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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1844.

ART. I.—TRIESTE, AND THE PARTICIPATION OF AUSTRIA IN THE
COMMERCE OF THE WORLD, DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.*

(FROM 1832 TO 1841.)

THE course of trade during the last ten years presents to the merchant, the historical investigator, the statesman, the psychologist, and to every thinking man such a variety of aspects, and so many surprising phenomena and striking facts, that it would be an undertaking as interesting as profitable to elucidate it in all these points of view, and to investigate its actual results, in order to erect, upon such a foundation, logical conclusions for the future.

But from the design of these sheets, it cannot be expected, that we should attempt so comprehensive a work, one which would require such varied powers, and even should we succeed in uniting the qualifications necessary for such a purpose, our limits would not permit investigations so extensive.

But the more this subject has excited, and will continue hereafter to claim, general attention, the more interests are connected with its present and future condition, so much the more do we feel ourselves called upon to discuss its bearings, so far as they concern our own locality, in order to explain, from the history of the past, events which we deeply lament, and which might lead to an erroneous judgment upon its domestic and foreign relations, and to point out, from the position of an unprejudiced spectator, its prospects for the future.

With this view, we lay before our readers a survey of the maritime trade of Trieste during this period, in the annexed tables, one of which comprises the imports and exports by sea, arranged by articles and value; the other, the distribution of this trade, according to countries and flags. Both are drawn from authentic sources, and compiled with all the care

* Translated for the Merchants' Magazine from the Austrian Lloyd's Journal, by the Hon. GEO. P. MARSH, Member of Congress from Vermont.

and accuracy which could be reasonably expected from such researches. The first naturally falls into two divisions, imports and exports. In the former the principle has been adopted of designating *foreign* merchandise in detail, and *domestic* wares collectively; in the latter, on the contrary, of detailing the *domestic*, and estimating collectively the *foreign* goods.

Before we enter upon a closer examination of these tables, let it be allowed us to premise a few words upon commerce in general, for the purpose of indicating the course of our reflections, thereby to explain our reasonings, and to make our observations more intelligible.

Commerce is the stamp of civilization. It originates in the development of civil society, and secures to society the means of its further advancement. This reciprocal influence is so iudisputably proved by the history of mankind in all its phases and periods, that it is wholly unnecessary to adduce farther evidence. In forming a critical judgment upon commerce, therefore, the development of humanity in its moral and political formation, must be our only guide.

But no period of history surpasses in magnitude of results, either in a political or moral point of view, the events of the last century. What the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had prepared, through the Reformation and the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope and America, the political and moral errors of the reigns of Louis XIII., XIV., and XV. brought to maturity. With the death of Charles VI., and the accession of Frederick II., begins that remarkable epoch of history, which, in less than seventy years, impressed an entirely new form upon all the moral and political relations, not only of Europe, but of the known world, and rendered productive industry and commerce the vivifying principle of the common weal, which they are recognized to be at the present moment.

The separation of the British colonies in North America from the mother country, their elevation to a powerful commercial state, the rise of a great empire in the East Indies from a few trading establishments, the French revolution and its mighty effects, the decline of the Spanish and Portuguese supremacy over the immense continent of South America, the consequences and fall of the imperial dominion in France, are events so important, that any one of them would have been alone sufficient to produce incalculable changes, no less in commerce than in politics. Surely, therefore, they could not all have occurred, without producing a powerful excitement in the minds of men, an excitement which must have been the more important and extensive, since it was the new doctrines of some leading spirits which in part produced it. It is manifest from the imperfections of human nature, that this excitement, in its struggle with conflicting principles, would naturally fall into by-paths, and overstep the bounds of right and truth. Its immediate consequence was a succession of desolating wars, which spread their destructive flames over both hemispheres, and in which all passions exhausted themselves in frightful excesses, till at length, purified by streams of blood, they brought men back to the conviction, that the end they had so long in vain pursued through devious routes could be attained only in the path of the divine law, justice, order and peace. General peace followed, and if we regard the principles which dictated this peace rather in a moral than political aspect, we shall arrive at the conviction, that the Holy Alliance which concluded it was indeed a holy one, and the maxims it avowed will stand forth in history to all time, as one of the greatest of her works. A new field was

