize them at the rate of three dollars per barrel for flour, and sustain a loss of one-third, or twenty millions of dollars. The borrowers of false tokens, having given their endorsed notes to legalized usurers for thirty millions of dollars, only realize twenty millions' value of imports, and sustain a loss of ten millions of dollars; and foreign manufacturing capitalists, and other owners or producers of the imports, realize one-half, or thirty millions of dollars, more, for the quantity of imports mentioned, than they were worth; or more than they possibly otherwise could have realized, in the absence of this industry-defrauding and debt-incurring currency.

In this way, our commerce frequently amounts to the proportions of sixty millions of exports, and ninety millions of imports; which the interested and ignorant attribute "to the catching of seals by our south sea traders, selling their skins abroad, and bringing back goods," or "to the earnings of freight," or "to the profits of trade." In this way, the producing classes of the United States are made to pay tribute twenty or thirty millions annually, to keep up foreign armies and navies, and a continuance of aggression. Is it any wonder, then, that there is no surplus earnings in coin among the producing classes of our country, while there are six hundred millions among those in France, who use no other than a specie currency? Is it any wonder that we have to go in debt to raise twenty millions of revenue, while France, with only double our population, with not half of our resources, but with a value-preserved currency, raises two hundred and sixty millions of dollars revenue? Is it any wonder that the debts incurred by false token-borrowers should become immense in amount? Is it any wonder that there has been disastrous reactions of what is repugnant to nature, and that immense pecuniary losses should periodically mark our course? Is it any wonder that, with the establishment of legalized fraudulent-currency institutions in a community, both representatives and represented should become corrupt; and that contempt for rulers, who are incapable of bringing about equity and

stability in the business affairs of the country, should extensively prevail? The natural common-sense course for producers and distributors to take, is to unite in sending those men only to the legislature who will adhere to their oaths in sustaining the constitution, as well in regard to the "emission of bills of credit," as to any other part of it. The people should abolish the "banking system," and try the effect of keeping in the country twenty to thirty millions annually of actual produce, which they have heretofore been defrauded of by such "system." They should ascertain, by actual trial of it for a sufficient time, whether that sum annually, being diffused among all useful classes, will not be more serviceable to the community than the jack-o'-lantern chase in endeavoring to grasp the phantom of wealth in false tokens, or in the shadows or resemblances of their own labors, while foreign nations acquire the reality.

There is no difference in their destructive effects on the producing classes, or in bringing about ruin to a community, whether the circulating currency be increased, and be made redundant by the acquisitions of plunder; by the lending of money at interest; by the division of surplus revenue; by the distribution of the sales of public lands; by the issue of treasury-notes, to administer the government on credit; by discounting, or bill-of-exchange buying; by two, three, or a dozen representatives of one metallic constituent; by a lavish expenditure by government; by foreign or domestic loans for public purposes; or for any other purpose, or in any other way—because such redundancy adds nothing to the value of exports, and raises the value of imports. Producers acquire their money, or means of buying imports, by their industry, and no other money can be used in their community without coming in conflict with theirs, and lessening the value of both. Producers, by such excess of currency, are unavoidably compelled to buy their supplies, and pay the expenses of production at a high rate, while they always have to sell their exportable productions at a fair rate, or according to the demand and supply in other nations. The difference between selling at one rate, or according to the quantity of circulating currency, wages of labor, and value of commodities abroad; and buying at another rate, or according to a multiplied currency at home, has made, between the values of exports and imports, ten, twenty, thirty, forty, fifty and more millions of dollars a year; or six or seven hundred millions of dollars loss to the producing classes within the past thirty years, for the benefit of foreign nations; besides the support of a host, and aggrandizement of a few, domestic lenders and borrowers. The people of the United States incurred all the disasters of a seven years' war in defence of the principle of not paying tribute, as colonists, to foreign dominion by compulsion; and then tamely submitted to pay the tribute itself, to the amount of many millions annually, through the agency of foreign and domestic "bills-of-credit" usurers.

The borrowing of money, or the issuing of treasury-notes for the support of government, is wrong, on the principle of public currency, as it is better for producers, who directly and indirectly have to bear the whole burthen, that their annual productions should be used, rather than representations of them, with which to pay their public agents, as the two quantities in circulation reduces the value of both; and with adding nothing to what producers sell to, the two circulations raise the value of what both producers and agents buy from, foreign nations. If, by bad measures of Congress or state legislatures, the means of producers have

become insufficient to pay a superfluous number of representatives, and the superfluous number of offices, salaries, and expenditures of their creating, then the common-sense remedy is, to abolish the superfluities, and not pledge the future earnings of producers for present means to continue superfluous expenditures. What prospect is there so propitious in the future that it should be prematurely exhausted? It may have enough to do in sustaining itself, without being chargeable with both the then and the present expenditure. If we cannot get along now, after so many past years of superabundance of *money*, such as it was, that our legislatures and Congress employed men, or *charters*, as they call it, to make for us with which to pay single expenses, we will not be able, with double the number of such *chartered* artificial-industry makers, to pay double expenses in the future. Members of Congress and legislatures are nothing more than hirelings of their employers, and so long as hirelings be privileged to issue stocks and treasury-notes, to be paid by their employers, and with which liberally to pay themselves, and the services of relatives and electing agents, the efforts of producers to suppress legalized plunder of their earnings will be powerless. Put this power of borrowing, on account of their employers, out of their control, hirelings will then have to put up with the means their employers have to pay with; and as the dividend would be too small for so great a number, they would likely endeavor to make it larger by lessening their number, while their employers' estates would be saved from enthrallments. The constitution allows money to be borrowed with which to repel invasion, to prevent famine, or under any other similar circumstances of danger of destruction or annihilation of the community; but not under pretences of public utility, when the real object may be to pay for imports, or otherwise relieve paper-currency makers from the necessity of redeeming their debts to the community which they are receiving interest on from individual borrowers of them; or to promote, or prevent disasters to, private speculation on the mass of the community, or to reduce the value of producers' money or earnings, that others may get them in exchange for something of less value; or to pay unnecessary sums to an unnecessary number of office-holders, and other recipients of the earnings of the industrious.

Efficient and practical merchants can have a knowledge of the sources of production and consumption, or of the abundance or deficiency of productions of industry of one country to be exchanged for those of other countries; and, in the natural order of affairs, according to the quantity of each, is the relative value between them. But, with an artificial power acting in secret, by which to change the value of the medium of making exchanges of productions of industry, all estimates founded on natural causes and effects avail nothing, as the most skilful merchant cannot tell what relative value one thing will rule with another, when the quantity of medium or currency is liable to be changed. Hence, the affairs of commerce are made games of chance to all except those who expand and contract the currency. There is no difference, in its ruinous effects to both producers and distributors, whether men be employed or *chartered* to change the measure of quantity at their will, so as to make a thousand bushels of wheat measure five hundred bushels when these men buy, and fifteen hundred bushels when they sell; with keeping the currency at a permanent value by a permanent number of dollars, than to employ or charter them to change the quantity of currency at their will, so as that



the relative quantity of currency to the relative quantity of wheat will make the latter worth fifty cents per bushel when these men buy, and by augmenting the quantity of currency proportionately so as to make the same wheat worth one dollar and fifty cents when they sell; and in the meantime the measure of quantity be kept at a permanent number of cubic inches. Neither merchants nor producers can evade the destructive effects to their business, of others' reducing the value of the currency with paper fictions at home, by they making their purchases of supplies abroad, even if there were no duties on them; because foreign producers, manufacturers, and others, also watch for the rises and falls of the value of their productions in other nations, and only sell them at what they may be worth in the highest market of other nations, the same as we value our exports at home according to their value in other nations. Foreign manufacturing, banking and trading capitalists, who are stockholders in many of the paper-currency institutions in our sea-ports, through the agency of their proxy directors, and through their loans and paper emissions, can lower the value of our money and labor, and raise the value of hundreds of millions of dollars value of their productions and manufactures to be sold to us and all other nations, without adding a cent of value to our productions in their nation. This same false token, or false currency-making, is the most stupendous engine for fraud that was ever invented; and the most stupid people that ever existed ought never to have suffered it a moment.

It is only in a false condition of the affairs of a community, effected by fraud or power, that agriculture, commerce and manufactures should be inimical to each other; or that the quantity of labor applied to manufacture clothing, or to procure food, should exceed the quantity of labor received in exchange for them; or that the cost of production should exceed the value of the produce. Some, who use more of manufacturers labor than they give of their labor in return, supply to others more than they receive of their labor in return. Now, if a common medium of an equivalent in value to the labor of each be used, the manufacturer can procure of the latter the quantity of labor that he supplied to the former. But if, in the interim of receiving and using such medium, others make counterfeit representations of it, which claim a proportion of the labor for which the manufacturer holds the genuine medium, by which he only receives a half or three-fourths of the quantity of labor that he supplied to others of his labor, he may well cry out for "protection" against such foul injustice and gross oppression from counterfeit medium-makers. With "protection" against false medium-makers and the practice of usury, or, in other words, with preserving the currency at its labor value of producing it, manufacturing, through numerous natural and incidental advantages, could be carried on to better advantage in the United States than in any other nation. With a suppression of redundant currency, both false and fair, the United States would soon export as large an amount of manufactures as agricultural productions, with the one requiring no more duties on imports than the other. As the people of the world would wear as many clothes as they do, whether the spinning-jennies or other machinery whirl round at one place or at another, it is immaterial to the producers of the materials of manufacture, whether each nation manufactures for its own use, or procures its supplies from others. Foreign rivals, in order to destroy manufacturing in other nations, aid in reducing the values of their

currencies by loans and false currency; a more effectual destroyer than any other, except arbitrary power of entire suppression.

Upon the application to agriculturists by manufacturing capitalists for gratuitous contributions of food, with hiring them to eat it, by paying them higher extra value for their manufactures than the food they buy of distant states amounts to, the latter should be told, if they are not already aware of it, that it is the reduction of the value of money that brings foreign goods here to compete with them, and to be exchanged for low-priced money; that by multiplying the quantity of legitimate currency by lending out at interest, either it, or paper representations of it, reduces the value of money; that their own legislatures license or charter paper fiction lenders; that they and others are stockholders in these false currency institutions; that their "operatives" deposit their earnings in *lending-saving* institutions, by which they get dividends on past earnings about five per cent, and by which they reduce their present and future earnings about fifteen to fifty per cent; that the one business of lending and reducing the value of their and others' money, destroys their other business of acquiring value-unimpaired money; and that their application for "protection," or to prohibit imports, or to make the interests of three millions of agriculturists subservient to a few hundred manufacturing capitalists, or rather to false currency-lenders, when stripped of its plausible exterior of supporting home industry, simply amounts to craving assistance or protection, to keep up their usurious paper-lending institutions: assistance to promote that which destroys the business of all the producing classes, professional men, salary-receivers and others, from whom aid is sought: assistance to promote that which keeps thousands of men in incessant toil, and struggling a lifetime, with much frugality, to make the productions of their labor to amount to expenses, artificially increased on them by a false currency.

In a republic, in which communities govern themselves, in which every man has a right to work, and to apply the productions of his own labors to his own purposes, free from restraint, molestation, diminution, or rapacity of other men, the government is the most simple and the most easily to be administered. Officials, either in a legislative, executive, or judicial capacity, can aid industry in no other way than to off coat, go to work and increase the quantity of useful productions. With materials for food, clothing and shelter being secured to a community, all else useful will in due time follow; as the same industry which produces the former will apply itself to the latter so soon as time and labor can be spared from the former for the purpose. If experience has shown that any existing law, custom, decision, or "precedent" be unjust to producers, or be repugnant to fostering the production of *materials* for food, clothing, residence and defence, then the common-sense remedy of a wrong is to abolish it, and let producers make their own "precedents" of letting each other alone in their several employments. All that the government has to do with the people in a republic is, to *prevent* idlers, litigious leeches, public loan negotiators, false currency-makers, usurers, thieves and other *varmints*, from disturbing or preying upon industry.

In order to prevent labor, money, or currency, which is the same thing, from being artificially reduced in value, the lending of representations of it must be suppressed; and the lending of the reality must be discouraged,

by reducing the rate of interest to so small an amount as to make it no object of profit to lend it.

In order to counteract the effects of state legislatures violating the constitution, in authorising men, and, in some cases, their own members and co-partners, to "emit bills of credit," counterfeit tokens, or a false currency, to get interest on, or to speculate upon, or for any other purpose, the general government may in vain endeavor to make up in quantity of compensation to the industrious what they lose by a deficiency of value of their labors in consequence of the "bills of credit" or currency notes. Distributing the proceeds of public lands with one hand, and levying duties to make up the same amount for revenue with the other, will make the matter worse. The effect of establishing a fiscal agent, exchequer, or any other note-discounting, or bill-of-exchange buying, or currency-multiplying machinery; of pledging the property and earnings of the industrious for loans of money, to be put in the machinery; of causing the producing classes to redeem the notes such machinery may issue, by giving their exportable productions to *discountees* in exchange for them; of making the producing classes pay high duties on imports, in order to preserve the *specie-basis*, and to withdraw the notes from their hands, and prevent a necessity for their redemption in a more valuable exportable commodity; of prohibiting imports, or issue public stocks under some pretence to pay for them, in order to prevent the producing classes using the notes they receive for their productions from being used to procure their supplies, except by giving two notes for supplies according to their rate of value at home, when they only receive one for their productions, according to their value abroad; of making twice the amount of government expenditure as is necessary in order to consume the high duties, will only be adding fuel, with a view to extinguish the flame; and all such delusions on one side, and rapacity on the other, will fail to indemnify producers and distributors for the losses they sustain from others making and using counterfeit representations of products of industry.

A great self-acting measure against numerous ills would be for agriculturists and others, through their representatives, to establish national depositories at convenient places, in order that money of individuals, societies, and government, could be safely deposited without recourse to the vaults of currency depreciators; and in order that individuals might be relieved from the necessity of lending money out, or buying something not wanted, or making their own vaults, for fear of loss by fire or robbery.

In order to make such depositories more useful to the public; in supplying a convenient national currency; in facilitating the exchanges of productions of industry in our immense and wide-spread internal trade; and in "the collection, safe-keeping, and disbursement of the public revenue;" the depositories could give drafts on each other, payable in re-drafts engraved for circulation, and in sums of five, ten, twenty, fifty, and one hundred dollars. For instance, if part of the money received from the customs in New York be wanted at the north-western frontier, the depository in New York would draw on the depository at St. Louis, from which the Indian or other agent would receive the small circulating drafts mentioned drawn on the money deposited for their redemption in the depository in New York. After passing through numerous hands in making

payments and purchases, a part of these small drafts would be collected in the hands of traders who might wish to make remittances to, or purchases at, New Orleans. The depository at St. Louis could receive them and give a draft on the depository at New Orleans for the like number or amount of circulating drafts, payable at the same depository as those were which had been withdrawn from circulation at St. Louis. After these substitute drafts be collected in the hands of those needing to transmit funds to New York, the depository in New Orleans would receive them, and give a draft on the depository in New York for a like number or amount of small drafts as those superseded; and as the small drafts in this case would be payable in New York, the money could be withdrawn and the transaction be closed.

The same transaction is equally applicable to all the exchanges of the productions of industry of the country. Instead of an exporter, importer, or manufacturer, in any of the northern states, directing his agent to draw on him for money with which to purchase agricultural productions in any of the southern or western states, he may deposit his money in the nearest depository to him, and procure a draft on the depository nearest to his agent, who would procure the circulating drafts mentioned, with which to make his purchases. Such circulating drafts would pass from factors to producers; from them to merchants, manufacturers, artisans, drovers; and from them to others; by which a truly sound national currency would be spread over the country.

From the large amount of internal trade, proceeding from the variety of productions and climates, the amount of exchanges that would be effected through these depositories, might be sufficient, with a premium on each large draft of a sum that would be required to pay the expense of transmission of coin, to defray the expenses of the depositories. If the premiums should amount to more, the rates should be reduced; and if less, then the deficiency should be made up from the sales of lands, or other revenue.

The circulating drafts, immaterial at what depository payable, could not be otherwise than current in all parts of the United States, as both the deposits would be made in the care of, and the evidences of them be issued by, the United States.

With the appointment of men noted for their probity, capacity to properly attend to their own business, free from financiering and speculating talents, and untainted with stockholding in false currency-making institutions, to manage the depositories, and they properly organized under a supervisory depository department of the government, with all the checks and restraints of the other departments, there could be no doubt of the safety to depositors. A few years ago, the treasury department had in its charge forty millions of surplus revenue, and thirty odd millions for current expenses, without delinquency. A depository department could be entrusted with a like sum, or more, with like success. There is much less danger of loss in depositing money in the care of the whole people of the United States, than with the general run of counterfeit token-lenders. The executive, legislative, treasury, or other departments of the government, need have no more access to the vaults of the depository department than individuals have; and that would be in making deposits, and withdrawing them, through the agency of superintendents. The supervisory department could require weekly accounts from all the depositories, and send

agents frequently, to compare representations with realities. The states could have the same power.

These depositories might sell any amount of exchange that might be applied for, but never buy any. They might collect notes, but never discount any. They might receive and deliver sealed packages without charge, but keep no running accounts with individuals. They could, without charge, exchange circulating drafts for coin, with much advantage to the community. They would never have a claim on them in circulation, without a previous deposit of coin to meet it. Every holder of a five dollar draft, and upwards, would have his money safely deposited. The producing classes would be relieved from the necessity of receiving a spurious currency of paper, and also from the necessity of weighing and assaying foreign and other coins, in order to receive them at their proper value, in exchange for property, or productions of industry. J. J. C.

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ART. VI.—COMMERCE AND COMMERCIAL CHARACTER.\*

THE Address delivered before the Mercantile Library Association, of the city of Boston, by Philip Hone, who has been long and extensively known as a successful and public spirited merchant of the city of New York, was peculiarly adapted to the occasion upon which it was pronounced. Mr. Hone has been active in furthering the interests of a similar institution in the city of his residence, and was one of its principal founders. His efforts have ever been conspicuous in advancing the objects of such associations elsewhere, and from no source, perhaps, could an address of such a character have more appropriately proceeded. It is natural and proper for one who has been so active and prominent a member of the mercantile body to elevate the standard of the mercantile character, which is one of the principal objects of this effort; and he has fortified his positions by marked examples of uprightness, beneficence, and public spirit, to be found in the prominent merchants of former times, and of our own age and country.

Without detracting from the patriotism of bodies of men in other occupations, who have exhibited equally noble traits, proportioned to their means, where sacrifices were to be made, the mercantile portion of the community have not been behind those men, in their liberality, probity, and patriotism. Our own country has furnished a Hancock and a Morris, as well as a Washington, an Adams, a Putnam, and a Franklin; and in those periods wherein large expenses were to be incurred, and extraordinary dangers to be encountered, the merchants have seldom been found unwilling to bestow their means as well as their personal services in the cause of justice and patriotism, or to grant liberal benefactions to institutions of charity, learning, and religion. Upon the subject of commerce and kindred topics, Mr. Hone uses the following language:—

“What subject more appropriate than commerce, can be offered by a citizen of New York, to the consideration of a Boston audience?”