opened for commerce. All prominent talent was directed to learning and the arts of peace. The agriculturist and citizen began to rejoice in their prosperity, and to find in its superfluities means of obtaining, by exchange, those necessities which they had long been compelled to deny themselves. Thereby industry and trade obtained the elements of permanence and growth. But what was commerce before and after this period? After the discovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope had gradually changed its course from the southeastern states of Europe to those of the west, it was the aim of maritime powers to bind the newly established colonies to the mother country, by all the means of power and commercial monopoly, to extort from them their productions, and in return to force upon them the fruits of European productive and agricultural industry. They established the idea of constraint, as to the first principle of trade. It was even specified what must and what might not be cultivated. The colonists were required to bring their productions to the marts of the mother country, and here only could they provide themselves with necessaries of European growth and manufacture. Under such restraints, no true commerce could grow up. In the perpetual wars of the age, the great maritime powers alone could participate, because every commercial enterprise must be convoyed by an armed fleet. In course of time, therefore, all commerce passed from the hands of the Spaniards, Portuguese, and Dutch, into those of the French and English, and finally fell entirely under the control of the latter. Germany was altogether excluded, or like the Italian states, was able only through the medium of maritime powers to enjoy a very limited share in it, and even this was continually decreasing, in proportion as Spain, France and Holland as an integral part of the latter kingdom, were supplanted by the superiority of England, whose increasing productive industry had enabled her to dispense with continental manufactures, which had fallen into decay during the long continued wars.

What a different picture does the world present after the re-establishment of peace!—the United States already grown to a great commercial country, having incorporated within itself, by peaceable acquisition, the French colonies in Louisiana, and the Spanish in Florida; Brazil raised to an independent empire; the entire South American continent, even to its most insignificant portions, open to the trade of the whole world; Europe tranquilized, and at peace within herself; the seas alike free to all nations; the British possessions in the East Indies extended to a great empire; the Mediterranean cleared of pirates; the power of Turkey, so long the terror of Europe, confined within impassable limits. Certainly a magnificent prospect for trade and productive industry; and so much the more cheering as all this was placed under the guaranties of a state policy, which, grounded upon religion, morality and justice, for a long time had banished the rude power of arms and passions, and had afforded to civilization all the means of the greatest advancement.

With such facilities for the intercourse and traffic of nations with each other, there could be no question as to the results; and these did not disappoint the boldest expectations. They stand conspicuous in the history of recent times, and agreeable as it would be to follow and point out their gradual progress in detail, still it is not in accordance with our present purpose, and we must confine ourselves to the notice of comprehensive facts in general.

Standing armies, the change in the mode of carrying on war, and political combinations, had required a larger expenditure than the ordinary state revenue could meet, and led to national loans, which, in course of time, required a new system of political economy. This system, which in a measure proceeded from commerce, and was supported by it, had on the other hand an incalculable influence on trade itself. The circulating medium, money, was increased by this means of representation in an extraordinary, we might say, enormous degree. This increase led naturally to an extended credit system, which, in turn, offered new elements for further increase, and afforded trade abundant means for free and liberal movement.

We must again repeat, this is not the place to enter further upon the reciprocal influence of national and commercial credit, desirable as a thorough and logical treatment of the subject might be; but we believe we may appeal to this, as a cardinal fact, as a phenomenon, which belongs wholly to our age, and in which alone the course of trade finds an explanation. In it must we seek for the cause of the commercial superiority of the English nation. It was this, which provided the sums required for the establishment of her manufacturing and mechanical system, and threw into the background the individual industry of all other nations. It called forth the culture of cotton in the United States, which furnished these manufactories with the raw material. It is the mother of steam power and its mighty consequences; it united individual capital into a great whole; it created banks, saving-banks, life-insurances, and other establishments of the like nature, all which again became new means of circulation, and afforded commerce new aids. With such numerous and far-reaching impulses, how could it be possible always to recognise and observe just limits—to restrain a current, which such rich streams on all sides supplied. This does not lie in the nature or power of man. The proper bounds were transgressed, and a crisis in trade followed the reactions, in the latest and still existing of which our own city suffered severely.

After these general observations, let us return to the history of trade during the last ten years, and the part Trieste has taken in it.

After the conclusion of peace, Trieste was restored to the sceptre of Austria, and rejoiced in this restoration so much the more, as the occupation of the French, though but transitory, had destroyed not only its commercial relations, but its entire wealth. Trieste could not, like the Dutch ports, the Hanse Towns, Genoa, and even Venice, subsist upon the savings of centuries of continuous commercial prosperity. A young commercial city, it had as yet scarcely begun to attract notice, when war, the occupation of the French, and the depreciation of the currency, annihilated its prosperity. Its history, therefore, as a trading town, commences with the general peace, and under the influences of foreign and domestic fluctuations, it has developed itself, though but gradually, with the Austrian empire, whose principal seaport it is, and has attained to the rank of one of the most important ports of Europe, with the prospect and firm confidence of continued growth and prosperity.

When, after the brief fluctuations occasioned by the revolution of July, and the first alarm of the cholera, an increased and vigorous activity became apparent in trade, Trieste stood forth as a commercial place, which formed the emporium of the greater part of one of the mightiest empires

of Europe. It furnished this empire with all necessaries of foreign produce, extended its sources of supply to a portion of the Levant, to Naples and Sicily, the States of the Church, the southern provinces of Germany, and Switzerland. It occasioned an increasing exportation of domestic productions to all parts of the world; it had obtained firm footing in Brazil, for the importation of colonial merchandise, and made the United States and the West Indies, through means of England, available for the same purpose; it had acquired an important influence in Egypt, and had drawn the greater part of the productions of that country to its own mart. It carried on the traffic between the Levant and the north of Europe, and, by means of its favorable position, had become the central point of the trade in corn and oil, from the Black sea, the Levant, Sicily, and Italy, for all those countries, which from time to time had need of foreign grain. All this was accomplished in the natural course of gradual development, without artificial means, without banks, with no extravagant supports, or specially favorable circumstances. Trieste had obtained for herself the respect of the commercial world, by her activity, her uprightness, her clear and definite system of trade, free alike from chicanery, and intricate and tedious forms. She had gained a considerable commercial credit, and begun to attract the attention, not only of the trading, but also of the financial world. New establishments were founded, and the field of operation was visibly and daily increasing.

In whatever light we may regard the French revolution of July, our assertion, that it was followed by an unusual activity in trade, still remains a fact. Whether it were the moral excitement, which every such event occasions, or the immense sums put in circulation by it, or that men thought they recognised in its tranquil termination a new guaranty of the general peace, or whether it were all these together, certain it is, that from this time a generally diffused and deep-reaching interest in domestic productive industry displayed itself, and brought trade and business in general to an elevation, of which history can scarcely produce an example, and which was greatly promoted by the wonderful progress of mechanical art, by railways, and by steam navigation. This tendency was nowhere more readily responded to than in England and the United States, where it found a soil, which, previously prepared by a gradually increasing liberality of commercial policy, by large monetary institutions, and an extensive system of credit, grew up to a gigantic stature, and drew nourishment, both from the old world and the new, by the power of money. The United States, with a population proverbial for their love of gain and enterprise, stimulated by their numberless banks and unbounded credit system, and sustained by many capitalists in England, put themselves forward, as the medium of traffic and carriage for the whole world, and this Anglo-American union was highly successful in the attainment of this object. They carried the productions of Europe to the marts of the whole known world, and went so far in this, that the extraordinary demand for European manufactures, which was occasioned by this active impulse, made it for a time doubtful, whether the entire manufacturing power of Europe would suffice to supply it. A remarkable degree of prosperity in this branch of industry spread itself over England, France, Belgium, and even Switzerland and Germany, and an extraordinary increase in their resources was the consequence, which afterwards degenerated into a new species of intoxication in manufacturing speculations.