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\* An Address delivered before the Mercantile Library Association, at the Odeon, in Boston, October 3, 1843. By PHILIP HONE, Honorary Member of the Association, and, up to the present moment, a warm friend and patron.

Both cities have risen, and prospered, and grown great, upon the foundations which were laid by commerce. Their charitable, scientific, and literary institutions have been, in most instances, founded and endowed by the munificence of merchants. The fine arts have found in them the most liberal patronage, and education acknowledges the beneficial influence of their labors and benefactions.

“The natural effect of commercial enterprise is to improve the understanding, by opening new fountains of knowledge, and to refine the social condition of man, by the mutual exchange of commodities of the mind, for the men that ‘go down to the sea in ships’ never fail to bring home with their return cargoes, and contribute to the common stock, treasures of information otherwise unattainable, and often more valuable than the gold of Ophir, or the spices of Arabia.

“When, at the close of the war of the revolution, the commerce of the United States sprang into existence, and she was free to make her path on the ocean wave; when the stripes and stars of independent America had fought themselves up to the mast-head, and the young eagle of the West had begun to plume her pinions for an unwonted flight, Boston and New York became competitors and rivals in the honorable career; competitors in enterprise, and rivals without hostility; then it was that the ‘Experiment,’ an Albany sloop of eighty or ninety tons burthen, made a safe and successful voyage to Canton and back, astonishing, by the temerity of the undertaking, the unbelieving natives, who, in the subsequent voyages in vessels of a much larger class, of my old friend, Captain Deane, the respectable commander, always saluted him with the title of ‘the one-mast captain.’ About the same time, ‘The Empress of China’ was fitted out for a similar voyage, from Boston; and however disposed we may have been at times to dispute the fact, it is better to acknowledge with a good grace, that Yankee enterprise got a little ahead of the worthy descendants of the Dutch burgomasters on that occasion, as it has on some of more recent occurrence; but the same laudable emulation has continued to characterize the two cities, and although from natural causes, more operative in the state of New York, her capital city has increased in size and population in a greater degree than that of Massachusetts, the latter may challenge for her merchants a comparison for patriotism, enterprise, and liberality, with the most distinguished of their New York brethren. Equally are they indebted to commerce for a large share of the prosperity which they have hitherto enjoyed, with equal magnanimity and unwavering integrity have their merchants sustained themselves under the embarrassments mainly occasioned by a wayward and fluctuating system of national legislation; and whenever the clouds which have overspread the land shall be dissipated, and the bright star of the republic again be in the ascendant, they will be the first to improve the happy omen, and prove themselves, as they ever have, the harbingers of better times. In expatiating upon the beneficial influence of mercantile character upon the other classes of society; the patriotic services, and the willing sacrifices and liberal benefactions which men engaged in trade and commerce have contributed since the days of the revolution to the present time, for the benefit of their fellow-citizens, I refrain from presenting a list of the names of those of that honored profession to whom New York is deeply indebted for so large a share of all she boasts; to whose munificence and public spirit she owes, in a great measure, the

distinction which she somewhat arrogantly assumes, of being styled the 'empire city.' Possessing an extensive influence in the community, and, until lately, the means of rendering that influence available, their benefactions have ever been the city's exchequer for all good works; and I should fail in my duty to the institution which I, in some wise, represent on this occasion, were I not to acknowledge the obligation which they have conferred upon it, in giving it a 'local habitation,' and assisting it to rise to its present elevation.

"But I am not forbidden, by similar motives of delicacy, from doing homage to the merchants of Massachusetts, many of whose names are inscribed on the records of the revolution, and all of whom have contributed by acts of patriotism, devotion to the public good, and adherence to sound principles, to ennoble the profession to which they belonged. And what name so fit to head the catalogue as that of JOHN HANCOCK? Methinks I see the dignified form of this unflinching patriot, surrounded by his illustrious compeers; an assemblage of heroes, firm and uncompromising as the barons of Runnimeade, affixing his name first on the magna charta of the new world; and pledging with them 'life, fortune, and sacred honor,' to the glorious cause of liberty and independence. And there is that noble autograph, in characters unlike the mincing chirography of the supple courtier, or the tremulous hand of the suppliant for favor or forgiveness; but bold, and strong as the traces of lightning on the riven rock; seeming to say proudly to all the world, here stands my name, the delegated representative of New England, and here *she* stands, armed in the panoply of truth and justice, with the shield of faith, and the breast-plate of righteousness; her lance formed of the tough oak from the forests of the rock of Plymouth, couched in rest to do battle against her oppressors, and ready to 'do or die' in the sacred cause. If that cause falls, I and my fortunes fall with it; if it succeeds, as with the blessing of God, and the union and patriotism of my countrymen, it cannot fail to do, succeeding ages will reverence the name of John Hancock, the merchant of Boston.

"In unfolding this interesting scroll of the time-honored names of departed worthies who have graced the mercantile character, the eye rests with satisfaction upon those of George Cabot, Thomas Cushing, Tristram Dalton, Benjamin Goodhue, Samuel A. Otis, (father of your distinguished citizen, Harrison Gray Otis, the ornament of private society now, as he formerly was of the bar and the forum,) Stephen Higginson, Jonathan Jackson, and James Lloyd, all of whom held conspicuous stations in the councils of the nation. You will recognize with pride those of John Coffin Jones, Richard Derby, Jun., Samuel Dexter, Oliver Wendell, Thomas Davis, and William Phillips, (father and son of that name,) prominent actors in their country's struggle for liberty and independence, and of Thomas Melville, one of the experimental philosophers of the day, who taught the ladies of Boston to make tea with cold water; of the brothers Amory, Samuel Elliott, John McLean, Thomas Russell, Francis C. Lowell, of whom thousands of Jennies and Billies 'continually do cry,' and of his son, John Lowell, equally eminent as a merchant during the short career he was permitted to run; of William Gray of Salem, and Israel Thordike of Beverly; and of that other house, the first adventurers to the south-west coast of America, one of whom, after manifold acts of munificence, affixed the seal to his patent as friend and patron of literature

and the arts, by his princely gift to your Athenæum, and the other who happily survives, whose character is embalmed in the glowing eulogium of his friend, the inspired orator of Bunker-hill, to the justness of which I trust I may be allowed to add my testimony, as the experience of an acquaintance of some years standing, and to unite in the fervent prayer, made on the occasion alluded to, that 'he may long remain, with unimpaired faculties, in the wide field of his usefulness.'

"All these, with the exception of the gentleman last named, are of that honored by-gone generation, the pleasant odor of whose good names marks the path of their sojourning, but we may not confine ourselves to these, but pay a passing tribute to living worth; to Peter C. Brooks and Robert G. Shaw, to the family of Lawrence, and that of Appleton, the Bryants and the Sturgises, to the Peabodies, the Silsbees, and the Phillippes of Salem, and others, whose well-earned thrift, collected in the reservoirs of care and carefulness,

"droppeth as the gentle rain of heaven  
Upon the place beneath.'

"In thus presenting to your view the claims upon your gratitude of the mercantile character, and placing before you, as an example for your imitation, such of your fellow-citizens as have chosen trade and commerce as the avenues to wealth and distinction, it is not my intention to derogate from the merits of other classes of your enlightened and intelligent community. In no state of our Union have the learned professions sent more worthy laborers into the field of patriotism and public spirit, and the agricultural and mechanical classes have not failed to furnish their full quota.

"The only view which I intend to take at this time, of commerce, a subject so multifarious in its aspects, and so prolific in its details, is its connection with the free institutions of government, the only soil in which it is raised and nurtured to perfection, and the reciprocity of interests which should bind them to each other. Commerce has never thriven under the retroaction of an arbitrary government, and even the bright gleam of commercial sunshine which flashed for a moment at the close of the fifteenth century, over Spain and Portugal, when under the auspices of the former, Columbus, the daring navigator, made in the great waters a path to the star which he descried, in the west, and the discovery of a new passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, placed the trident of commerce within the grasp of the latter, these important events in the commercial history of the world, serve only to confirm the theory which I have advanced. In vain the seed was planted and sprung up, the icy hand of despotism checked its growth, and the fierce rays of superstition scorched its branches; the genial dews of popular rights were not permitted to visit its roots, and it was denied the healthful culture of equal laws; and thus were the beneficent objects of divine goodness frustrated by the selfish inventions of man.

"The principle which it is my desire to establish as an axiom, namely, that commerce can flourish only under the influence of popular laws, is beautifully illustrated by Dr. Watson, in his history of Philip the second, where, in speaking of the causes of the commercial prosperity of the Netherlands in the sixteenth century, that accomplished historian discourses thus eloquently:



“The greatest advantages which nature affords for improvement in the arts of life may be rendered useless to the people who possess them, by an injudicious or tyrannical and oppressive exercise of the civil power; and universal experience proves, how vain it is to expect, that men will apply themselves with vigor to commercial pursuits when their persons are insecure, or when the fruits of their industry may be seized by the rapacious hand of a despotic prince. But happily for the inhabitants of the low countries, the sovereigns of the several provinces, (unable, perhaps, from the small extent of their dominions, to execute any plan of tyranny against the people,) were at a very early period induced to give their consent and sanction to the above-mentioned system of fundamental laws; by which, although their prerogative was abridged, yet their power and resources were greatly augmented, through that prosperity which their moderate government had enabled their subjects to attain.”

“The pages of early history prove that commerce thrives best under a republic, and that it was then, as it ever has been, the source of wealth and power to the government from which it derives protection and encouragement. This theory is well supported by the history of ancient Carthage. Originally a colony of Tyre, she imbibed from the mother country a better knowledge of the principles and practice of commerce, than was enjoyed by any other state. It became at once her peculiar pursuit and favorite occupation; it was fostered by the arm of civil power, and protected by the laws; men of all classes, the nobles as well as the meanest citizens, followed it as the most honorable, as it was the most profitable profession, and thus it was that by the reciprocal benefits of free government and commercial enterprise, this mighty republic sustained her power and preserved her institutions, during a period of seven hundred years, amidst the overthrow of nations, and the subjugation of empires; and by this she was enabled to carry on a war of forty years duration with the all-conquering Romans; a war doubtful at all times, and in which she carried terror and dismay even to the gates of Rome, and was only conquered when deprived by perfidy of the benefits of her commerce.

“The celebrated Hanseatic league, the powerful combination of the middle ages, owes its origin and successful continuance for so long a period to the liberal forms of government, and the lenient exercise of civil power, enjoyed by the several members of the confederacy. Originally entered into by the free cities of Lubeck and Hamburg, with the object of resisting the pirates who infested the Baltic, and to protect their vessels from the barbarous nations, who had very indistinct notions of ‘free trade and sailors’ rights,’ they soon derived such advantages from this union,’ as Gibbon informs us, ‘that other towns acceded to their confederacy, and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those vast countries, which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in the famous Hanseatic league, which became so formidable that its alliance was courted, and its enmity dreaded by the greatest monarchs.’

“I am not prepared to say that this mighty combination of aristocratical merchants was the best school in the world for the cultivation of liberty and equality, especially as understood at the present day, and there is abundant evidence that they were not by any means particular in the choice of customers; they bought and sold, alike with Christian, Jew,

and Infidel; they lent their money with equal freedom to the arbitrary Austrian emperor, and the enlightened Netherlanders, to assist him to rivet more firmly, and them to break asunder, the chains of despotism; and extended pecuniary assistance alike to the holy pontiff, and the stubborn reformer. The best security and the largest interest, there is reason to fear, preponderated over the desire to improve the civil condition of mankind, or extend the blessings of a reformed religion. But all this, if it be so, does not weaken the position I have assumed; the benefits of this great commercial league, whilst they were felt by the several confederated cities in the increase of wealth, the consciousness of power, and the diffusion of knowledge, spread far and wide over the civilized world, and the light then kindled on the altar of commerce, illuminated the dark places of superstition, though her priests may have been too much engaged in the pursuit of wealth, to assist in its dissemination. These were substantial benefits, and in my opinion, the causes which produced them could not have existed under an arbitrary form of government. The operations of trade must naturally tend to the diffusion of liberal opinions, albeit men will select their customers where they please, but the pure air of liberty is necessary to the existence of commerce as the favoring breeze which wafts the vessel to the 'haven where she would be,' and steady laws, administered upon settled principles, indispensable as the compass by which she is steered.

"If other examples are necessary to prove that 'where liberty dwells there is the country' of commerce, they may be found in the well regulated commercial systems of Holland, the brilliant achievements and extensive influence of the Venetian republic, and a new and better perception of the beauties of elegant literature and refined taste, which the nations imbibed from the Medician merchants of Florence. And in this category we may not omit to mention our good old mother across the waters, who, (less free in name, and form of government than some countries which have been enumerated, enjoys as large a share of the blessings of rational liberty,) owes much of her national prosperity to the wisdom and stability of her laws for the protection of commerce, and the security of the persons and property of those engaged in its pursuits.

"There is another view which presents itself of this subject, to illustrate the happy influence of free institutions of government upon the operations of commerce, and the mutual protection and support which they owe, and are bound to render to each other. As the calling of a merchant is honorable, and beneficial to the community, his views should be exalted, and his integrity above reproach; commercial character must always exercise an influence upon the mass of mankind, and contribute in a large degree to the formation of popular manners and dispositions. This character can only be created and sustained by the favorable estimation in which the individuals who compose the class are held by their fellow-citizens, and especially by those who are presumed, from their elevation to posts of honor and official trust, to give a tone to public opinion. That this character has, in our country, in former times, earned for its possessors, a rank, equal at least, to that of any other profession, the records of your own patriotic state, as well as those of others, afford abundant proofs; and in the present generation of merchants, the proportion has not fallen off; public improvement bears the impress of their liberality, and fair dealing is the characteristic of their vocation; but despotic power has ever been

opposed to the just elevation of this useful class of society, and jealous of its preponderance; and the commercial character necessarily pines and withers under its baneful influence. It is not assuming too much to say that the comparative estimate of commerce and commercial character formed by a people, may be considered as the index of their adherence to stable laws, and wise, liberal, and free government. The reason is obvious; commerce, as we have before remarked, prospers best under fixed rules of government, and the only changes it countenances, are such as conform to the spirit of improvement in its administration, and keep pace with the increasing knowledge of the age; following, rather than leading, in all such changes. A commercial circle in any country unfettered by bigotry or despotism, must necessarily be composed of the most intelligent, enterprising and quick-sighted portions of the community; none other can hold a distinguished station in such a circle. The man of commerce must know all that is passing at home or abroad, and no other profession is required to study so closely this branch of intelligence. Every action of government is first seen and felt by the commercial circle; they form, as it were, the out-post or piquet guard. The farmer, the manufacturer, the artisan, and the man of science and literature, and even the government itself, derive the earliest intelligence of distant events through the merchant.

“Now, in all truly liberal and free countries, such watchful guardians are allowed to hold an elevated position in the scale of estimate, and to enjoy an important share of individual and collective influence; but not so in countries less free, or under governments of a different character, they cannot afford to permit this influence, they could not exist beneath the light of practical intelligence such as this; hence, under all despotic forms of government, the object is to weaken the effect of commercial influence, and keep it as far as practicable in the back ground, so that its warning voice shall not be heard from the watch-towers of the nation, to disturb the action of its rulers. A government so constituted will naturally discourage an institution, which in its very nature is opposed to the existence of arbitrary power, and the perpetuation of error: and the most effectual means of attaining this object, is to lower its members in the eyes of the other classes of the community, by denying them privileges common to all others: no blame can attach to an arbitrary government for this, it is only part of a principle which unhappily exists in all parts of the world, a struggle for power, of the few over the many, which can only be corrected by the extension of liberal opinions, and the diffusion of intelligence among the people. If the autocrat of all the Russias, manages, with the aid of the privileged orders who surround his throne, to push back the Russian merchant, even to the denying him a participation in the festivities of the court, which is extended to all other classes, and thereby keeps him in a comparatively degraded position, little distinguished from that of the itinerant pedler, so much the better for the autocrat and his arbitrary edicts. The same invidious distinction was maintained even by Napoleon, the child of the revolution, nursed by democracy, and raised by popular favor: the faubourg St. Antoine could be easily managed at all times, but the stubborn spirit of the Bourse required to be kept in check by the hand of despotism. Political, as well as religious truth, has ever been most effectually assailed in the persons of its disciples, and the influence of the free principles of commerce can only be counteracted by the proscription of its followers.”

The remainder of Mr. Hone's address is occupied with strictures on the moral influence of the penny paper system, and he gives some just notices of the standard literature of the past and present time ; closing with a few remarks on the importance of cultivating the powers of elocution, as the most likely road to preferment in a country where none are born to official stations.

The anniversary poem, delivered before the Mercantile Library Association on the same occasion, is appended to Mr. Hone's address. The subject, "Culture," selected by Mr. Lunt, is happily illustrated in a poem as deeply imbued with sound philosophy, as it is replete with classic and poetic images.

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ART. VII.—TOBACCO AND SNUFF ADMINISTRATION OF FRANCE.

THE monopoly of these articles produces to the government about 44,000,000 francs ; the expenditure is about 23,000,000 francs ; 16,000,000 of which are for the purchases of home grown or colonial tobacco, which is purchased and prepared by the government, and sold to the public by appointed agents. A general director, one sub-director, eight chiefs of offices, and forty clerks and subordinates, compose the central administration, and the cost of these officials' is 150,000 francs. There are six general inspectors of the culture, at 6,000 or 7,000 francs each ; twenty-six mounted inspectors of brigades and sub-brigadiers, seventy mounted surveyors, thirty unmounted brigadiers, and one hundred unmounted surveyors. Altogether two hundred and thirty-two employes, salaries 300,000 francs. The warehouses where the home grown tobacco is deposited, are twenty in number. There are twenty store-keepers, twenty controllers, and about fifty clerks ; total, ninety officials, who cost 220,000 francs. There are ten tobacco and snuff manufactories, each of them with one *regisseur*, (manager,) one inspector of the manufacture, a controller and sub-controller of manufacture, one store-keeper, eight clerks of first or second class, an apprentice in fabrication, at 2,500 francs a year ! (all under the control of two general inspectors,) and about 1,200 laborers. Total for the manufacture, 1,342 officials, receiving 1,640,000 francs. As to the sale, there are thirty-five general entrepôts of manufactured tobacco and snuff, with thirty-five directors, twenty controllers of first and second class, one hundred and fifty officials of first and second class, and three hundred and forty subordinate employes ; altogether five hundred and five placemen, of whom the salaries amount to 440,000 francs. Then come the *debitants* (dealers) appointed by the government, and who are paid by a per centage on the amount of the sales. Their number is not limited, and, for the whole of France, it is not under five thousand five hundred ; so that the officials and dependents of the direction *des tabacs* amount to seven thousand seven hundred and ninety. Besides the active officials and dependents, there are about three hundred and eighty ex-employes, receiving an allowance or gratuity, not being entitled to a pension ; and about one thousand five hundred pensioners of the excise and tobacco administrations. The amount paid is 160,000 francs for the first, and about 800,000 francs for the others.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE money market presents very nearly the same appearances as for the last six months, viz: a low rate of interest, an accumulation of money in the great depositories, with a continued advance in almost all descriptions of property. The imports, which swelled considerably in amount during the third quarter of the old fiscal year, or the first quarter according to the new arrangement, by which the year takes date on the 1st of July, instead of October 1st, as before, have since fallen off very considerably. That increase of imports did not, however, produce any increased demand for bank facilities; and their decline has not, therefore, lessened the employment of money, in any great degree. The unemployed capital continues to accumulate, as evinced in the returns of the New York banks, to the 1st December, as compared with the former returns, as follows:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK—JANUARY, AUGUST AND NOVEMBER, 1843.