But, during the period from 1833 to 1836, a cheering activity was diffused over all these countries. In exchange for these manufactures, the productions of all countries were brought to the marts of Europe, and for the disposal of these, they sought chiefly those ports which offered the greatest freedom in traffic, and the least rivalry from colonial possessions. Among these, Trieste indisputably ranks, if not before all, at least before most of the European commercial towns. It was, therefore, in accordance with the natural course of things, that a great part of this Anglo-American importation should be directed to our city, that much in return should be exported from this place, and that the prosperous condition of manufacturing districts should increase this exportation, by enlarged demands for the raw material. The outlets for our merchandise were extended, in proportion to the increase of imports, without the necessity of a reduction of our prices to a point below the standard of other European markets; and this is the most certain proof, that the extent of our sales rests upon a solid and reasonable basis, and has been apparently reduced, only because our prices were sometimes held high, in comparison with those of other markets. This change in the course of European trade gave our city, during the years from 1832 to 1836, an appearance of sudden prosperity; and we, therefore, overlooked the fact, that our more intimate relations with the Levant, and especially with Egypt, had suffered from the political events in those countries. During the tumultuous excitement in the American states, already described, the profit to be expected from a well calculated undertaking, was no longer the principal aim. Money and credit have become so abundant, that men rushed indiscriminately into every new enterprise, regardless of consequences, and the expected gain frequently resulted in total loss. To this class, belong not only the traffic in merchandise, but the wildest speculations in real estate, and in magnificent improvements, for the purpose of making these speculations more lucrative.

Canals and railroads took the lead, and the rage for them rose to such a height, that trade was regarded only as a means to procure the sums necessary for indulging in these mad speculations. But what a strange infatuation was this, to buy up wild lands in the far west, while the arable lands lying near the coast were neglected to such a degree, that the United States were compelled to import grain from Europe in large quantities. This importation, and the immense sums required for that purpose, gave the first shock to the new system. Party spirit, and the abuse of the monied power, particularly for the promotion of such objects, gave the finishing stroke, and brought on the American commercial explosion of the years 1837-8. Little as we were in a situation to judge at once of the consequences of this crisis, in all its extensive bearings upon commercial relations in general, yet its immediate influence upon our own city was very considerable in its direct results: for it not only swept away the capital of the principal houses engaged in this branch of business, but also palsied the main spring of our commerce. Meanwhile, the pecuniary loss fell more heavily on foreign than domestic interests, and everything seemed to combine, with spontaneous effort, to restore the loss.

The extension of business had made an extension of credit necessary also with us. This suffered no essential diminution from the Anglo-American convulsion. The Vienna bankers met, with the greatest readi-

ness, the increased demands; and we flattered ourselves that these embarrassments would quickly pass over, and everything would soon return to its accustomed path. We were even so sure of this, that none of the cherished expectations, with regard to the rapid growth of our port, were abandoned, and real estate still rose considerably, and became an object of speculation. But the course of trade has proved that crisis to have been neither local nor individual, but that it extended over the whole trading world; and its effects were the more paralyzing, in proportion as mercantile confidence was shaken by it, and the more it became apparent that proper bounds and limits had been but too often exceeded in every branch of business, and this excess did not at first allow its own extent to be distinctly traced. A suspension of manufactures, and consequently a smaller demand for the raw material, and a depreciation of every species of merchandise, occasioned heavy losses, and universal embarrassment, which the political events of the year 1840 increased to an alarming degree. The Bank of Austria reduced its circulation, and the supplies from thence, which had been so freely yielded, ceased; and from this cause the individual embarrassments of our city were multiplied to such a degree, that many bankruptcies were announced, and a sudden depression succeeded to the previous spirit of activity and enterprise. Trieste suddenly saw herself deprived of her resources, her importations destroyed by foreign influence, and her activity paralyzed by the falling away of her national props. Such is the history of the last year, and a true exposition of the causes which brought about the existing state of affairs.

These circumstances are certainly of a serious character, and it would be a criminal levity voluntarily to overlook them. Trieste has lost in domestic wealth,—she has lost the enlivening principle of her foreign trade, and sees the means of her national support diminished and weakened on all sides. But her site and soil still remain,—still she is the principal seaport of a large, powerful, and wealthy monarchy. Still she lies in the heart of Europe, at the centre of the most important commerce, surrounded by the most wealthy and populous provinces in the civilized world. The elements of commerce are still existing, and though the motive power required for putting them in action has for a moment received a check, still we have only to awaken this power, by the resources which lie at our command, and by a well-directed and unwearied activity.

The crisis, which for the moment has paralyzed this power, did not originate with us. No local infirmities, no individual extravagances among us, have occasioned it. It is the work of the misguided spirit of the age. Trieste was obliged to yield to its impulse, that she might not be left behind. Its consequences distress not us alone, but the whole commercial world. But the overflowing stream will retire to its natural banks, and by these must the cheering and glorious prospects of our city be hereafter bounded.

From this universal conflict, a new form of commerce must arise. Its moral formation is not yet complete, but we now occupy a position, from which we may behold its continually progressive development. Although in past ages, the force of arms, superior intelligence, and the power of accumulated capital, were able to confine trade to certain localities, yet in more recent times, all these influences have lost their controlling weight. War seems foreign to the spirit of our times. The idea of

right has taken too extensive and universal hold, to admit longer the possibility of resorting to means for promoting the general good, which must have a directly contrary effect. The intercourse of nations, and their bonds of union, are too far advanced, to permit the intelligence of any one quarter to remain inaccessible to the others. The abuse of money has manifested its destructive effects so plainly, that we should learn to beware of the consequences of new excesses. Every state, every province, every individual, will enjoy in the commerce of the world that share, which political and local relations and individual activity prescribe.

The Austrian empire is one of the mightiest in its moral and physical power. It is in the vigor of its existence, neither shackled by hyperborean prejudices, nor embarrassed by oppressive debts, on the way to regular and rapid progress, blessed with the richest productions known to trade and industry, the surplus of which abundantly supplies the few necessaries required from abroad, inhabited by a population which, as a whole, yields to no other nation in intelligence, in activity, and in domestic economy. How then can it be possible, that her seaport should not take a large and increasing share in the commerce of the world?

But Trieste is not the seaport of the Austrian empire only, but also of the German confederacy, and, as such, appointed to carry on the trade of Germany and of the Customs Union at the south. The wealthy provinces of the Turkish empire, Egypt, the most populous countries of Asia, India, and even China and the Indian archipelago, are now brought nearer to us, by the incalculable results of steam navigation, than were the United States and even the northern parts of Europe, a few years since. Their productions, which still compose the principal elements of traffic, will, at no distant period, be introduced through this port into the south of Europe, and particularly into Germany, which, in this way, will find new outlets for the productions of her growing industry. For it is impossible, that in an age proverbial for economizing time, the shortest route from India to the south of Europe, by way of the Red sea, should long remain untrodden.

The greatest triumph commerce has ever celebrated, it has achieved in our time. The states of Germany, for centuries divided among themselves, and estranged by mistaken interests, have found a new point of union, a new nationality in trade. It was reserved for commerce to incline to one common object, a population of forty millions, which in all periods of history has been in advance of its contemporaries, in civilization and intelligence, and to awaken in it a feeling of entire devotion to the national struggle to reach this goal. Can any one, after this striking example, doubt the beneficent effects of trade? What may not Germany become, if, animated by such feelings, she applies herself to trade and productive industry, with her cautious perseverance opposed to the sanguine levity of the French, and the contemptuous selfishness of the English.

But the more decisive becomes the public voice in Germany, demanding an independent commerce, the more pecuniary and intellectual strength is devoted to this object, so much the more may we hope that this German trade will bring new resources to its only southern port. Should the period arrive, as has often been suggested in recent times, when Germany should require a German navy for the protection of her commerce, certainly no other German port could supply for it cheaper

and better materials, or offer it more favorable localities. This encouraging prospect for Trieste is raised to a degree of moral certainty, by the liberal determination of our gracious emperor to connect our coast with the heart of the empire, the heart of Germany, by means of railroads. If nothing remained to us of the innumerable benefits which a quarter of a century of peace has conferred, but steam navigation and railroads, yet these two great inventions of our age, would suffice to heal the wounds which war and the errors of peace have inflicted.