	January.	August.	November.
Loans and discounts,.....	.....	\$53,007,207	\$53,267,130
“ “ to directors, } “ “ to brokers, } Real estate,.....	\$52,348,467	4,155,775 1,430,099	4,537,536 3,709,463
Bonds and mortgages,..... } Stocks and promissory notes,..... } Due from directors other than loans, .....	3,568,725 12,446,083	4,063,595 3,644,870 12,330,987	4,081,636 3,772,037 11,665,311
“ brokers “ “ .....	.....	39,788	48,084
Bank fund,.....	770,372	212,219	810,160
Loss and expense,.....	948,738	527,756	389,392
Overdrafts,.....	87,328	554,613	639,238
Specie,.....	8,477,076	98,639	105,947
Cash items,.....	2,273,131	14,091,779	11,502,789
Bills of banks suspended,..... } Due from banks,.....	4,888,987 7,700,044	2,734,417 4,906,292 231,517	3,102,856 4,033,105 228,951
Add for cents,.....	.....	11,728,808	9,700,629
		.....	438
	\$93,508,951	\$113,759,871	\$111,614,722
<i>Liabilities.</i>			
Capital,.....	\$43,950,137	\$43,019,571	\$43,369,152
Profits,.....	4,129,699	4,011,923	4,164,254
Circulation, old issue,..... } “ registered,..... } Due the state,.....	12,031,871	7,912,680 6,608,663 531,762	5,227,930 11,985,171 963,198
Canal fund,.....	1,495,888	741,382	1,157,203
Depositors,.....	19,100,415	24,679,230	27,389,160
Individuals,.....	213,411	316,453	587,871
Banks,.....	12,072,679	21,340,748	14,642,143
Treasurer United States,.....	.....	4,033,385	1,645,320
Other items,.....	401,441	570,276	505,279
Total,.....	\$93,508,951	\$113,765,579	\$111,614,722

The regular loans of the banks, it appears, are but about \$260,000 in advance of those of August. The loans to the directors of the banks are larger. Those gentlemen are all of them of the most extensive merchants of the city; and, in a regular state of business, the demand for facilities would first come from such a quarter. The amount of business paper created is, however, in the aggregate, but small; so small that, during the next quarter, probably, greater difficulty will be found in investing the proceeds of paper, which matures within a circle of sixty days. This latter circumstance has been the cause of the increased amount loaned to brokers; who, for the most part, employ the means

thus obtained in stock operations, and have, in some degree, contributed to the rapid rise in all descriptions of public securities. The following is a table of present rates:—

## PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	Rate. Redeemable.	April, 1843.	October.	December 30.
United States,.....	5½ 1844	... a ...	101 a ...	... a 102
“ .....	6 1844	... a ...	102½ a 102½	102½ a 102½
“ .....	6 1862	112 a 113	114½ a 115½	115½ a 116
“ .....	5 1853	... a ...	103 a 103½	... a 104
New York,.....	7 1848-49	105 a 106	107 a 108	107½ a 108½
“ .....	6 1850-54-60	103 a 105	107 a 107½	107½ a 108
“ .....	6 1861-62-67	103 a 105	107 a 107½	... a ...
“ .....	5½ 1860-61-65	97 a 98	102 a 102½	... a ...
“ .....	5 1845	97 a 98	... a 100	... a ...
“ .....	5 1846-7-8-9	... a ...	99 a 100	103 a 103½
“ .....	5 1850-51-57	... a ...	99 a 100	103 a 103½
“ .....	5 1855-58	93 a 94	98 a 99	100 a 101
“ .....	5 1859-60-61	94 a 95	99 a 99	100 a 101
“ .....	4½ 1849-58	87 a 88	91 a 93	... a ...
Ohio,.....	6 1850	69 a 70	94½ a 94¾	102½ a 103
“ .....	6 1856-60	67 a 68	95 a 95½	103½ a 104
“ .....	5 1850-56	54 a 55	82½ a 83	... a ...
Kentucky,.....	6 .....	89 a 89½	97½ a 98	108½ a 109
Illinois,.....	6 1870	23 a 23½	35½ a 36½	46½ a 47
Indiana,.....	5 25 years.	25 a 26	35 a 35½	47 a 47½
Arkansas,.....	6 .....	28½ a 30	38 a 45	45 a 50
Alabama,.....	6 .....	50 a 60	60 a 67	... a ...
“ .....	5 .....	... a ...	58 a 60	84 a 85
Pennsylvania,.....	5 .....	41 a 42	61 a 61½	69 a 69½
Tennessee,.....	6 .....	... a ...	90 a 92	107 a 108
New York city,....	7 1857	107 a 110	111 a 112	111 a 112
“ .....	7 1852	106 a 108	107 a 108	108 a 108½
“ .....	5 1850	94 a 95	99 a 99½	102½ a 103
“ .....	5 1858-70	94 a 95	99½ a 100	103 a 103½

The rise is here very great, particularly in Ohio and Kentucky stocks, which have advanced from 20 to 36 per cent. The small amount of money thrown by the banks into the stock market had, however, no other effect than to accelerate an improvement in prices which was otherwise inevitable, from the general plenteousness of money. The New York market is the great centre of moneyed operations; but the advance in Virginia and South Carolina stocks, which are comparatively unknown in the New York market, has been as great at the south as other stocks here. Notwithstanding that the aggregate loans have increased, the idle means of the banks have also increased. The United States government drew out \$2,300,000, which, it appears, returned to the banks as individual deposits, there being no means of prompt investment; and the unemployed deposits of the banks stand now at a point higher than ever before, with one exception. At the same time, the balance due banks has been reduced from \$10,000,000 to \$5,000,000. As an index to the movement of business during the year, as compared with former ones, we will take a table of the tolls on the New York state canals, the receipts of flour and wheat at tide-water; the Ohio canal tolls, and the receipts of flour and wheat at Cleveland, as follows:—

	New York Canals.		Ohio Canals.				
	Flour and Wheat, eql. to bbls. Flour.	Tolls.	RECEIPTS AT CLEVELAND.				
			Flour. Bbls.	Wheat. Bush.	Pork. Bbls.	Ohio canal. Tolls.	Miami canal. Tolls.
1839,.....	1,007,311	\$1,599,038	264,887	1,515,820	30,7174	\$23,599	\$78,601
1840,.....	2,046,716	1,773,583	505,461	2,155,407	23,017	452,112	70,321
1841,.....	1,756,211	2,033,262	441,425	1,564,421	29,797	416,202	72,612
1842,.....	1,747,448	1,748,870	492,711	1,311,665	52,272	387,442	71,500
1843,.....	2,246,621	2,081,646	577,369	813,536	13,177	304,887	73,153

This gives a large increase in the trade of the state of New York, consisting of the produce of other states, poured through the great canal. Of that produce, however, it appears that the proportion furnished by Ohio has greatly fallen off. The decline in the quantity of flour and wheat which has reached Cleveland, is equal to about 15,000 barrels of flour, and in pork about 39,000 barrels, or 75 per cent. The tolls show a corresponding diminution. This decline in the trade of Ohio is attributable to the low price of provisions, and the great competition from the other western states. Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Iowa, are sending forth enormous and constantly increasing supplies of produce. These supplies, borne on the bosom of the great lakes, pour through the Erie canal to market in great abundance, and the price sinks under the competition. Those states which are the most prolific, and can produce at least cost, will monopolize the market. Illinois enjoys an advantage over Ohio in this particular, because her lands will yield more for the same amount of labor, and the cost of production is less, because there is comparatively no taxation. The effect of these operating causes is seen in the fact that, while the Erie canal, the great artery for the western business, shows an increase of business, the Ohio canals show a decline. The low prices of agricultural produce, yielding scarcely more than the cost of transportation to market, leaves very little surplus applicable to the purchase of goods, or to the supply of that currency so much needed by the western states. The following table will show the leading features of the banks in several states, on the 1st November, 1843 and 1842:—

BANKS OF SEVERAL STATES, NOVEMBER 1, 1843 AND 1842.

	1842.		1843.	
	Loans.	Specie.	Loans.	Specie.
Indiana,.....	\$2,897,917	\$779,047	\$2,640,695	\$969,306
Illinois,.....	3,229,302	798,998	none.	.....
Ohio,.....	6,376,950	825,010	3,944,371	768,032
New Orleans,....	48,153,068	1,911,594	24,069,020	6,377,316
South Carolina,...	4,077,486	419,142	3,936,540	662,449
New York,.....	52,386,467	8,477,076	61,534,129	11,502,789
Massachusetts,....	44,610,391	2,682,300	42,993,291	7,298,815
	<u>\$161,731,881</u>	<u>\$15,913,167</u>	<u>\$139,018,046</u>	<u>\$27,578,707</u>
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Indiana,.....	\$1,732,518	\$181,248	\$2,115,225	\$200,248
Illinois,.....	2,212,127	164,552	none.	.....
Ohio,.....	1,314,663	1,605,633	2,203,976	527,843
New Orleans,....	1,724,080	2,390,740	1,178,637	4,427,047
South Carolina,...	1,094,993	1,660,354	1,392,107	1,126,232
New York,.....	12,031,871	19,100,415	17,213,101	27,389,160
Massachusetts,....	8,049,906	6,130,164	9,219,267	10,213,887
	<u>\$28,160,158</u>	<u>\$31,233,106</u>	<u>\$33,222,313</u>	<u>\$43,884,417</u>

These aggregates give the following result:—

	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.
Loans,.....	\$161,731,881	\$139,018,046	.....	\$22,713,835
Specie,.....	15,913,167	27,576,707	\$11,665,542	.....
Circulation,.....	28,160,158	33,322,313	5,162,155	.....
Deposits,.....	31,233,106	43,884,417	12,651,311	.....

In Louisiana, Ohio, and Illinois, many banks have been put in liquidation during the year. The Indiana State Bank now furnishes the paper currency for nearly the whole of the states of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, and the prolific territories of Iowa and Wisconsin. There is, therefore, a great scarcity of a circulating medium in those sections, which is becoming gradually supplied with the precious metals; an operation retarded, however, by the want of an outlet for agricultural produce sufficiently large to raise its

money value. Notwithstanding the reduction in the loans of the banks, it appears that the deposits have swollen near 40 per cent, consisting mostly of specie, which stands 70 per cent higher than last year, and is very nearly equal to the outstanding bank circulation in the seven enumerated states. This state of banking credits leads to the conclusion that the general internal trade of the country, and its external commerce, will grow no faster than the money value of the sales of the produce of sections, and the export of the surplus produce of the whole Union. There can be no sudden renewal of credit purchases; and those accumulations of capital appropriated to the facilitating of that method of business, will be very slowly absorbed in profitable employment.

The commercial intercourse between Great Britain and the United States has, during the past few years, been greatly curtailed from the amount to which the value of yearly interchange between the two countries attained in 1836 and 1837. In the English parliament, this matter of the decline in the American trade has been frequently referred to, more particularly in the debate of the 29th July last, when the exports of British goods to the United States were represented to have fallen from £12,427,000, in 1836, to £5,200,000, in 1838; rising to £7,098,000 in 1839, and again reduced to £3,528,000, in 1842. Lord John Russell, on that occasion, referred the decline to the restrictive policy of England; and Sir Robert Peel, in answer, did not deny the falling off in trade; but, at the same time, overlooked the true cause of that decline, viz: the position of the banking system of this country. It is astonishing how little weight is given to the agency of banking, in creating a sale for British goods, even by those most accustomed to consider the subject. In many quarters, of high commercial authority, hopes are expressed of a speedy recovery in the trade with this country; while the fact that the banking system, in nine states of the Union, is entirely destroyed, is overlooked. In order to understand this matter, in relation to the present relative position of the country, it will be necessary to review the past. In the year 1828, the United States Bank was in full vigor and credit, with its capital of \$35,000,000 actively employed, and exercising a governing power over three hundred and twenty-nine banks, in all the states of the Union. The aggregate capital was \$110,192,268; making, with the United States Bank capital, \$145,192,268. That year 1828 was marked by three important events—the accession of General Jackson to the presidency, the imposition of the high tariff, and the commencement of the government hostility against the United States Bank. The operation of the tariff was to check imports of goods, and accumulate specie in the vaults of the Atlantic banks; more particularly in those of the United States Bank, which controlled the state institutions. The specie in that institution rose from \$6,000,000 to \$11,000,000, in one year. This enabled the bank to push out its loans; and they rose from \$33,000,000, in 1828, to \$66,000,000, in 1832. This movement of the governing money power was followed by that of all the other banks. The plenteousness of money thus created, favored the multiplication of banks; which were necessary, as it was supposed, to take the place of the United States Bank, the charter of which was to expire in 1836. In 1832, this movement was accelerated by the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank, into the vaults of banks in all the states, with an injunction “to loan liberally to merchants.” In this way, the number of banks, and the amount of capital, advanced as follows:—

	Number of Banks.	Capital.
January, 1830,.....	330	\$145,192,268
“ 1837,.....	632	290,772,091
“ 1840,.....	661	358,442,692

The direction which this capital and credit took, in their employment, was to encourage the purchase and consumption of goods on credit. The great London houses were then so liberal in their facilities, that almost any person of fair standing in the states could



make large purchases of goods in the manufacturing districts, and draw upon the London banker in his own favor. The houses granting these credits usually fixed a specific day for payment; but these payments were proverbially irregular. The facility of buying goods would not have operated well without corresponding facilities here to sell. These facilities were found in the constant multiplication of banks, and their competition for business. The importer, who purchased goods in England on an open credit, sold them at long dates to the jobber, whose note the banks readily discounted, with the importer's endorsement. The jobber, in his turn, sent agents, drummers, and salesmen, in all directions over the country, and offered almost unlimited time to the country dealers. These latter bought largely, giving their notes at eight, twelve, and eighteen months; which notes were discounted on the Atlantic border, with the jobber's endorsement, and made payable at the bank in the interior nearest the dealer's place of residence. The country dealer, possessing such facilities of purchasing, in his turn sold to the consumers on credit, waiting "another crop" for his pay. In this way, very soon, a whole year's crop had been consumed in advance. The farmer owed the storekeeper, the storekeeper the jobber, the jobber the importer, and the latter the London house. This whole chain of indebtedness was sustained only by the renewal of notes, and was continued as long as the banks were able to do this, or until the London houses demanded payment. This latter took place in 1836, in which year the imports from England to the United States reached their highest amount, £12,427,000. Simultaneously with this demand, the federal government discredited bank paper, by requiring specie in payment of the public lands. The result was bank suspension. The London houses failed utterly. The New York and eastern banks immediately called in their long loans, and required the jobbers here to pay up instalments of 5 to 10 per cent, every sixty days. This stopped all further purchases, and sales on credit; and the imports from England fell one-half. The United States Bank, and those of the south and west, did not return to specie payments, but continued their loans; which fact facilitated the collection of debts due New York. In 1838, most of the present state debts were created, and sold in England. Their proceeds were brought home in the shape of goods, which were sold in the same manner as before. When discredit overtook those stocks, the final failure of the United States Bank, and most of those of the south and west, followed. The contraction and liquidation of most of these banks has been going on for the last three years, and are the real cause of the decline in imports, the tariff and rates of duty having been constantly falling; and were lower in 1842, when the exports from England to this country were £3,258,000, than they had been since the war. The number of banks and their capitals, in the several states, for several periods, up to the present month, are as follows:—

NUMBER OF BANKS, AND THEIR AGGREGATE CAPITAL, IN EACH STATE, AT THREE PERIODS.

	1830.		1839.		1843.	
	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.
Maine,.....	18	\$2,050,000	48	\$4,671,500	37	\$2,925,000
New Hampshire, .	18	1,791,670	28	2,939,598	27	2,847,508
Vermont,.....	10	432,625	19	1,325,530	7	597,810
Massachusetts, ...	66	20,420,000	118	34,485,600	108	32,631,000
Rhode Island,....	47	6,118,397	62	9,983,969	62	9,823,558
Connecticut,.....	31	4,485,177	31	8,806,204	31	8,580,593
New York,.....	37	20,983,353	159	52,028,781	131	43,019,577
New Jersey,.....	18	2,017,009	26	3,822,607	25	3,470,000
Pennsylvania,*...	33	14,610,333	48	24,286,415	35	18,794,230
U. States,...	1	35,000,000	1	35,000,000	...	.....
Delaware,.....	5	830,000	3	881,518	3	881,518
Maryland,*.....	13	6,250,495	21	10,526,494	11	6,850,000
Dis. of Columbia,	9	3,875,794	6	1,768,074	6	1,745,155
Virginia, .....	4	5,571,100	6	10,139,406	6	10,130,000

7\*

## NUMBER OF BANKS, etc.—Continued.

	1830.		1839.		1843.	
	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.
North Carolina, .	3	3,195,000	3	3,154,761	3	3,225,000
South Carolina, .	5	4,631,000	12	11,584,355	7	8,160,800
Georgia, .....	9	4,203,829	21	15,119,219	15	10,187,000
Florida, * .....	1	75,000	3	4,582,236	...	.....
Alabama, .....	2	643,000	3	10,685,405	1	1,500,000
Louisiana, * .....	4	5,665,980	16	41,737,691	6	20,925,140
Mississippi, * .....	1	950,600	23	30,397,857	1	350,000
Tennessee, .....	1	737,817	3	7,187,921	4	6,488,192
Kentucky, .....	...	.....	6	9,329,088	5	9,036,108
Missouri, .....	...	.....	1	1,116,123	1	1,000,000
Illinois, * .....	...	.....	2	5,423,185	...	.....
Indiana, * .....	...	.....	1	2,595,221	1	2,595,221
Ohio, .....	11	1,454,386	36	10,507,521	8	2,150,000
Michigan, * .....	1	100,000	9	1,229,200	2	350,000
Arkansas, * .....	...	.....	2	3,495,857	...	.....
Total, .....	329	\$145,202,565	618	\$358,793,326	543	\$208,253,410

The states marked thus \* are delinquent in their government debts, and it is remarkable that precisely in those states the greatest fluctuation has taken place. \$150,000,000 of bank capital has gone into liquidation. Of this, the bankrupt states have lost \$108,524,000, or two-thirds of the whole. The debts of these states amount to \$125,400,000, of which \$78,900,000 was contracted for bank capital. The remaining portion of the bank capital was the subscription of individuals in Europe and the eastern states. Deducting the debt contracted for bank capital from the whole amount of the debt, leaves \$46,500,000 contracted for other purposes. Adding this to the bank capital, leaves \$154,024,000 as the amount sent into those states from Europe and the eastern states, and which has mostly been consumed and lost. The remains of that vast sum are now slowly finding their way back to their original owners. The vast sum which sought those states in the few years from 1830 to 1839, was mostly in the shape of consumable goods. The current has ceased; and has been, during the last few years, setting the other way. Instead of \$200,000,000 seeking the west on credit, through the hands of merchants and dealers, loading the canals and public works, and employing armies of laborers and speculators, who were producing nothing, the remains of those loans and credits are coming back in produce, at low money prices. Every \$100, which was then borrowed at a value equal to ten barrels of flour, is now being repaid, if at all, in a value equal to twenty barrels of flour. These immense drains upon the industry of the people must, for a length of time, operate in preventing any material rise in the rate of interest; because the door is closed which was formerly open to a large demand, while the supply of capital is accumulating in quarters where it seeks investment.