Steam navigation brings the distant nations of India within our reach; railroads connect us with the Danube, the Main, and even with the Rhine and the Elbe. If, then, railroads possess a deep interest for all, for us they must have a double interest. Trieste is one of the few ports destitute of the means of water communication with the interior, and we must confess that this great defect is the cause of her having taken only a fifth rank among the commercial cities of Europe. But this deficiency is remedied at once by the introduction of railroads. The notion, that railroads were little calculated for the transportation of merchandise, or that the expense of carriage would not be perceptibly diminished by them, has been disproved by the experience of recent times, as both the northern and Raab railroads have reduced their tariff of freight to $1\frac{1}{4}$ kreutzer per cwt, the German mile,* and will be induced to lower it still further by the spirit of competition in transportation. But this idea will be still more effectually refuted, from the moment when railroads shall belong to the state, and without regard to local interests, shall be subservient only to the promotion of the general good, and when free competition in transportation shall regulate its cost. If we consider, from the above mentioned points of view, the praiseworthy resolution of the Austrian government to construct railroads upon these principles, throughout the whole extent of the empire, we can no longer doubt that they will afford us all the benefits, which a large navigable river would confer, and that brilliant prospects for the future are connected with these liberal measures. We gave our views on this subject, in the pages of this journal, two years since, and our expectations have been almost literally fulfilled. May we not be deceived in those we have just expressed!

Having noticed the new commercial routes, and the means of rendering them available, it now becomes our duty to touch upon the former course of our trade. It is not to be denied, that our intercourse with the Levant has suffered. The wars in Syria, and the vacillating policy of Turkey, in her foreign and domestic relations, must have exercised a decided influence upon the trade of her provinces, and that this influence could have been no favorable one is evident. To these circumstances are to be added, the circumstances which have transpired at the Vienna exchange, upon which the principal commercial towns of the Levant are more dependent than would appear upon a superficial view of their mutual relations. But even this dependence will serve as a proof, that the trade of the Levant can never entirely be withdrawn from our shores. In recent times, merchants have resorted to the nearest and the most remote market-places, to the one for the purchase of foreign, and to the other for the sale of domestic wares. But experience teaches, that this principle is not always a sound one. It is not the last profit on a distant

* This is about equal to \$5 per ton, the hundred miles, English.

voyage, but the competition in the market, the means of realization offered by it, and the variety of these means, that present to the merchant the surest advantage. The Levant will, accordingly, for a long time, require one or more intermediate depots for carrying on the traffic, and the Austrian port of Trieste will be able to maintain that position.

If we turn our eyes to America, we find in Brazil an independent state, which can supply our demand for unrefined sugar, and coffee, and is ready to receive in return our domestic productions. Our commercial relations with Brazil, the earliest into which we entered, are established upon a firm foundation. Our own shipping carries on a considerable share of this trade, and there is no ground to fear that we shall be compelled to relinquish this advantage.

Although our relations with the West Indies are less settled and extensive, still there is no obstacle to their improvement. Until within a few years, the Americans principally carried on this trade, but more recently some French houses undertook to monopolize the coffee trade with Cuba. This plan has failed, and when relations shall have been once established, it will not be difficult for us to obtain, in the commerce of the Antilles, a sufficient share to supply the necessities of our trade.

The United States are not unknown to our commerce. Dear-bought experience has taught us what we can safely purchase and sell in that market. If the pecuniary affairs of that remarkable country once more become settled, there is no apparent obstacle to the increase of our commercial intercourse with those states to any desirable extent. Although we can offer but a very limited market for rice and tobacco, yet Trieste may become the third cotton mart, ranking next Liverpool and Havre, and indeed is already so, to a certain degree.

We flatter ourselves we have already shown, that Trieste is calculated to concentrate, from all parts of the world, those varieties of merchandise which form the principal articles of commerce, that it therefore presents a wide field for trade, which is capable of continual extension. We have also shown, that it is not the restriction of the vital principle of commerce, nor the fault of her locality, which has brought about a crisis in her trade, but, that she was involved in an universal embarrassment, which affected all commercial places, but was more severely felt by us, because we are more dependent than others upon foreign influence, and because a new commercial town always possesses a smaller amount of accumulation, than an old one, and naturally suffers more from such shocks in trade. We have endeavored to prove, that the ground we have gained in trade is still capable of extension. But we must confess, that our trading capital is diminished, and in order to attain to this extension, an increase of capital is necessary, and if our positions are not false, we may express our hope, that this increase may be obtained, because every commodity (and money is a commodity with merchants) finds the most profitable market where it is the most scarce.