## EXPORTS OF TEA.

*Exports of Tea from Canton to the United States, from June 30th, 1842, to June 4th, 1843, stated in chests.*

Young Hyson, .....	77,299	Souchong, .....	34,774
Hyson, .....	14,885	Powchong, .....	8,648
Hyson Skin, .....	15,992	Pekoe, .....	1,028
Twankay, .....	4,101	Orange Pekoe, .....	560
Gunpowder, .....	9,869	Bohea, .....	757
Imperial, .....	7,573		
Congo, .....	2,718	Total chests, .....	178,204
Pongees, .....	packages 7,875	Sweetmeats, .....	boxes 2,026
Canton silk, .....	cases 67	Cassia, .....	piculs 8,535
Rhubarb, .....	boxes 666		

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

MARINE INSURANCE.

In the United States Circuit Court, at Boston, December, 1843, an action was brought by Joseph Lawrence vs. the New Bedford Commercial Insurance Company, before Judge Joseph Story, on a policy of insurance for \$4,000 on "catchings" on the barque Boston, of New London. The policy was dated December 5, 1842, the risk to commence April 24, 1842, "lost or not lost."

The principal ground of defence was, that the vessel was unseaworthy.

It appeared that the plaintiff purchased the barque, at second hand, in 1835, when he had her thoroughly repaired, at an expense of \$7,000. She went one whaling voyage, and returned in 1837. She went another voyage, and, on her return, in 1839, met with a severe gale. She sailed on her last voyage in June, 1841.

As to the weather which she encountered, there was some conflict in the testimony. A part of the witnesses testified that it was very severe in October, when the vessel sprung a leak, and in the three succeeding months. In February, it was more severe than ever. Whales were in sight, but no attempts were made to take them, on account of the weather.

In March there was another severe gale.

In April (when the policy attached) the vessel arrived at Banks's Peninsula, Akerora Bay, when she underwent some repairs and proceeded on her voyage. In May she had a severe gale, but held on in her business until August, when she encountered a very severe gale, according to the log book and the testimony of the master and mate. She arrived at the Bay of Islands in September, and a survey was called by the master. The cargo was ordered to be taken out, and there were three surveys. It was found that four lower deck beams were broken down; twelve knees were required, and a large quantity of timber. The surveyor reported that she was in a very shattered condition, and totally unfit to proceed to sea with her cargo; and that it would cost more than her value to repair her. She was accordingly sold.

The whole insurance was.....	\$22,000
Of which there was, on the ship and outfits,.....	18,000
On the catchings,.....	4,000

There was a large salvage, and the plaintiff sought to recover in this action the balance due on the policy on the catchings. The policies on the ship and outfits were underwritten by other officers in New Bedford, and abide the event of the present suit.

There was some contradiction between the witnesses in the case as to the stress of weather which the vessel had encountered both before and after the policy had attached.

The defendants contended that the vessel was not seaworthy, and had been gradually worn out by weather which a seaworthy vessel could have encountered with perfect safety; that, at all events, she had become unseaworthy before April 24, when the policy was to attach; and that it consequently never did attach.

The plaintiff contended that the vessel was seaworthy both before and after the 24th of April; but that, if she was seaworthy when she left New Haven, it was sufficient, even if she became unseaworthy before April 24, because, as the policy contained the clause "lost or not lost," it would attach even if she became unseaworthy before April 24.

Judge Story, in charging the jury, ruled this point against the plaintiff, and held that,

where the time when the policy is to attach is prior to the date of the policy, and it contains the clause "lost or not lost," if the vessel is lost before the time when it is to attach, it never does attach; but if lost afterwards, it does attach, even though the loss occurs before the date of the policy. In this case, if the vessel was not seaworthy on April 24, the policy never did attach, and the plaintiff could not recover.

The learned judge then went into an extended examination of the law of insurance, particularly as to seaworthiness, and then reviewed minutely the evidence and the course of the voyage. In conclusion, he stated to the jury that they were to judge of the facts, and if they had perceived any bias in his mind, as to the *facts* in the case, still they were to rely on their own convictions. He added that, in the thirty-two years in which he had presided in this court, he had the satisfaction of believing that the verdicts in cases tried before him had been the *verdicts of the juries*, and not his verdicts.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff.

#### PRIVATE EXPRESSES.

In the United States District Court, November, 1843, an action was brought by the United States *vs.* Adams & Co., to recover \$100, being the penalty imposed by the act of 1825 for carrying two letters, or \$50 for each. Messrs. Adams were charged generally with carrying letters in packages, knowing the packages to contain them, and also that letters were carried by their agents, Messrs. Fisher & Stevens, in the steamboat New Haven, and that defendants procured it to be done, which, it is contended, brings them within the statute. The action was entered by order of the United States government at Washington, to test the right of the express lines, in particular, to carry letters, the revenue of the post-office, it is said, being much injured by them.

On the part of the government it was proved that, upon one occasion, a man named Stevens, who was agent to defendants, received some \$3 or \$4 for carrying letters from Boston to Norwich, and that, on several other occasions, a number of parcels containing letters were left at Adams & Co.'s office, and that they procured them to be forwarded to their respective destinations. They also proved that, since the establishment of those express lines, the post-office revenue had fallen off nearly \$7,000 a quarter.

On the part of the defendants it is contended that they do not come within the provisions of the statute, inasmuch as it does not prohibit the carrying of parcels, and that they have never knowingly sent, or procured to be sent, any letters; nor are they bound, nor would they be authorized, to open any parcels that might be sent to their establishment. They proved that the man Stevens was only one day employed by them, in consequence of the illness of their regular agent, and that they had no knowledge of his having received any money, as alleged by plaintiff.

Judge Betts charged that the law of 1825 was made to prevent a continuance of the system then in use, of vessels and stages having a box in which letters were deposited by the public for the place of destination. The schedule alludes to vessels and stages; and an amendment, in 1827, added horse or foot posts. He did not consider the law to apply to passengers, or other persons carrying letters on their persons or in their trunks, Congress, if it saw fit, might pass a law prohibiting any person whatever carrying letters, as it prohibits contraband goods; but it has seen the operation of this new system of expresses which has sprung up, and not taken any steps in relation to it. If Messrs. Adams & Co. employed a vehicle (whether called car, or crate, or anything else) on a post road, or watercourse considered a post road, and made a business of it, knowingly carrying letters for hire, they are liable; but if they themselves, or their agents, merely carried letters on their persons, or carried them in packages without knowing the contents of such packages, they are not liable. Neither are the defendants liable for the acts of their agents, if those acts were committed contrary to their directions.

The jury returned a verdict for defendants.

## RETURN OF DUTIES ON WHEAT AND FLOUR RESHIPPEO.

In the United States Circuit Court, November, 1843, Benjamin Kidd and others *vs.* Samuel Swartwout, collector, Judge Betts presiding.

In 1836, the plaintiffs, through Grinnell & Minturn, their agents, purchased and shipped a quantity of wheat and flour from New York, consigned to George Wilde & Co., of London, to be sold for their account. Upon its arrival in London it was entered at the custom-house, where it continued under the custom-house lock and key. It appeared that the sale was lost in London, and it was reshipped by George Wilde & Co., and consigned to Grinnell, Minturn & Co. On its arrival in New York, the consignees claimed to have it entered as American produce; the collector, however, refused, on the ground that it had changed hands, and compelled Grinnell, Minturn & Co. to pay the duties on it, amounting to \$3,436 29. Mr. Grinnell entered a protest at the time, and the present action is brought to be refunded those duties.

After the plaintiffs' counsel had closed his case, the district attorney stated that he did not intend to make any defence, except merely to see that the plaintiffs had made out their case, and if so, he had no objection to their getting a verdict, and having those duties refunded. He said the question here turned on the construction of the 47th section of the act of 1799, in relation to American produce sent out of this country and afterwards reshipped. He then read the section alluded to, which stated that, on American produce brought back, no duty should be demanded, provided certain regulations therein mentioned were complied with. He thought the identity of the flour was not sufficiently proved, nor was there any evidence of those regulations being complied with.

Judge Betts charged that, if it were American wheat and flour, it was the duty of the party claiming here to show that it was so; and next, to show that it was returned in the same condition as it was when it went from this country. The act of 1799 referred the matter to the custom-house officers, the collector and the controller, and it was for them to be satisfied as to whether the requirements of that act were complied with, and they are the proper parties to ascertain those facts. The evidence of identity, and of a compliance with the regulations pointed out by the act, is sufficient; and the principal question is one of law, whether the sale of a portion of the goods changed their American character. Judge Betts intimated his opinion that the act would not bear that construction. The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs, without retiring, of \$4,915 63, including interest.

## AUCTIONEERS AND COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

An action of assumpsit was recently brought in the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, by Henshaw, Ward & Co. *vs.* Thomas W. Seers & Co., in which the plaintiffs declared upon certain warranties alleged to be made by the defendants, under the following circumstances:—

On the 9th of August, 1843, the defendants, who were auctioneers and commission merchants in Boston, advertised in the newspapers, for sale at public auction, "two cases of Manilla indigo, of superior quality." On the same day it was exposed in the sales-room to public examination, and was seen by Mr. Ward, who, as well as other purchasers, had an opportunity of examining the article; and being the highest bidder, he bought the indigo at sixty-five cents per pound. A bill of sale was made to the said Henshaw, Ward & Co., in which the article was called "two cases of indigo," and it was paid for in cash—amounting to \$262 92. A few days afterwards, the plaintiffs resold the indigo at auction; but the purchasers returned it to the auctioneer, calling it a spurious article. On being notified of this, the plaintiffs immediately rescinded the sale, took back the indigo, and then called on defendants to take back the indigo from them, and return the money which had been paid for it.

Henshaw, Ward & Co. also sent the indigo to the store of the defendants, who knew nothing of the spurious character when they sold it, but the latter declined to receive it, or to disclose the name of their principal, being, as they stated, requested by the person who consigned the article to them not to make him known in the transaction; and to defend any suit or legal process, and the defendants were to be indemnified therefor.

It was proved that the indigo, so sold, was composed of the following ingredients, discovered by accurate chemical analysis:—

Chromate of iron,.....	20 parts.
Prussian blue,.....	76 “
Potash, &c.,.....	4 “
	100

And that there was no “indigo,” or “Manilla indigo,” at all in the compound; that it was wholly worthless for any of the uses of manufacturing; that, when mixed with sulphuric acid, it would, instead of giving the beautiful hue of indigo, at once turn white; and that it was not such an article as was known in commerce as indigo.

On the other hand, it was proved that real Manilla indigo was of the most variable qualities and prices, sometimes selling as low as fifteen cents per pound; that it contained alloy in different proportions; that it was the poorest kind of indigo, as compared with that which was imported from other countries in the East Indies; that an article similar in appearance, and equally worthless with that in question, and which, in the opinion of the witnesses, was imported from Manilla, had been sold at auction in Boston, two years ago, “as Manilla indigo;” that this indigo, bought by plaintiffs, was done up in genuine Manilla packages, and was of such a character and appearance as readily to deceive the most experienced purchasers of the article. The plaintiffs’ counsel expressly disclaimed any imputation of fraud, or of any conduct in any wise dishonorable or improper on the part of the defendants, but claimed to recover on the warranties as above stated.

The writ contained five counts, setting forth the warranty in different forms; and the plaintiffs’ counsel contended—

1. That the advertisement contained in the newspaper was, in law, a warranty that the article sold was “Manilla indigo of superior quality.”
2. That the bill of sale was a warranty that the article sold was “indigo.”
3. That the law implied that the defendants warranted that the article sold was what it was denominated to be; and that the defendants, having undertaken to sell indigo, must sell an article which should be indigo in fact, and not a wholly spurious article; or, in other words, it must be known to merchants as indigo.

The defendants’ counsel contended that, at a sale by public auction, where there was a full opportunity for inspection of the article, and it was examined by the purchaser, he must be considered as purchasing on his own judgment; the law would not imply any warranty in his favor from the description of the article contained in the advertisement or in the bill of parcels.

Judge Warren ruled that the bill of sale was, in law, an express warranty that the article sold was indigo in fact; that, if it was agreed or proved that the article sold was not in fact indigo, nor known to merchants as indigo, and the plaintiffs had offered to return the same within a reasonable time, they would be entitled to recover the money they paid therefor, and interest. If the article was so manufactured as to deceive skillful judges, the fact of the plaintiffs having had an opportunity to examine it, would not relieve the defendants from liability.

Thereupon a verdict was taken by consent for the plaintiffs, in the sum of \$267 53, reserving to the defendants the right to except to the ruling of the judge, if they should think it advisable.

## INSURANCE ON CARGO.

In the Supreme Court, Philadelphia, November, 1843, *Francia & Brothers vs. The Phoenix Insurance Company*, an action on a policy of insurance was brought by the plaintiffs, executed June 11th, 1838, upon a cargo of fruits, wine, and cork, valued at \$21,000, and shipped, or said to have been shipped on board the brig *Ruth*, from Gibraltar for Baltimore, but which was lost on the passage. The evidence was that the cork was not on board the vessel, and also that the cargo had been previously insured in London for about \$12,000, which sum had been paid the plaintiffs. Payment of the present claim was resisted, on the ground that the \$12,000, which had been paid by the London underwriters, was a full indemnity for the fruit and wines which were on board and were lost, and consequently that the plaintiffs could demand no further indemnity from the defendants. To this it was replied, that this was a policy in which the value of the shipment was fixed. It was entered into for the purpose of securing not only the goods, but the profits on their shipment to this country, and the parties were bound by the value stated in the contract. As to the payment of the \$12,000 by the London underwriters, the plaintiffs acknowledged that it should be deducted from the sum named in the policy, and this, together with a deduction for the value of the cork which was not on board, and counting the estimated profits upon the wines and fruit, would show a balance in his favor of about \$5,000. The defendants, on the other hand, contended that the policy of insurance placed the value of \$21,000 upon a cargo of wines, fruit, and cork; that the absence of the cork from the cargo altered the character of the contract from a valued to an open policy, and that, therefore, the plaintiffs could only recover for the actual worth of the articles lost, throwing the estimated profits out of the question, the same as if the insurance had been upon a cargo of fruit and wines generally, without naming their value. In this view of the case, witnesses were examined to prove that the amount received by the plaintiffs from the London underwriters was as much as the cargo was worth.

Judge Kennedy charged the jury in favor of points made by the defendants; but said that it was their duty to return the amount of the premium which had been paid for effecting the insurance, and, as it had not appeared that this had been done, their verdict might be for the plaintiffs for that amount. The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiffs for \$2,901 91.

## CERTIFICATES OF DEPOSIT.

In the Circuit Court of New York, Judge Kent presiding, (in the case of *Jacob Little and others vs. The St. Louis Perpetual Insurance Company*), an action was brought by the endorsee of certain certificates of deposit of the *St. Louis Perpetual Insurance Company*.

One of the certificates ran in these words: "Samuel B. Knapp has deposited on his own account, in current bank notes, \$1000, payable to his order one day after date, with interest at the rate of (blank) per annum. St. Louis, May 17th, 1841." The other certificate was in similar terms, except that the money was stated to be in Kentucky bank bills, and payable in one month after date.

On the part of the defence it was contended that, the deposit being in current bank notes, at St. Louis, and in Kentucky bank bills, the amount must be understood as being payable in the same currency, and that, not being money, the papers were not negotiable, and the endorsee could not maintain his action on them.

The Judge said that, if he considered only that the money was payable in current funds or Kentucky bank bills, he should consider the certificate not negotiable, because the court could not judicially know that such currency was money or cash at St. Louis. But, taking the whole paper together, it appeared that the amount was specified in dollars, payable without qualification to the order of the party, at a credit and with interest.

It was therefore to be considered as payable in cash, and therefore negotiable. Verdict for plaintiffs—on the first check, \$5,690; and on the second check, \$4,700.

INSURANCE—DAMAGE BY COLLISION.

A case was decided in Louisiana, several months ago, involving an interesting point of law, upon which there seems to be some difference of opinion, even among those "who ought to know." It was a libel, filed by the owners of the ship *Harriet*, against the ship *Louisville*, for damages done to the *Harriet* by the careless or negligent conduct on board the *Louisville*, when she was lying at anchor outside the bar, at the mouth of the south-west pass, one of the outlets of the Mississippi river, by which collision the *Harriet* was injured in the sum of \$2,701 07.

It appeared at the trial, before Mr. Justice M'Kinley, that the *Harriet* was outward-bound, and came to anchor immediately in the thoroughfare of one of the passes; and that, too, after having been run foul of by another vessel, while at anchor about a year before, in the same place. She was run foul of by the *Louisville*; the latter having drifted and become unmanageable by the wind dying away.

Upon these facts, the judge decided that, even if it had been possible to have avoided the collision—had everything been done that it was possible to do on board the *Louisville*—yet, so far as the *Harriet* was concerned, the *Louisville* was entitled to the full use of the thoroughfare of the pass. The master of the *Harriet*, having obstructed it, with a full knowledge of the danger of doing so, was guilty of such misconduct as to deprive the owners of the *Harriet* of any right of action against the owners of the *Louisville*.

The court admitted that if a ship be at anchor, with no sails set, in a proper place for anchoring, and another ship, under sail, occasions damage to her, the latter is liable. But the place where the *Harriet* was at anchor was an improper place, and her owners must abide the consequences of the conduct of the master.

The owners of the *Harriet*, being dissatisfied with this decision, carried the case up to the Supreme Court of the United States, and it was argued at the last term of this court in Washington. The judges were equally divided in opinion; and, of course, the judgment of the court in Louisiana was not reversed.

COMMON CARRIERS—TRANSPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE.

In the District Court, Philadelphia, November, 1843, an action was brought by the individuals composing the Union Transportation Company *vs.* Charles Field & Son, to recover freight for the transportation of a large portion of one thousand and twenty-eight bags of coffee from New York to Philadelphia, and the delivery of the same, or the major part thereof, to the defendants. It appears that the coffee was delivered to the transportation company in separate parcels, and at different times, by Sheldon & Brother, of New York; and that one parcel, consisting of twenty-five bags, was destroyed at the New York wharf, by the sinking of one of the company's barges. The defendants claimed damages for the loss of this coffee, which was admitted to be of amount sufficient to defeat the present action. But unliquidated damages cannot defeat an action unless they arise out of the transaction upon which the suit is founded. The plaintiffs, therefore, contended that each shipment of coffee was a separate transaction, and excluded the damages of the lost goods from being set off against their claim for freight; while, on the other hand, the defendants labored to prove that the contract to transport the whole one thousand and twenty-eight bags was entire; that the sending it in parcels was only for the sake of convenience, and that any loss on any parcel ought, therefore, to be deducted from the whole amount of freight claimed.

After the charge by Judge Jones, which sustained the points made by the defence, before reported, and after the jury had retired, the counsel for the plaintiffs withdrew the case, by suffering a non-suit.



## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1842.

WE are indebted to the politeness of the Hon. Levi Woodbury, United States senator from New Hampshire, for a copy of the "Report from the Secretary of the Treasury, communicating the annual statement of Commerce and Navigation of the United States for the year ending September 30th, 1842." From this report, it appears that the exports during the commercial year ending September 30, 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. The imports during the year have amounted to \$100,162,087; of which there was imported 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.

The registered tonnage during the same year is stated at.....	975,358.74
The enrolled and licensed tonnage at.....	1,045,753.39
Fishing vessels at.....	71,278.51
	<hr/>
Total tonnage,.....	2,092,390.64

Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to.....	2,021,112.18
There were employed in the whale fishery.....	151,612.74

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the year ending on the 30th September, 1842, was as follows:—Registered,.....		54,532.14
Enrolled,.....		74,551.50
		<hr/>
Total,.....		129,083.64

In the Merchants' Magazine for November, 1843, (pp. 469, 470, and 471,) we gave, in advance of the appearance of the treasury report, the official statistical view of the imports from, and exports to, each foreign country; and also of the tonnage arriving at, and departing to, each foreign country during the year 1842. We now proceed to lay before our readers other condensed statements of our commerce and navigation, selected and compiled from the document before us, as follows:—

## DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

*Official summary statement of the value of the Exports, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of October, 1841, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1842.*

## THE SEA.

Fisheries—	
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,.....	\$567,782
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,).....	162,324
Whale and other fish oil,.....	1,315,411
Spermaceti oil,.....	233,114
Whalebone,.....	225,382
Spermaceti candles,.....	318,997
	<hr/>
	\$2,823,010

## DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

## THE FOREST.

Skins and furs,.....	.....	\$598,487
Ginseng,.....	.....	63,702
Product of wood—		
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,....	\$2,203,537	
Other lumber,.....	253,931	
Masts and spars,.....	37,730	
Oak bark and other dye,.....	111,087	
All manufactures of wood,.....	623,718	
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, turpentine,.	743,329	
Ashes, pot and pearl,.....	802,741	
		<u>4,856,073</u>

## AGRICULTURE.

Product of animals—			\$5,518,262
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,.....	1,212,638		
Butter and cheese,.....	388,185		
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,....	2,629,403		
Horses and mules,.....	299,654		
Sheep,.....	38,892		
Vegetable food—		<u>4,568,772</u>	
Wheat,.....	916,616		
Flour,.....	7,375,356		
Indian corn,.....	345,150		
Indian meal,.....	617,817		
Rye meal,.....	124,396		
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse,	175,082		
Biscuit, or ship bread,.....	323,759		
Potatoes,.....	85,844		
Apples,.....	32,245		
Rice,.....	1,907,387		
		<u>11,903,652</u>	<u>16,472,424</u>
Tobacco,.....	.....	.....	9,540,755
Cotton,.....	.....	.....	47,593,464
All other agricultural products—			
Flax-seed,.....	.....	34,991	
Hops,.....	.....	36,547	
Brown sugar,.....	.....	8,890	
Indigo,.....	.....	1,042	
			<u>81,470</u>

## MANUFACTURES.

Soap, and tallow candles,.....	.....	485,128	
Leather, boots and shoes,.....	.....	168,925	
Household furniture,.....	.....	290,997	
Coaches, and other carriages,.....	.....	48,509	
Hats,.....	.....	65,882	
Saddlery,.....	.....	25,986	
Wax,.....	.....	103,626	
Spirits from grain,.....	.....	50,708	
Beer, ale, porter, and cider,.....	.....	54,674	
Snuff and tobacco,.....	.....	525,490	
Lead,.....	.....	523,428	
Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine,.....	.....	34,775	
Cordage,.....	.....	30,457	
Iron—pig, bar, and nails,.....	.....	120,454	
Castings,.....	.....	68,507	
All manufactures of,.....	.....	920,561	
Spirits from molasses,.....	.....	247,745	
Sugar, refined,.....	.....	291,499	
Chocolate,.....	.....	3,094	
Gunpowder,.....	.....	161,292	
Copper and brass,.....	.....	97,021	
Medicinal drugs,.....	.....	139,313	
			<u>4,458,071</u>

Cotton piece goods—			
Printed and colored,.....	\$385,040		
White,.....	2,297,964		
Twist, yarn, and thread,.....	37,325		
All other manufactures of,.....	250,361		
			\$2,970,690
Flax and hemp—bags and all manufactures of,.....			1,038
Wearing apparel,.....			53,219
Combs and buttons,.....			34,714
Brushes,.....			1,925
Billiard-tables and apparatus,.....			1,800
Umbrellas and parasols,.....			5,838
Leather and morocco skins not sold per pound,.....			22,502
Printing-presses and type,.....			19,611
Fire-engines and apparatus,.....			1,304
Musical instruments,.....			16,253
Books and maps,.....			44,846
Paper and stationery,.....			69,862
Paints and varnish,.....			27,370
Vinegar,.....			10,208
Earthen and stoneware,.....			7,618
Manufactures of glass,.....			36,748
“    tin,.....			5,682
“    pewter and lead,.....			16,789
“    marble and stone,.....			18,921
“    gold and silver, and gold leaf,.....			1,323
Gold and silver coin,.....			1,170,754
Artificial flowers and jewelry,.....			7,638
Molasses,.....			19,040
Trunks,.....			3,916
Brick and lime,.....			5,728
Domestic salt,.....			39,064
			<hr/>
			4,614,401
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,.....		508,976	
Other articles,.....		1,359,163	
			<hr/>
			1,868,139
			<hr/>
			\$92,969,996

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, 1842.

The following table exhibits a comparative view of the commerce of the United States with the principal nations of the world. It will be seen that nearly half our commerce is with England and her colonies, that the balance of trade was last year in our favor, and that the balance against us in Spain, Russia, America, and China is made up by England, France, Holland, and the Hanse Towns, and numerous other places where the trade is comparatively small:—

	Imports.	Exports.	Excess of Imp.	Excess of Exp.
G. Britain and British depend.,	\$38,613,000	\$42,500,000	.....	\$3,900,000
France and her dependencies,	17,233,000	18,738,000	.....	1,500,000
Spain “ “	13,450,000	6,300,000	\$7,150,000	.....
Russia,.....	1,350,000	836,000	500,000	.....
America, other than U. States,	13,000,000	7,000,000	6,000,000	.....
China,.....	5,000,000	1,500,000	3,500,000	.....
Holland,.....	1,000,000	3,500,000	2,500,000	.....
Hanse Towns,.....	2,200,000	4,400,000	.....	4,500,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total,.....	\$100,161,000	\$104,691,000	.....	\$4,500,000

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, commencing on the 1st October, 1841, and ending on the 30th September, 1842.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	IMPORTS OF EACH STATE & TERRITORY.			EXPORTS OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY.						
	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.						
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	Domestic Produce.			Foreign Produce.			Total of domestic and foreign produce.
				In Am. vessels.	In for. vessels.	Total.	In Am. v'ss'l's.	In for. vessels.	Total.	
Maine, .....	\$547,956	\$58,908	\$606,864	\$995,743	\$47,429	\$1,043,172	\$1,797	\$5,554	\$7,351	\$1,050,523
N. Hampshire, .....	55,256	5,225	60,481	24,697	3,722	28,419	.....	128	128	28,547
Vermont, .....	209,868	.....	209,868	550,293	.....	550,293	7,216	.....	7,216	557,509
Massachusetts, .....	16,495,973	1,490,460	17,986,433	5,898,858	820,257	6,719,115	2,393,640	694,355	3,087,995	9,807,110
Rhode Island, .....	320,368	3,324	323,692	322,952	485	323,437	25,259	.....	25,259	348,696
Connecticut, .....	329,580	6,127	335,707	531,313	1,079	532,392	.....	.....	.....	532,392
New York, .....	51,523,055	6,352,549	57,875,604	16,580,810	4,158,476	20,739,286	4,768,292	2,069,200	6,837,492	27,576,778
New Jersey, .....	145	.....	145	64,931	.....	64,931	5,976	.....	5,976	70,907
Pennsylvania, .....	6,757,228	628,630	7,385,858	2,785,261	508,553	3,293,814	394,127	82,786	476,913	3,770,727
Delaware, .....	1,612	1,945	3,557	50,959	4,706	55,665	.....	.....	.....	55,665
Maryland, .....	3,998,365	418,713	4,417,078	3,536,501	1,099,006	4,635,507	233,017	36,242	269,259	4,904,766
Dist. Columbia, .....	23,934	5,122	29,056	320,961	177,859	498,820	1,934	921	2,855	501,675
Virginia, .....	278,536	38,169	316,705	3,301,417	443,810	3,745,227	5,159	.....	5,159	3,750,386
N. Carolina, .....	181,555	5,849	187,404	320,375	24,275	344,650	.....	.....	.....	344,650
S. Carolina, .....	1,042,424	317,041	1,359,465	5,097,933	2,410,466	7,508,399	6,573	10,751	17,324	7,525,723
Georgia, .....	230,525	111,239	341,764	2,661,624	1,637,527	4,299,151	130	976	1,106	4,300,257
Alabama, .....	238,170	125,701	363,871	5,937,570	4,028,105	9,965,675	.....	.....	.....	9,965,675
Mississippi, .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana, .....	6,179,027	1,854,563	8,033,590	21,608,320	5,819,102	27,427,422	582,267	394,460	976,727	28,404,149
Ohio, .....	12,179	872	13,051	591,504	308,282	899,786	.....	.....	.....	899,786
Kentucky, .....	17,306	.....	17,306	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee, .....	5,687	.....	5,687	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan, .....	79,982	802	80,784	262,229	.....	262,229	.....	.....	.....	262,229
Missouri, .....	31,137	.....	31,137	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida, .....	164,412	12,568	176,980	23,363	9,223	32,606	2	776	778	33,384
Total, .....	\$88,724,280	\$11,437,807	\$100,162,087	\$71,467,634	\$21,502,362	\$92,969,996	\$8,425,389	\$3,296,149	\$11,721,538	\$104,691,534

## TONNAGE ENTERED THE UNITED STATES.

*Total American and Foreign vessels.*

States and Territories.	Number.	Tons.	CREWS.	
			Men.	Boys.
Maine,.....	1,021	100,277	4,881	170
New Hampshire,.....	95	9,859	388	27
Vermont,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts,.....	2,208	363,748	18,507	415
Rhode Island,.....	97	17,705	899	8
Connecticut,.....	135	25,040	1,338	35
New York,.....	4,827	1,024,301	55,877	1,981
New Jersey,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania,.....	467	94,661	4,088	384
Delaware,.....	11	5,342	244	.....
Maryland,.....	408	86,904	3,811	.....
District of Columbia,.....	35	6,400	296	6
Virginia,.....	121	24,230	1,129	1
North Carolina,.....	230	29,413	1,441	8
South Carolina,.....	272	64,167	2,718	255
Georgia,.....	112	40,066	1,580	.....
Alabama,.....	145	57,970	2,163	.....
Mississippi,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,.....	786	255,475	10,374	.....
Ohio,.....	305	23,901	1,181	.....
Kentucky,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,.....	42	3,823	190	.....
Missouri,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,.....	157	9,599	966	.....
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>11,474</b>	<b>2,242,886</b>	<b>112,071</b>	<b>3,290</b>

## TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

*Total American and Foreign vessels.*

States and Territories.	Number.	Tons.	CREWS.	
			Men.	Boys.
Maine,.....	1,283	145,548	6,736	301
New Hampshire,.....	87	4,853	237	3
Vermont,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts,.....	1,996	299,139	16,816	117
Rhode Island,.....	109	19,993	1,156	27
Connecticut,.....	170	32,044	1,996	146
New York,.....	4,339	897,509	51,234	1,988
New Jersey,.....	10	2,301	92	.....
Pennsylvania,.....	426	78,920	3,668	284
Delaware,.....	17	5,209	255	2
Maryland,.....	394	82,707	3,890	.....
District of Columbia,.....	66	11,252	518	15
Virginia,.....	246	55,640	2,416	3
North Carolina,.....	309	40,716	2,013	1
South Carolina,.....	356	95,180	3,810	304
Georgia,.....	163	61,659	2,300	.....
Alabama,.....	210	89,342	3,289	.....
Mississippi,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,.....	862	317,778	12,358	.....
Ohio,.....	300	23,486	1,161	.....
Kentucky,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,.....	65	6,354	303	.....
Missouri,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,.....	145	7,318	858	.....
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>11,553</b>	<b>2,276,948</b>	<b>115,106</b>	<b>3,191</b>

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## TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement exhibiting a condensed view of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1842.

DISTRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Tot. tonnage of each district.
		Tons & 95ths.	Tons & 95ths.	Tons & 95ths.
Passamaquoddy,	Maine,	2,352.65	6,310.42	8,663.12
Machias,	"	1,920.14	12,481.37	14,401.51
Frenchman's bay,	"	2,364.13	12,866.33	15,500.46
Penobscot,	"	5,857.14	19,250.84	25,108.03
Belfast,	"	8,366.45	24,809.66	33,176.16
Waldoborough,	"	12,245.07	43,946.44	56,191.51
Wiscasset,	"	4,112.37	8,876.87	12,989.29
Bath,	"	33,782.32	14,857.38	48,639.70
Portland,	"	39,142.71	15,389.07	54,531.78
Saco,	"	1,220.17	2,133.26	3,353.43
Kennebunk,	"	5,516.87	2,272.33	7,789.25
York,	"	.....	885.33	885.33
Portsmouth,	New Hampshire,	15,233.67	8,688.11	23,921.78
Newburyport,	Massachusetts,	15,648.19	5,392.84	21,041.08
Ipswich,	"	.....	2,273.03	2,273.03
Gloucester,	"	2,985.23	13,029.52	16,014.75
Salem,	"	21,879.54	12,432.37	34,311.91
Marblehead,	"	2,657.73	6,156.85	8,814.63
Boston,	"	157,116.70	36,385.48	193,502.23
Plymouth,	"	19,342.82	9,252.58	28,595.45
Fall River,	"	3,014.31	5,701.22	8,715.53
New Bedford,	"	76,169.54	22,351.22	98,520.76
Barnstable,	"	5,253.49	37,774.09	43,027.58
Edgartown,	"	5,936.56	2,092.52	8,029.13
Nantucket,	"	24,729.67	7,318.58	32,048.30
Providence,	Rhode Island,	14,843.11	5,236.32	20,089.43
Bristol,	"	9,043.58	4,457.80	13,501.43
Newport,	"	6,721.47	6,930.59	13,652.11
Middletown,	Connecticut,	953.53	9,722.94	10,676.52
New London,	"	24,379.48	11,394.11	35,773.59
Stonington,	"	97.47	1,154.21	1,251.68
New Haven,	"	4,676.66	6,287.47	10,964.18
Fairfield,	"	.....	9,083.13	9,083.13
Vermont,	Vermont,	.....	4,343.30	4,343.30
Champlain,	New York,	.....	2,280.15	2,280.15
Sackett's Harbor,	"	.....	2,400.89	2,400.89
Oswego,	"	.....	9,670.38	9,670.38
Niagara,	"	.....	112.08	112.08
Genesee,	"	.....	556.28	556.28
Oswegatchie,	"	.....	921.92	921.92
Buffalo creek,	"	.....	17,198.26	17,198.26
Sag Harbor,	"	15,312.63	5,862.02	21,174.65
New York,	"	226,072.61	233,401.35	459,474.01
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey,	.....	19,227.37	19,227.37
Bridgetown,	"	227.30	9,239.30	9,466.60
Burlington,	"	.....	3,994.28	3,994.28
Camden,	"	.....	4,951.84	4,951.84
Newark,	"	169.23	8,320.59	8,489.82
Little Egg Harbor,	"	.....	5,463.86	5,463.86
Great Egg Harbor,	"	.....	9,148.05	9,148.05
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	42,891.84	57,749.83	100,641.72
Presqu' isle,	"	.....	2,819.84	2,819.84
Pittsburgh,	"	.....	10,107.13	10,107.13
Wilmington,	Delaware,	2,149.62	4,918.14	7,067.76
Newcastle,	"	.....	3,327.72	3,327.72
Baltimore,	Maryland,	41,455.51	33,643.48	75,099.04

## TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

DISTRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed ton- nage.	Tot. tonnage of each dis- trict.
		Tons & 95ths.	Tons & 95ths.	Tons & 95ths.
Oxford,	Maryland,.....	.....	9,443.70	9,443.70
Vienna,	" .....	480.07	11,534.01	12,014.08
Snow Hill,	" .....	.....	6,525.35	6,525.35
St. Marys,	" .....	.....	1,366.62	1,366.62
Annapolis,	" .....	.....	2,406.67	2,406.67
Georgetown,	District of Columbia,.....	1,881.56	5,689.22	7,570.78
Alexandria,	" .....	6,495.60	3,644.36	10,140.01
Norfolk,	Virginia,.....	8,252.67	8,978.05	17,230.72
Petersburg,	" .....	1,995.18	1,108.34	3,102.52
Richmond,	" .....	3,929.74	3,081.38	7,011.17
Yorktown,	" .....	.....	3,803.71	3,803.71
East River,	" .....	.....	2,133.12	2,133.12
Rappahannock,	" .....	1,252.27	4,429.64	5,681.91
Folly Landing,	" .....	.....	2,917.88	2,917.88
Yeocomico,	" .....	.....	2,794.86	2,794.86
Cherrystone,	" .....	80.04	1,566.56	1,646.60
Wheeling,	" .....	.....	1,212.73	1,212.73
Wilmington,	North Carolina,.....	7,946.36	2,246.47	10,192.83
Newbern,	" .....	2,454.75	1,745.12	4,199.87
Washington,	" .....	751.55	2,166.57	2,918.17
Edenton,	" .....	189.50	1,007.87	1,197.42
Camden,	" .....	999.12	7,727.41	8,726.53
Beaufort,	" .....	.....	909.29	909.29
Plymouth,	" .....	372.93	922.68	1,295.66
Ocracoke,	" .....	1,282.19	969.16	2,242.35
Charleston,	South Carolina,.....	12,573.28	9,147.48	21,720.76
Georgetown,	" .....	1,077.02	333.93	1,411.00
Beaufort,	" .....	.....	337.33	337.33
Savannah,	Georgia,.....	7,803.02	5,990.79	13,793.81
Sunbury,	" .....	.....	.....	.....
Brunswick,	" .....	861.80	828.89	1,690.74
Hardwick,	" .....	.....	.....	.....
St. Marys,	" .....	782.61	268.69	1,051.35
Cuyahoga,	Ohio,.....	.....	8,671.63	8,671.63
Sandusky,	" .....	.....	2,860.94	2,860.94
Cincinnati,	" .....	.....	12,025.01	12,025.01
Miami,	" .....	.....	1,272.69	1,272.69
Nashville,	Tennessee,.....	.....	3,810.82	3,810.82
Louisville,	Kentucky,.....	.....	4,618.64	4,618.64
St. Louis,	Missouri,.....	.....	14,726.80	14,726.80
Detroit,	Michigan,.....	.....	11,735.80	11,735.80
Michilimackinac,	" .....	.....	587.52	587.52
Mobile,	Alabama,.....	2,542.60	10,034.67	14,577.32
Pearl river,	Mississippi,.....	.....	901.16	901.16
New Orleans,	Louisiana,.....	48,600.35	95,023.79	143,624.29
Teche,	" .....	.....	504.42	504.42
Pensacola,	Florida,.....	1,328.39	777.93	2,106.37
St. Augustine,	" .....	273.07	140.06	413.13
Apalachicola,	" .....	1,433.58	2,237.80	3,671.43
St. Marks,	" .....	.....	.....	.....
Key West,	" .....	1,596.53	500.56	2,097.14
Total, .....		975,358.74	1,117,031.90	2,092,390.69

## VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the year ending on the 30th September, 1842.

States.	CLASS OF VESSELS.					TOT. TONNAGE.	
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops and canal b'ts.	Steam-boats.	Total.	Tons and 95ths.
Maine,.....	57	50	55	1	1	164	38,040.75
New Hampshire,.	4	1	...	...	...	5	1,695.53
Massachusetts, ...	32	14	21	4	1	72	18,632.18
Rhode Island,....	8	...	...	3	...	11	2,515.50
Connecticut, .....	3	4	7	7	1	22	3,352.70
New York,.....	6	5	17	134	22	184	20,241.18
New Jersey,.....	...	...	16	26	5	47	3,115.72
Pennsylvania,....	1	4	6	158	43	212	13,666.17
Delaware,.....	1	...	4	4	...	9	712.59
Maryland,.....	3	6	99	...	1	109	7,936.92
Dist. of Columbia,	...	...	1	48	...	49	950.76
Virginia,.....	1	...	8	3	...	12	889.40
North Carolina, ..	...	...	14	4	1	19	1,185.22
South Carolina, ..	...	...	5	1	1	7	481.78
Georgia,.....	...	...	...	...	1	1	123.65
Ohio,.....	...	7	8	2	32	49	7,904.20
Tennessee,.....	...	...	...	...	2	2	321.10
Kentucky,.....	...	...	...	...	22	22	5,607.67
Missouri,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Alabama, .....	...	...	...	4	1	5	281.53
Louisiana,.....	...	...	6	5	3	14	1,043.92
Michigan,.....	...	...	6	...	...	6	384.62
Florida,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Total,.....	116	91	273	404	137	1,021	129,083.64

## COFFEE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1821 TO 1842.

The secretary of the treasury, says Lyford, in his excellent Price Current, is at this time engaged in collecting materials for the purpose of aiding him in forming an opinion in reference to the *policy* of recommending the imposition of a duty on coffee and tea, hereafter to be imported into the United States. The materials, as regards the imports, consumption, and value, are already in his possession, but they are not always easy of access. The press, if it is so disposed, can often throw much light upon such subjects; and when it can, we think it should do so, and thereby, at the same time, render a service to a portion, at least, of its readers. On the subject of coffee, we have an article before us in "Hazard's Statistical Register," which we subjoin. The statistics of the Register, however, extend no further than to 1840; the subsequent years, 1841 and 1842, we have prepared from the secretary's letter on commerce and navigation, and those years are attached:—

"In reply to an inquiry of a member of Congress relative to the comparative prices of coffee for a series of years prior to, and since, the act of 1833, abolishing the duties, we have prepared the following table—taking the annual reports of the secretary of the treasury as the basis of our calculations. We know of no other mode of arriving at the facts, although we are aware, from the circumstances of the different qualities of coffee being all blended together, the average thus obtained will not probably correspond with the actual price of any particular quality, taken separately. But for the general purpose of the present inquiry, this mode of arriving at the desired information may be a sufficiently close approximation to the truth. The value and prices of the imports being obtained from the invoices, must show correctly the cost at the place of purchase. The value of the exports is, we presume, a general average of the prices throughout the year,



as obtained at the treasury department, and we learn from the custom-house, is the value of the article at the "short price," that is, with the drawback taken off. By adding, therefore, five cents to the prices of exports from 1821 to 1833, the average price per pound, based on the valuation by the secretary, may be ascertained."

IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND VALUE OF COFFEE.

Statement showing the Imports, Exports, and Value of Coffee into and from the United States, with the quantity left for Consumption or Exportation, for each year from 1821 to 1842, ending 30th September, and the average price.

Years.	Imports.		Price of Imports.	Consumption or exportation.		Value of Exports.	Aver. price of exports.	Left for consumption or exportat'n.
	Lbs.	Dollars.		Lbs.	Dollars.			
1821,...	21,273,659	4,489,970	21 1-10	9,387,596	2,087,479	22 1-4	11,886,063	
1822,...	25,782,390	5,552,649	21 5-10	7,267,119	1,653,607	22 3-4	18,515,271	
1823,...	37,337,732	7,098,119	19 1-10	20,900,687	4,262,699	20 4-10	16,437,045	
1824,...	39,224,251	5,437,029	13 1-10	19,427,227	2,923,079	15	19,797,024	
1825,...	45,190,630	5,250,828	11 6-10	24,512,568	3,254,936	13 1-4	20,678,062	
1826,...	37,319,497	4,159,558	11 5-10	11,584,713	1,449,022	12 1-2	25,734,784	
1827,...	50,051,986	4,464,391	8 9-10	21,697,789	2,324,784	10 3-4	28,354,197	
1828,...	55,194,697	5,192,338	9 5-10	16,037,964	1,497,097	9 1-3	39,156,733	
1829,...	51,133,538	4,588,585	9	18,083,843	1,536,565	9 1-2	33,049,695	
1830,...	51,488,248	4,227,021	8 2-10	13,124,561	1,046,542	8	38,363,687	
1831,...	81,757,386	6,317,666	7 7-10	6,056,629	521,527	8 6-10	75,700,757	
1832,...	91,722,329	9,099,464	10	55,251,158	6,583,344	11 9-10	36,471,171	
1833,*	99,955,020	10,567,299	10 6-10	24,897,114	3,041,689	12 1-4	75,057,906	
1834,...	80,153,366	8,762,657	10 9-10	35,606,861	4,288,720	12	44,346,505	
1835,...	103,199,577	10,715,466	10 4-10	11,446,775	1,333,777	11 2-3	91,752,802	
1836,...	93,790,507	9,653,053	10 3-10	16,143,207	1,985,176	12 1-4	77,647,300	
1837,...	88,140,403	8,657,760	9 8-10	12,096,332	1,322,254	10 1-10	76,044,071	
1838,...	88,139,720	7,640,217	8 6-10	5,267,087	502,287	9 4-10	82,871,633	
1839,...	106,696,992	9,744,103	9 1-10	6,824,475	737,418	10 3-4	99,872,517	
1840,...	94,996,095	8,546,222	9	8,698,334	930,399	10 6-10	86,297,761	
1841,...	114,984,783	10,444,882	9	5,784,536	589,609	10 2-4	109,200,247	
1842,...	112,865,927	8,933,638	8	5,381,068	483,326	9	107,484,459	
* Imported in 1833—								
Previous to 4th March,....		Lbs. 33,326,120	Dollars. 3,570,248	Exports.		Lbs. 10,200,962	Dollars. 1,233,106	
After " " " " " " " "		Lbs. 66,628,900	Dollars. 6,997,051	Specific duties,.....		Lbs. 14,696,152	Dollars. 1,806,583	
				Free of duty,.....				
Total,.....		99,955,020	10,567,299	Total,.....		24,897,114	3,041,689	

REMARKS.

The importations from 1826 to 1832, both inclusive, were.....	lbs.	418,667,681
" " 1834 to 1840, " " .....		655,116,660
Being an increase of.....		236,448,979
in the seven years succeeding 1833 over those prior to that year.		
The exportations from 1826 to 1832 were.....	lbs.	141,836,657
" " 1834 to 1840 " .....		96,283,071
Being a decrease of.....		45,553,586
in the seven years succeeding 1833, as compared with the seven preceding it.		
The consumption from 1826 to 1832 was.....	lbs.	276,831,024
" " 1834 to 1840 " .....		558,833,589
Being an increase of.....		282,002,565
in the consumption of the last seven years over the former.		

The average price of the importations from 1826 to 1832 was 9 3-10 cents per pound, and from 1834 to 1840 was 9 7-10, being a difference of 4-10ths of a cent per pound against the latter seven years.

The average price of exportations from 1826 to 1832 was 10 5-10 cents, and from 1834 to 1840 was 11 5-10, being 1 cent per pound against the latter seven years.

It would appear from these statements that, since 1833, the amount of coffee imported has increased 56 47.100 per cent, while that exported has diminished 32 12.100 per cent; that the amount consumed has increased 101 40.100 per cent; and that the cost of the article in the places of growth has advanced, as has also the price in the United States. The great increase of consumption, therefore, would seem to have been induced by some other cause than the removal of the duties, probably the increase of population; and perhaps the facilities of transportation enables it to reach the consumer in the interior at a diminished expense, while the demand has sustained the price in the market.

The increase of population between 1830 and 1840 has been about 32 9.10 per cent.

The amount consumed from 1826 to 1832 would furnish to each individual in the United States, according to the census of 1830, 3 7.10 pounds per annum; and the quantity consumed from 1834 to 1840, according to the population of 1840, would allow to each individual 4 7.10 pounds, being an increase in the latter period of 1 pound to each, per annum. This is independently, in both cases, of the consumption of 1833, which year has been excluded from all the preceding calculations.

Owing to the high prices of tea, it is probable the consumption of coffee will be further extended during the present year.

#### AMERICAN AND BRITISH SHIPPING.

The annexed tables, copied from a London paper, are of interest, as showing the relative increase of American and British shipping employed in the trade between this country and the United Kingdom:—

*Number of American Ships, and their Tonnage, entered from the United States in the ports of the United Kingdom during the past twelve years, ending the fifth day of January, 1843.*

Years.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.		Years.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1832,.....	639	229,869	651	231,280	1833,.....	602	275,813	624	284,808
1833,.....	432	167,359	471	176,771	1839,.....	784	357,467	830	373,810
1834,.....	443	181,874	447	180,268	1840,.....	558	282,005	580	292,334
1835,.....	492	204,529	546	220,913	1841,.....	867	426,867	839	409,900
1836,.....	542	236,393	601	251,021	1842,.....	524	294,170	580	313,390
1837,.....	524	226,483	579	255,046	1843,.....	554	319,524	616	340,832

*Number of British Ships cleared and entered for the United States in same period.*

Years.	CLEARED.		ENTERED.		Years.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1832,.....	358	114,200	289	91,785	1838,.....	260	110,475	209	81,023
1833,.....	458	147,902	284	94,203	1839,.....	239	109,951	194	83,203
1834,.....	475	158,487	265	89,923	1840,.....	298	134,722	195	92,482
1835,.....	387	133,754	281	94,658	1841,.....	360	180,041	275	138,201
1836,.....	334	119,903	227	82,453	1842,.....	318	159,597	267	121,777
1837,.....	339	128,856	226	86,333	1843,.....	355	195,745	281	152,833

#### BRAZILIAN COTTON IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The quantity of cotton imported into Great Britain from Brazil, appears to be decreasing annually. An English paper copies the following amounts of the quantities imported and entered for home consumption in each of the last ten years, from a recent parliamentary return:—

Years.	Imported.	Home cons'n.	Years.	Imported.	Home cons'n.
1833,..... lbs.	28,463,821	27,253,980	1838,..... lbs.	24,464,505	24,727,312
1834,.....	19,291,396	20,028,836	1839,.....	16,971,979	17,089,859
1835,.....	24,986,409	24,757,678	1840,.....	14,779,171	13,952,644
1836,.....	27,501,272	26,905,704	1841,.....	16,671,348	14,095,988
1837,.....	20,940,145	20,822,509	1842,.....	15,222,828	13,554,546

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## TARIFF OF COLONIAL DUTIES,

*Leviable upon Imports into British Guiana from 18th August, 1843, to 30th June, 1844, furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine by Benjamin and Duff, of Demerara.*

Wheat flour, per barrel, 196 lbs., English,.....	\$1 50
Rye flour, " " " ".....	0 50
Corn and pulse, per bushel, ".....	0 15
Corn meal, per 100 lbs., ".....	0 50
Rice, " " ".....	0 75
Oats, per bushel,.....	0 10
Bread, as pilot, navy biscuit, and crackers, and all other kinds, per 100 lbs.	
English,.....	0 50
Dry fish, per quintal,.....	0 56
Salmon, per barrel, 200 lbs. English,.....	2 00
Pickled mackerel, per barrel, 200 lbs. English,.....	1 00
Pickled fish of all other sorts, per barrel, 200 lbs. English,.....	0 75
Barrels of beef and pork, 200 lbs. English,.....	2 00
Candles, tallow, per lb. English,.....	0 01
Candles, spermaceti, wax, or composition, per lb. English,.....	0 04
Soap, per lb. English,.....	0 01
Butter, " ".....	0 01
Lard, " ".....	0 01
Tobacco, in packages not less than 800 lbs., per 100 lbs. English,.....	10 00
Tobacco, in packages less than 800 lbs., manufactured or otherwise, per 100 lbs. English,.....	15 00
Cigars, per 1000,.....	2 00
Tea, per lb., English,.....	0 25
Pepper, sago, tapioca, per 100 lbs., English,.....	5 00
Cocoa, per 100 lbs. English,.....	5 00
Chocolate, per 100 lbs. English,.....	6 00
Sugar, refined, per cwt.,.....	4 00
Pitch, tar, and rosin, per barrel,.....	0 50
Crude turpentine, per barrel,.....	0 50
Spirits turpentine, per gallon,.....	0 15
Spermaceti oil, per gallon,.....	0 20
Other descriptions of oils, per gallon,.....	0 10
White pine lumber, per 1000 feet, board measure,.....	2 00
Pitch pine lumber, per 1000 feet, board measure,.....	3 00
Red oak staves, per 1000,.....	1 50
White oak staves and heading, per 1000,.....	2 00
Clapboards, per 1000,.....	1 50
Shingles of all kinds, per 1000,.....	0 50
House frames, white pine, per running foot, per story,.....	0 10
" " pitch pine,.....	0 20
Horses, per head,.....	7 00
Mules, ".....	5 00
Potatoes, per bushel of 64 lbs. English,.....	0 08
Bottled wine of all descriptions, per dozen,.....	1 00
Wine in wood, of all kinds, per pipe of 110 gallons,.....	33 00
Spirituous liquors, liqueurs, and cordials, per gallon,.....	0 67
Cattle (neat),.....	4 00
Plantains, per bunch,.....	0 10
Malt liquor in wood, per hhd.,.....	1 50
Malt liquor, per dozen,.....	0 08
Hams, bacon, and all other dried or smoked meats, and smoked fish, per 100 lbs. English,.....	1 50
Cheese, per lb.,.....	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Pickled tongues, at the rate of, per 100 lbs.,.....	1 50

And after those rates for every greater or less quantity of such goods respectively.

Coin, bullion, fruit and vegetables, ice, fresh fish and meats, live and dead stock, except horses, mules, and cattle, are exempt from any colonial duty.

The above specific duties are leviable upon all imports, besides an *ad valorem* duty of one per cent upon all goods the production of the United Kingdom, and two and a half per cent upon all foreign goods, whether paying specific duty or not.

#### REGULATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF HAYTI.

INCREASE OF TONNAGE DUTIES ON FOREIGN VESSELS—EXPORT DUTIES REDUCED AT HAYTI.

The following laws bearing upon our commerce, recently enacted by the Government of Hayti, to take effect from and after the 11th day of September, 1843, were received from the United States Commercial Agent at Cape Haytien, at the Department of State, Washington, October 7th, 1843, and are published officially in the *Madisonian*, as follows :

The tonnage duty heretofore exacted on foreign vessels, at one dollar Spanish per ton, is increased to two dollars Spanish per ton, (consequently American vessels pay two dollars and twenty cents per ton.)

All foreign vessels going from one port to another, in this Island, will pay for each port visited, an additional duty of one hundred dollars, Haytien currency, on vessels under one hundred and fifty tons.

Vessels from one hundred and fifty to two hundred tons, pay one hundred and fifty dollars.

Vessels of two hundred tons and upwards, pay two hundred Haytien dollars.

The duties on wharfage, and weighage on merchandise *imported*, are increased to double their former rates.

The "Territorial" duty on exports is still in force ; but the duty of exportation is reduced, which reduces the export duty on coffee from twenty dollars, Haytien currency, per one thousand pounds, to twelve dollars.

Cocoa from ten dollars to four per one thousand pounds.

Tobacco, in leaf, from fifteen dollars per one thousand pounds to five dollars. Logwood from seven dollars per one thousand pounds to two dollars.

Mahogany from twenty-two dollars to twelve dollars per thousand feet. Hides, of all kinds, are free of export duty.

The wharfage and the weighing and measuring are to be added to the foregoing quantities as follows :—On coffee, one dollar, Haytien currency. Cocoa, one dollar. Tobacco, one dollar. Logwood, one dollar. Mahogany, one dollar. Hides are charged one cent, Haytien, each.

The present value of a Haytien dollar is two-fifths (2-5ths) of a Spanish or American silver dollar, or sixty per cent. below their par.

#### INSPECTION OF PRODUCE IN NEW YORK.

THE following act, passed April 18, 1843, amendatory of the Inspection laws of the State of New York, went into operation, according to the provision of the third section, on the first of December, 1843 :—

SEC. 1. The provisions of title two, chapter seventeen, part first of the Revised Statutes, entitled "Of the Inspection of Provisions, Produce, and Merchandise," and all other statutes in relation thereto, except salt manufactured in this state, so far as the same or any of them prohibit the exportation or the buying and selling of flour and meal, beef and pork, pot and pearl ashes, fish or liver oil, lumber, staves and heading, flax seed, sole leather, hops, distilled spirits, leaf tobacco, wood, timber, bark, lime, green hides and skins, without a compliance therewith, unless by the consent or at the request of the owner, or some person interested therein, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 2. The provisions of the second, third, and fourth articles of title three, chapter seventeen, part first of the Revised Statutes, and of all other statutes so far as the same require grain and stone to be measured, or any article of merchandise to be weighed, against the consent or without the consent of the owner, or some person interested therein, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall not take effect until the first of December, 1843.

## DIRECTIONS FOR PREPARING BEEF, etc., FOR THE ENGLISH MARKET.

*Beef.*—Kill fat cattle only; all parts are used but the head, feet, and legs, to be cut, as nearly as possible, into pieces of eight pounds each.

Pack away in store casks, with dry salt well rubbed in, the cask to be filled up with pickle, sufficient saltpetre being added to give a bright color and proper consistency. In a day or two, or as soon as the blood is sufficiently purged out, the beef is to be removed to fresh pickle, where it remains until packed for exportation.

All pickle to be made strong enough to float an egg, and the scum to be taken off after settling. *Observe*—Saltpetre must not be used in any pickle after the first.

To be packed in barrels containing twenty-five pieces of two hundred pounds, or tierces containing thirty-eight pieces of three hundred and four pounds, perfectly water-tight, with two iron hoops at each end, and made just to fit.

It is important that when the packages are opened, the beef should present a sightly appearance to dealers; the edges of the pieces to be trimmed and laid in smoothly. Between each layer some fine salt is to be used, and over the top of the whole an inch or two of very coarse Turk's Island or St. Ubes should be placed. Pack dry, and after heading, pour through the bunghole three or four gallons of fresh pickle.

*Pork.*—In curing, the same process is to be observed as for beef. It must be cut into four pound pieces, and all parts used except the head, feet, and legs to the knee joints. To be packed for exportation in barrels of fifty pieces, or two hundred pounds.

Avoid, in all cases, government inspection as a legalized robbery. Each packer must brand his own name conspicuously on the head of his casks, with the number of pieces, and description of beef or pork. A favorite brand will often sell for five to ten shillings per tierce more than one unknown to the English purchaser.

*Lard.*—Really fine lard, for culinary purposes, should be packed in neat white kegs of about forty pounds each; it should be poured in, and allowed to cool before heading, a piece of white paper to be laid on to prevent its adhering to the top when opened; the kegs, in all cases, to be full.

So much care is not required in barrel lard, which is chiefly used for chandlery purposes, or machinery; but if poured in before heading, there would be a greater certainty of the packages being full.

## LAW OF VESSELS FOR FOREIGN PORTS.

The Journal of Commerce says that the collector of the port of New York requires a strict adherence to the law requiring that the manifests of vessels, bound to foreign places, shall exhibit a full account of all the articles shipped. Captains of vessels may sometimes, in the hurry of clearing, find this arrangement inconvenient, but it is imperatively demanded by the laws. We copy, for general information, the substance of part of the 93d section of the act of March 2, 1799:—

“The master of a vessel bound to a foreign port, shall deliver to the collector a manifest of all the cargo and the value thereof, by him subscribed, and shall swear to the truth thereof; and if any vessel shall depart on her voyage without delivering such manifest, the master shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars for every such offence.”

A subsequent act, February 10, 1820, sec. xi., requires that before the collector grants a clearance, the shippers of the cargo shall deliver manifests of the parts thereof shipped by them respectively, specifying the kinds, quantities, and values of the articles shipped.

The consequence is, that, if a vessel departs without furnishing a manifest and obtaining a clearance, the master is liable to a penalty; and he cannot obtain a clearance until the shippers of the several parts of his cargo have delivered manifests thereof. If, then, the vessel shall be detained by the omission of the shippers to furnish the required documents, they will be liable to the master or owners for damages.

## STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

## PROGRAMME OF THE FRENCH STEAMSHIPS.

THE starting of the French transatlantic steamships, in May, 1844, will form a new era in steam navigation. The following appears to be the programme; and the first great line, we have reason for believing, is to start in May, from Havre to New York:—

*First great line*—from Havre to New York. Four steamships are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a fortnight. Fifteen days are allowed for each passage, and ten days at New York—in all, forty days. Twenty days are to be allowed to each vessel at Cherbourg, between every voyage, to rest the crew, and repair the vessel and engines.

*Second great line*—from Bordeaux to Martinique. Three steamers are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a month. Two days are allowed for the passage from Bordeaux to Corunna, and ten hours' stay there; five days twelve hours for the passage from Corunna to the Azores, and one day's stay there; twelve days sixteen hours for the passage from the Azores to Martinique, the steamers to remain ten days at Martinique. Twenty days are allowed for the return passage from Martinique to Bordeaux—in all, forty days' sailing, and eleven days and a half stoppages. Thirty-seven days are allowed between every voyage, at Rochefort or Bordeaux, for repairs and stoppages.

*Third great line*—from Marseilles to Martinique. Three steamers are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a month. From Marseilles to Barcelona, one day, and four hours' stay; from Barcelona to Cadiz, three days, and twenty-four hours' stay; from Cadiz to Madeira, three days, and twenty-four hours' stay; from Madeira to Martinique, fourteen days. The steamer is to remain ten days at Martinique. Twenty-one days are allowed for the return voyage from Martinique to Marseilles—in all, forty-two days' sailing, and fourteen and a half days' stoppages. Thirty-three days are to be allowed at Toulon or Marseilles, between every voyage, for repairs and repose.

*Fourth great line*—from St. Nazaire to Rio Janeiro. Four steamers are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a month. From St. Nazaire to Lisbon, three days and a half, twenty-four hours' stay; from Lisbon to Goree, eight days, three days' stay; from Goree to Pernambuco, eight days sixteen hours, four days' stay; from Pernambuco to Bahia, one day twenty-two hours, four hours' stay; from Bahia to Rio Janeiro, three days nineteen hours. The steamer is to remain eleven days fourteen hours at Rio Janeiro. Twenty-five days twenty-one hours are allowed for the return voyage from Rio Janeiro to St. Nazaire. Forty-eight days are allowed between every voyage, at St. Nazaire or L'Orient, for rest and repairs.

*Second secondary line*—from Havana to Vera Cruz. One steamer is to be placed on this line; the departures to take place once a month. From Havana to Vera Cruz, three days eighteen hours, and twenty-four hours' stay; from Vera Cruz to Tampico, one day, and four hours' stay; from Tampico to Galveston, two days, and four hours' stay; from Galveston to New Orleans, one day six hours, and twelve hours' stay; from New Orleans to Havana, two days fourteen hours—in all, ten days fourteen hours' sailing, and one day twenty hours' stoppages.\*

*Third secondary line*—from Martinique to the ports of the Spanish main. One steamer

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\* The first secondary line—from Martinique to Havana—is omitted by the *Journal des Debats*, from which we quote. There are to be three steamers placed on it; the departures are to take place once a fortnight. Seventeen days are allowed at Martinique, for rest and repairs.

is to be placed on this line; the departures are to be monthly. From Martinique to Chagres, six days, and twelve hours' stay; from Chagres to Carthagena, one day twelve hours, and four hours' stay; from Carthagena to Santa Martha, twelve hours, and four hours' stay; from Santa Martha to La Guayra, two days twelve hours, and twelve hours' stay; from La Guayra to Martinique, two days sixteen hours—in all, thirteen days four hours' sailing, and one day eight hours of stoppages.

*Fourth secondary line*—from Rio Janeiro to the ports on La Plata. One steamer is to be placed on this line; the departures are to be monthly. From Rio Janeiro to Montevideo, five days six hours, and five hours' stay; from Montevideo to Buenos Ayres, thirteen hours, and three days' stay; from Buenos Ayres to Rio Janeiro, six days—in all, fifteen days.

### FARES ON THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

#### BETWEEN BOSTON AND ALBANY.

The following tables, published in the Boston Morning Post, show the results of high and low fares upon the Western railroad, up to September 23. The change of rate on through-passengers was made April 12. On way-fares, the old rates are still charged, as the Worcester road refuses to reduce from \$1 25 for way, and \$1 for through. All the reduction on through-passengers, it should be remembered, falls upon the Western road, as the Worcester road takes the same amount as before. As follows:—

The "through-freight" from Boston to Albany, in 1843, to September 30, amounts to 3,900 tons. In the same time, in 1842, but 1,441 tons were forwarded to Albany. Up to May 1st, the amount for 1843 was 614 against 521 tons last year. From May 1st to September 20, the amount this year was 3,268 tons; and in the same time last year, but 1,083—showing an increase of 300 per cent since the reduction took effect, with a very slight increase before.

The passengers through, for 1842 and 1843, show an equally large increase since the reduction to \$4, as will be seen by the following table of comparison:—

	1842.		1843.	
	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.
January, .....	1,074	27	448½	88
February, .....	551½	43	362½	51½
March, .....	723	54½	433½	98
April, .....	874½	131	864	384
	<u>3,223</u>	<u>255½</u>	<u>2,113½</u>	<u>621½</u>
May, .....	1,239	243½	1,802	857½
June, .....	1,672½	194	2,844½	1,017
July, .....	1,975	237	2,686	620
August, .....	2,625	322	3,923	693
To September 23d, .....	2,060	390	2,848	806½
	<u>9,661½</u>	<u>1,386½</u>	<u>14,103½</u>	<u>3,944</u>

Here, then, we have a *decrease*, before the reduction, of one-third on the first class, and an *increase* of nearly three-fold on the second class, and an increase of 40 per cent on the first, and three-fold on the second class, since the reduction. The way-passengers to May 1st, were 46,306½ in the first, and 5,526 in the second class, for 1842; and in the same time, in 1843, 36,898 in the first, and 5,819½ in the second class. In May and June, the totals were 24,730 and 3,762½ for 1842, and 24,417 and 6,624 for 1843. The way-passengers have, it will be seen, been better since than before the reduction.

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 MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## FRENCH EXCISE.

THE excise, as it may be imagined, is one of the most expensive parts of the administration. The central bureaus are composed of a general director, with 20,000 francs a year; three sub-directors, at 12,000 francs; twenty-eight chiefs and sub-chiefs, receiving from 4,000 to 7,000 francs a year; and one hundred and seventy clerks and subordinate *employés*. Total, two hundred and two officials; whose emoluments amount altogether to 600,000 francs a year, with about 150,000 francs for extra expenses. There is a principal director in the chief town of every department, and a director in the principal town of every *arrondissement*. The three hundred and sixty directors, whose united salaries amount to 1,700,000 francs, employ, on an average, five clerks in their offices; which makes one thousand eight hundred *employés*, who cost about 1,100,000 francs—all this for the administration service only. The active service is performed, under the inspection of head controllers, by mounted and moveable controllers, unmounted and sedentary controllers, by mounted and unmounted principal and secondary excisemen, mounted and unmounted resident and moveable collectors, and by the regular host of agents. The number of the controllers, divided into six classes, according to their different offices, amounts to about seven hundred; and the amount of their salaries is 1,620,000 francs a year. The mounted and unmounted collectors, one thousand four hundred and fifty in number, cost 3,100,000 francs. Then follow one thousand three hundred mounted excisemen, who receive 2,500,000 francs; and three thousand unmounted excisemen, whose salaries amount to 3,400,000 francs; and about two thousand subordinate *employés*, receiving altogether 1,200,000 francs. The total number of the *employés* of the excise is, then, ten thousand eight hundred; who receive, in salaries, 15,220,000 francs. Under the head of indirect taxes, is comprised the collection of tolls on bridges, canals, and rivers, which employ only one hundred and twenty controllers and two hundred and ten collectors. Amount of salaries, 480,000 francs.

## FRENCH GUNPOWDER ADMINISTRATION.

The direction of the manufacture and sale of gunpowder has a central administration, composed of about forty officials, the salaries of whom amount to 130,000 francs; and two hundred and sixty *employés* of all grades, receiving about 300,000 francs; besides about one thousand two hundred licensed gunpowder *debitants*, appointed by the government, and who altogether receive 1,400,000 francs. Besides their salaries, the *employés* of all the branches of the excise receive a per centage on the receipts, which amounts to 10 per cent on their emoluments; so that the twelve thousand six hundred officials above enumerated cost the country almost 18,000,000 francs.

## RAISINS OR GRAPES.

Raisins are grapes allowed to ripen and dry upon the vine. The best come from the south of Europe. Fine raisins, without stones, are imported from Smyrna, Damascus, and Egypt. Sweet fleshy grapes are selected for maturing into raisins. The branches are pruned, and the vine is stripped of its leaves, when the fruit has become ripe, the sun then beaming full perfects saccharification, and expels the superfluous water. The raisins are plucked, cleansed, and dipped for a few seconds in a boiling ley of wood ashes and quick-lime. The wrinkled fruit is drained, dried and exposed to the sun upon hurdles of basket work, during fourteen or fifteen days.



## MANUFACTURES OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

It is probable that if the manufacturing business is found sufficiently profitable for a series of years in this country, that the upper parts of the Mississippi Valley will, in no long time, be the chief seat of American manufactures. Already labor and capital, to a large amount, are employed in manufactures of various sorts in the west. In western Pennsylvania, the upper part of western Virginia, and in the eastern part of Ohio, manufactures of cotton, wool, silk, paper, wooden and stone ware, &c., &c., abound.

The Greensboro' Patriot gives an account of eight manufactories, one, the Mt. Hecla, in that town, and the others in the neighborhood, viz: the High Falls and Alamance factories, in Orange; the Cedar Falls and Franklinsville factories, in Randolph; the Lexington, in Davidson; the Salem, in Stokes; and the Leaksville, in Rockingham. That called Mt. Hecla, was among the first put in operation in the southern country. The Lexington and Salem factories are worked by steam. The products of these mills, besides supplying an extensive country demand, are sent off in immense quantities to the northern and western markets.

In Fayetteville and immediate vicinity, the Observer enumerates six factories, viz: Mallet's, Cross Creek, Phoenix, Rockfish, Beaver Creek, and Little River.

Besides these, there are, in other parts of the state, one at Salisbury; one at Rockingham; one at Lincolnton; one at Rocky Mount, Edgecombe; one at Cane Creek, Chatham; one at Concord, Cabarrus; one at Milton; one at Mocksville; one at Milledgeville, Montgomery county; one in Surry county; and one other in Orange county; making twenty-five in all.

The capital invested in the twenty-five is estimated, by the Observer, at about a million and fifty thousand dollars; the number of spindles about fifty thousand; persons employed from twelve to fifteen hundred, and number of bales of cotton consumed at not less than fifteen thousand.

## EUROPEAN TRADE TO CHINA.

The entire European trade to China, last year, consisted of seven hundred and eighty four vessels, of 328,000 tons, of which England had six hundred vessels, of 266,000 tons, and France three vessels of 1,250 tons; yet so jealous is France of England, that she has sent a large fleet and a numerous embassy to China to secure a commercial treaty. The English papers ridicule this, and sarcastically declare that the French and Chinese have claimed to produce and excel in almost the same manufactures, such as silks and porcelain, and ivory and gim-crackery, whilst one has no taste for the edibles or drinkables of the other. The French consume no tea, the Chinese no wine. On the other hand, the French have already found rivals in the Chinese, who have driven their silks from the markets of Java.

## COUNTERFEIT MEXICAN DOLLARS.

Some doubt is expressed by the New Orleans Bee, whether the government of Mexico has not ventured upon the ruinous and disgraceful expedient of debasing the coin of that country. A considerable amount of Mexican money was recently found in the possession of a young man, who was proved to have received it in good faith, which, on examination, was found to be largely mingled with spurious alloy. Fifteen of the dollars were assayed by Dr. Riddell. Several of them were found to contain 52, 53, 54 and 55 cents of silver, and the rest copper; others were composed of nickel and copper. From the testimony elicited, it seems probable that the money was actually issued from the Mexican mints.

## THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*History of the Conquest of Mexico, with a preliminary view of the Ancient Mexican Civilization, and the Life of the Conqueror, Hernando Cortes.* By WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT, author of the "History of Ferdinand and Isabella." In three volumes. Harper & Brothers.

This is a book of which, in every respect, an American may well be proud. It is, indeed, and in the best sense, an honor to our literature. It takes rank among the best histories that have ever been written, and will well maintain it in the face of the most severe and hostile criticism. Although the subject is one which might almost pardonably seduce a brilliant imagination to indulge its powers at the expense of strict and established truth, we see Mr. Prescott, throughout, sifting his authorities, which he has collected with rare and surprising diligence, with the utmost care and judgment, and confining the cause of his narrations strictly to events of which some sound and reliable memorial exists. The first portion of the first volume contains a view of the civilization of the very ancient people who occupied the Mexican territory from the remote period of 625 to the time of its conquest by the Spanish power. The only method of recording events which they possessed was by picture-writing, or a species of hieroglyphics, much less elaborate and precise than those of Eastern nations. The only source, therefore, whence information could be drawn concerning their history and their character must have come from the scattered remains of these early records, translated into some modern tongue by the labors of the early monks, or others into whose hands they chanced to fall. It is only within a few years that the collection of these materials has attracted the attention and occupied the labors of scholars and historians. But the recent efforts in this direction have been crowned with abundant success; and the libraries of Spain, public and private, and the public archives of Mexico, contain a vast amount of documents of which no use had heretofore been made by Mexican historians. Mr. Prescott has availed himself, to the fullest extent, of the original materials thus furnished, and has been engaged for several years with rare and unyielding diligence in their collection, arrangement, and laborious study. The history of the Aztecs, as the tribe was called, who, coming from the north, conquered and crushed the Toltecs, or original inhabitants of the Mexican territory, which he has thus presented, is not only infinitely superior to that of every other writer who has attempted the same difficult task, but is in itself one of the most remarkable and interesting histories we have ever read. As their society and nation are pictured here, they seem to have been a truly wonderful people. Their forms of civil government, especially their judicial organization, and, more than all, many of the abstract tenets in their religious faith, exhibit an advance in civilization, and a development of the moral and religious sentiments far beyond what could reasonably have been expected from the age, (and perfect isolation from all Eastern nations) in which they lived. This opening portion of Mr. Prescott's work occupies about two hundred pages, and forms one of the most deeply interesting and instructive historical sketches ever issued. Following this, and most properly introduced by a general view of the political character of Spain under Charles V., and his colonial policy, we have an account of the original discovery of Mexico, and then the life of Hernando Cortes, interwoven with the history of his brilliant and wonderful conquest. The present volume closes with the year 1519, leaving thus by far the greatest and most romantic portion of the Mexican conquest to succeeding volumes.

- 2.—*The Birthright.* A Novel. By MRS. GORE, authoress of "Mothers and Daughters," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This novel forms No. 24 of the Harpers' "Library of Select Novels," and is sold for twelve and a half cents.

3.—*The Life and Speeches of the Hon. Henry Clay.* In two vols. 8vo., pp. 606, 600. Compiled and edited by DANIEL MALLORY. New York: Robert P. Bixby & Co.

The publication of the intellectual efforts of our prominent statesmen is one of the most useful literary enterprises of our own day, and among them we are here provided with a biographical sketch, as well as the speeches, of a brilliant and popular orator and statesman. Mr. Clay has been, during a long course of public service, identified with the discussions of some of our most important national interests, and has expressed himself freely in public bodies upon them in debates in both branches of the national legislature. Those speeches, probably scattered through various journals, have here been carefully collated and compiled, and we are thus enabled to judge accurately his intellectual character, as well as his opinions upon most of the conspicuous political questions of his time. Without entering into a critical review of his merit as an orator and statesman, it may be remarked that the parliamentary efforts of Mr. Clay are distinguished for boldness and expanse of view, as well as a freedom and candor, which stamp him as an orator and a statesman, of which the country may well be proud. As a mere debater, for we do not discuss his peculiar political views, he stands among the first, and to his matter is added a manner, which seldom fails to instruct and to delight. Unaided by adventitious circumstances, he has worked his way to one of the most eminent places in the public view, and has long stood before the nation in bold relief. The public, we doubt not, will thank the compiler for the present volumes not only in respect to the compilation itself, but the form in which it appears. The two volumes furnish altogether the most elegant specimen of typography of the day. They are from the press of Samuel N. Dickinson, of Boston, the "prince of printers" in America.

4.—*Life of John Tyler, President of the United States, up to the close of the second session of the Twenty-seventh Congress; including some of his most important Speeches while member of the House of Representatives and of the Senate of the United States, and his principal Messages and other Public Papers, as Chief Magistrate of the Union.* 8vo. pp. 256. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

Mr. Tyler, from his official station, derives so prominent a position before the public, as to call for the publication of the present pamphlet. It embraces the principal circumstances of his life and public services, together with a selection from his speeches and political papers. From this we learn that he has long been a prominent and respectable citizen of the state of Virginia, that he is a member of the legal profession, and that he has filled the offices of member of the House of Representatives and senator in Congress, with credit to himself, and with satisfaction to his constituents. The compilation contains his efforts made upon important public questions, which evince a good understanding of the subjects which they discuss, and apparent candor in the expression of his opinions. To these are added some of the most conspicuous state papers which he has issued since he arrived at the office of chief magistrate of the United States. Without expressing any opinion respecting its distinctive political views, we would remark that the publication is creditable to his talents, and will doubtless gratify his friends.

5.—*Neal's History of the Puritans.* Edited by JOHN O. CHOULES, M. A. With portraits on steel. In two volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work is to be completed in eight parts, at twenty-five cents each, and will form two royal octavo volumes, of about twelve hundred pages. It is printed on a clear and beautiful type, and good paper. It will embrace a history of the Protestant non-conformists, from the reformation, in 1517, to the revolution, in 1688; comprising an account of their principles, their attempts for a farther reformation of the church, their sufferings, and the lives and characters of the most celebrated divines. It is a reprint from the text of Dr. Toulmin's edition, with his life of the author, and account of his writings; and with the revision, correction, enlargement, and additional notes, made by Mr. Choules, will doubtless form altogether the most valuable edition of the work extant.

- 6.—*The Young Student; or, Ralph and Victor.* By Madame GUIZOT. From the French. By SAMUEL JACKSON. Three volumes complete in one. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The biographical portraits, comprised in this delightful volume, are said to be drawn from actual life; with no other embellishments than those which are requisite to give interest to the narrative. The "Young Student," as here depicted, is designed to illustrate the accurate principles of the domestic management of children, with the superintendence over youth which appertains to their social, moral and intellectual training. There is a great variety of bustling incidents embodied in this bewitching narrative—not the events of wild, impossible, or unobserved romance—but the obvious circumstances of ordinary life, such as the society on the eastern confines of France ever develops. Among the other noble lessons inculcated by Madame Guizot, her ethical verisimilitudes develop the indescribable pangs of gambling and intemperance; not in the fictitious array of events, which are unknown to common observers, but as they were and are exhibited in all parts of the world, where these demons still instigate and sway their deluded victims. There is no overstrained effect to produce an impression. All apparently is a straight-forward story of several events, which every person believes, when perusing them, actually happened. Madame Guizot, the writer of the present narrative, is the late consort of the prime minister of France. The French Academy recommended this work, as the most favorable to good morals that had appeared during the year of its publication. The London Literary Gazette, good authority, pronounces it one of the most simply interesting and pleasing, as well as instructive moral tales, which the French press has produced.

- 7.—*The Bible Expositor. Confirmations of the Truth of the Holy Scriptures; from the Observations of Recent Travellers, illustrating the Manners, Customs, and Places referred to in the Bible.* New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

This volume was originally published under the direction of the Society in England for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge. It consists of extracts from the narratives of creditable travellers in Arabia, Petraea, and the Holy Land, who have recorded the manners and customs of the oriental nations; and as many of their usages and habits are little changed since the patriarchal times, it reflects a flood of light upon many passages of the Scriptures, full of importance and beauty, but not generally understood, because they contain allusions to manners and customs, familiar indeed to those to whom they were originally addressed, but imperfectly known to us. We know of no work so well calculated to assist every reader of the Bible in obtaining a clearer perception of the propriety and beauty of the illustrations so often drawn, of eastern customs, in the Bible.

- 8.—*The Farmer's Treasure; a Practical Treatise on the Nature and Value of Manures, founded from experiments on various Crops. With a brief account of all the most recent discoveries in Agricultural Chemistry.* By F. FALKNER, Esq. To which is added, Productive Farming. By JOSEPH A. SMITH. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1844.

The "Farmer's Treasure" is devoted to an explanation of the nature and constitution of manures generally. It also points out the means of augmenting the quantity, and preserving the fertilizing power of farm-yard manure; and the various sciences of mineral and other artificial manures, with the causes of their frequent failure. The second part of the volume, "Productive Farming," presents, in a comprehensive form, a familiar digest of the recent discoveries of Liebig, Johnson, Davy, and other celebrated writers on vegetable chemistry.

- 9.—*Early Piety.* By JACOB ABBOTT. New York: John S. Taylor.

In this little treatise, the duty and pleasantness of early piety are pointed out and eloquently enforced, by one of the most popular and instructive authors of works for the young of the present time.

- 10.—*A Memoir of the Construction, Cost and Capacity of the Croton Aqueduct. Compiled from official documents. Together with an account of the Civic Celebration of the fourteenth October, 1842, on occasion of the completion of the great work. Preceded by a Preliminary Essay on Ancient and Modern Aqueducts.* By CHARLES KING. New York: Printed by Charles King. 1843.

This well-written and neatly-executed work, as its title indicates, contains a full account of the Croton Aqueduct, that beneficent enterprise, whose advantages are already appreciated by the bountiful supply of pure water to the city of New York. Mr. King has, in the Preliminary Essay, embraced in a clear and comprehensive form, and from authoritative sources, the prominent facts connected with the ancient and modern aqueducts, running back to the earliest time. The memoir and description of the Croton Aqueduct is derived from official reports and documents, and the account of the civic celebration, that occurred on the completion of the work, must be interesting to the reader. The volume is properly prefaced by an engraved view of the Croton Dam, which serves to give an increased value to the volume. The selection of Mr. King as the historian of this noble enterprise was highly creditable to the character of the city government, as it would be difficult to find an individual better qualified for such an undertaking.

- 11.—*The History of Long Island, from its Discovery and Settlement to the present time. With many important and interesting matters, including notices of numerous individuals and families. Also, a particular account of the different Churches and Ministers.* By BENJAMIN F. THOMPSON, Counsellor at Law. Second edition, revised and greatly enlarged. 2 vols., pp. 511, 554. New York: Gould, Banks, & Co.

The volumes, whose title we have here prefixed, are a valuable contribution to the local history of the country. The author appears to have exercised a more than usual degree of industry and perseverance in searching out the circumstances connected with the numerous settlements upon Long Island, and has fortified his statements with many original and authentic documents. Besides the merely historic circumstances that have marked this interesting portion of our republic, he has given us a topographical account of the island, a description of its geographical features, and its geology. We have here, also, its general, as well as its local history; and the volume is illustrated by an excellent map, and a great number of well-executed representations of prominent places within its bounds. To the citizens of Long Island it will doubtless be a work of frequent reference and general circulation.

- 12.—*Scenes and Scenery in the Sandwich Islands, and a trip through Central America, being Observations from my Note-book during the years 1837-1842.* By JAMES J. JARVIS. 12mo., pp. 341. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This volume is an interesting and well-written account of the author's observations during a residence in the Sandwich Islands, and a narrative of a trip made by him through Central America. It contains many interesting descriptions of those islands, connected with their scenery, topography, and natural history, besides some statistical facts, that seem to have been collected with all due diligence. The style is clear, pointed, and graphic, and the work has been published in a very handsome form, and illustrated by several well-executed engravings of scenery and prominent places. From recent circumstances connected with those islands, it will, we doubt not, attract public attention; and the author, from his long residence there, is peculiarly qualified to give us the most desirable information upon the subjects of which it treats.

- 13.—*Original Poems for Infant Minds.* By the TAYLOR FAMILY. New York: Saxton & Miles.

There are we don't know how many editions in this country, from the twelfth London edition. It is the handsomest edition of a work so universally known and esteemed, that the mere announcement of it is sufficient for those who have not already put it into the hands of their children to do so.

- 14.—*The Poems of Eliza Cook*. With twelve exquisite illustrations. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

This beautiful volume may be styled, as we observe it has already been by some, the *gem of the season*. It equals the best efforts of our emulative and enterprising publishers; and, whether we consider the exquisite finish of its embellishments, its elegance of typography, or its very chaste and elaborately ornamental binding, it fully sustains our assertion. In a word, the volume is *unique*, and we need say no more; for no doubt our readers would anticipate us, were we to do so, as the work has already created quite a sensation among the purchasers of holiday and present-books of the season. If any one should not, however, have yet seen the work, we can promise them a luxurious treat in reserve, and would counsel them forthwith to indulge in it.

- 15.—*The Select Works of Mrs. Ellis*. Illustrated edition. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

Mrs. Ellis, as a writer on domestic morals, has taken the rank of the Hannah Mores, the Edgeworths, and Porters of former times. She is even superior to these eminent authors, in many particulars we might mention; but her productions have become so world-renowned, that the province of the critic seems to be superseded. We have only, therefore, to commend to the reading community—indeed, to *all* classes of society—the beautiful collected edition of her most favorite works, embellished with seven splendid English illustrations. The volume comprises the Wives, Women, and Daughters of England, Poetry of Life, &c.; forming a handsome octavo volume, which is enclosed in an elegant cover, gilt, &c. We cannot conceive of a more suitable or acceptable work for a domestic present-book.

- 16.—*Notes on the Acts of the Apostles, chiefly explanatory; designed for Teachers in Sabbath Schools and Bible Classes, and as an aid to Family Instruction*. By HENRY J. RIPLEY. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The author of these Notes is the present Professor of Sacred Rhetoric and Pastoral Duties in the Newton Theological Institute. They are designed to be a companion to his Notes on the Gospels, and although conducted on the same general principles with that work, all reference to it is avoided; so that those who are not possessed of the "Gospels," will not suffer any embarrassment. The notes, in the present volume, illustrating the scriptural text, serve to explain the author's views of the meaning of the sacred historian, and are written in a chaste, clear, and comprehensive style; and although Mr. Ripley is of the Baptist denomination, every Christian reader, without regard to sect, will find comparatively little to dissent from, or at least will gain a clearer insight into the purport of these records of the labors of the apostles, and the progress of the Christian doctrine during the earliest period of its promulgation by the immediate disciples of its divine founder.

- 17.—*Lyra Apostolica*. First American, from the fifth English edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1844.

We have in this elegantly printed volume one hundred and seventy-nine poems, mainly on social, moral and religious subjects; calculated to interest and elevate the spiritual taste and sensibilities of man's higher nature. The pieces are reprinted from the British Magazine, where they originally appeared. Aside from their value, as instruments in recommending to the reader Christian truths, they possess merit as chaste and classical lyrical poems.

- 18.—*Victorine: A Tale from Real Life*. New York: Edward Dunigan.

This simple and beautiful narrative, published in similar style and size to the "Garland of Hops," is dedicated to those "who love truth and virtue," in the belief that to such the brief life of the heroine will prove interesting. It breathes throughout the pure and beautiful sentiments of Christianity.

- 19.—*A Treatise on Domestic Economy, for the use of Young Ladies at Home and at School.* By MISS CATHARINE E. BEECHER. Revised edition, with numerous additions and illustrative engravings. Boston: Thomas H. Webb & Co. 1843.

This volume forms one of the admirable series of works prepared under the direct supervision of the highly respectable Board of Education in Massachusetts, and has been introduced into the district school libraries of that state. That Miss Beecher was eminently qualified for the task of its preparation, may be inferred from the facts that she herself suffered from the want of such knowledge in early life; that she had the charge of a female seminary for some twelve years, and subsequent extensive travels gave her such a view of female health in this country, and of the causes which tend to weaken and destroy the constitution of young women, together with the sufferings consequent to a want of early domestic knowledge and habits; and further, being the eldest of a large family, she had, from early life, been accustomed to the care of children, and to the performance of most domestic duties. She appears to have availed herself not only of her own experience, but to have gleaned stores of information from the experience of many other accomplished and exemplary housekeepers. The volume embraces the whole range of subjects connected with domestic economy—moral, mental, and physical.

- 20.—*The Wintergreen; a Perennial Gift for 1844.* Edited by JOHN KESSE. New York: Charles Wells & Co.

This appropriate present for a new year comes to us with all the appliances of fine paper, finished engravings, and gilded binding that seem appropriate to the design for which it was published. Nor is it wanting in literary matter calculated to enhance the value of the volume. We might select several of its pieces, illustrated by the engraver, which would do credit to any of the annuals issued either in our own country or abroad; and we hope that the volume will meet the pecuniary reward which its merit so richly deserves.

- 21.—*The Trial of the Pope of Rome, the Antichrist, or Man of Sin, described in the Bible, for High Treason against the Son of God. Tried at the Sessions House of Truth, before the Right Hon. Divine Revelation, Lord Chief Justice of His Majesty's Court of Equity; the Hon. Justice Reason, of said Court, and the Hon. Justice History, one of His Majesty's Court of Information.* Taken in Short Hand. By a Friend of St. Peter, &c. &c. Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

The object of this little volume is sufficiently apparent from the copious and rather curious title page. It embraces arguments against Popery professedly drawn from scripture, reason, and history. The present is the second American edition, with an appendix consisting chiefly of extracts from American Protestant writers.

- 22.—*The Works of Mrs. Hemans; with a Memoir by her Sister, and an Essay on her Genius.* By MRS. SIGOURNEY. In seven vols. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The present edition, the first volume of which is before us, is handsomely printed on good paper, and although forming a volume of nearly eight hundred pages, is sold at the low price of fifty cents. It forms, very appropriately, one of the admirable series of works in course of publication under the general title of the "Ladies Cabinet Series." It would be a work of supererogation, if not of presumption on our part, to speak of the character of Mrs. Hemans' poetical works at this late day. Her fame rests upon a foundation far above our power either to strengthen, or affect in any other manner.

- 23.—*Life of Andrew Jackson, Private, Military, and Civil.* By AMOS KENDALL. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

The second number of this splendid specimen of American typography has been published; thirteen numbers more will complete the work. The present contains two beautiful engravings on steel, one representing an incident illustrative of the presence of mind of "young Jackson," and the other "Indians attacking a station," a spirited picture.

- 24.—*Sir Walter Scott's Monument.* New York: A. L. DICK, Engraver, Printer, and Publisher.

This is a large and beautiful engraving on steel, of the monument now erecting at Edinburgh, south side of Princes'-street, opposite St. David Height, to the memory of Sir Walter Scott. The old town is seen in the distance; and, altogether, it forms one of the most splendid and admirably-executed specimens of the art ever produced in this country. Mr. Dick is a Scotchman, and seems to have imparted a higher life and spirit to the engraving than we usually meet with in prints made to sell. It is worthy of a place in the picture-gallery of the most refined.

- 25.—*Letters from Ireland.* MDCCCXXXVII. By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. 12mo., pp. 351. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1843.

This writer wields a versatile and spirited pen; and perhaps the only objection to her style is that which necessarily attends voluminous and rapid authorship—too constant an effort at forcible language, with a want of varied diction. These letters contain a rapid sketch of a journey from the south to the north of Ireland, with some amusing incidents, historical reflections, and judicious remarks upon the national character. As a Protestant, she thinks and writes with warmth; but she entertains a high respect for the Irish, whom she has had the advantage of knowing and studying at their firesides. The letters are written with elegance, and an easy flow of thought and incident, which render their perusal pleasing, as well as instructive. Messrs. Taylor & Co. have undertaken the republication of Charlotte Elizabeth's works in a uniform series, of which these letters form the eighth volume.

- 26.—*Christianæ Militiæ Viaticum: or, the Christian's Pocket Companion.* New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This neat little pocket volume contains the private rules by which the lives of such men as Edwards and Brainerd, and Rogers and Mason, were regulated; and introduces the reader to them in the closet, the family, the social circle, the pulpit, and in the discharge of their parochial duties.

- 27.—*The Complete Confectioner, Pastry-Cook, and Baker.* Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This little manual, based upon Read's Confectioner, a late London publication, with additions and alterations adapting it to the various articles of luxury which the bounty of our soil and climate render almost exclusively American, by Parkinson, a practical confectioner of Philadelphia, contains upwards of five hundred receipts for plain and practical confectionery and pastry, baking, &c., &c.

- 28.—*Ephraim Holding's Homely Hints.* Chiefly addressed to Sunday School Teachers. By OLD HUMPHREY, author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," "Addresses," "Thoughts for the Thoughtful," and "Walks in London." 18mo., pp. 241. New York: Robert Carter. 1844.

The several works named in the title-page of this volume have all been republished in this country by Mr. Carter, and have had an extensive circulation among Christians of different denominations. It possesses all the peculiarities of manner and thought which characterize those that have preceded it, and will be equally as popular with his numerous admirers.

- 29.—*The Garland of Hops.* Translated from the French. Baltimore: J. Murphy. New York: Edward Dunigan.

This beautiful little volume contains, within its gilded covering and leaves, a simple tale, depicting the sufferings of virtuous poverty, the loveliness of filial piety, and final reward and happiness of steady and consistent goodness.

☞ Several notices of new books, and reprints of standard works, crowded out, will appear in our next number.