There is, however, capital enough for all our wants, but this capital is now invested in public funds, and we must not overlook the fact, that this mode of investment is the most safe and convenient that can be desired, when the object is to receive an income from it. Convenient, because the capital can at any moment be realized, and safe, because the interest will be punctually received. But dealing in public securities has still another aspect, namely, as an object of speculation, so far as these se-

curities are regarded as a commodity which promises gain. This profit, during the last twenty-five years, has been immense. For if we calculate the public debt of the five great powers at the moderate estimate of 10,000,000,000 guilders, if we assume that this debt, at the conclusion of the general peace, stood at an average of at most three-fourths its present value, (and in this we fall considerably behind the reality,) it follows, that this article has yielded a profit of 2,500,000,000 guilders. But can this state of things exist, when the average rate is 4 per cent, or must we not rather conclude that it has reached the maximum of its value, when we consider the far larger sums productive industry at present employs? We believe we are not deceived, when we assume that the future surplus of capitalists will henceforth be devoted to trade and productive industry.

We hope to find, in a careful examination of the annexed tables, proofs of the truth of the foregoing propositions, and we begin with the maritime imports and exports of our city. The amounts which embrace the total importation, presented in table No. 19, are affected not only by the fluctuations of the harvests, but also by those in the price of products, and therefore an arithmetical comparison of single years can afford no certain standard of the increase and diminution of trade. The sum total of the last ten years gives, in round numbers, the amount of 573,000,000 guilders, or a yearly average of 57,300,000.

The amount has stood at the above average twice during this period, namely, in the years 1832 and 1835. Four times it has fallen below it, namely, in the year 1833, by 10,000,000; in 1834, by 7,000,000; in 1837, by 4,000,000; and in 1841, by 8,000,000. Four times it has exceeded it. In the year 1836, by 20,000,000; in 1838, by 3,000,000; in 1839, by 6,000,000; and in 1840, by 3,000,000.

We find here two extremes—the year 1833, which fell short of the average by 10,000,000, and the year 1836, which exceeded it by 20,000,000. The diminished amount for the year 1833, is explained by the first symptoms of a commercial crisis in the United States, occasioned by the sub-treasury bill, together with the unsettled policy of Europe, the cholera, the insignificance of the corn trade, and the war of the viceroy of Egypt with the Ottoman Porte.

The decreased importation fell upon the few following articles: Table 1. coffee, 2,800,000; 3. breadstuffs, 1,600,000; 7. fruits of the Levant, 1,200,000; 14. and 15. sugar, 3,800,000; 16. sundries, 1,000,000; total, 10,400,000; and was distributed between the following countries,—(see the second table, Maritime Trade):—United States, 2,400,000; Brazil, 700,000; Turkey and Egypt, 2,500,000; England and dependencies, 3,000,000; States of the Church, 1,400,000; total, 10,000,000.

The year 1834, also, fell below the average to the amount of 8,000,000. This was occasioned by the failure of the crops in Brazil, and the consequently diminished importation of coffee and sugar, and a continued falling off in the corn trade. Table 1. coffee, (compared with 1832.) 3,200,000; 3. breadstuffs, 2,600,000; 14. and 15. sugar, 2,200,000; total, 8,000,000.

This reduction from the amount of 1832, was confined to the following countries: Brazil, 1,500,000; Turkey and Egypt, 2,700,000; States of the Church, 2,600,000; the Black sea, 1,000,000; total, 7,800,000.

The year 1835, the most prosperous for Trieste, again reached the average of 57,000,000 by an increased supply of all the raw materials required for manufactures, sugar, and above all, by the importation from

the Austrian coast, although coffee, grain, and (table 16.) sundries, fell below the amount of 1832.

The increase and diminution in different articles of trade, as compared with 1832, was balanced as follows:—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	2,500,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	1,800,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	4,000,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	500,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	300,000
“ 10.—Oil,.....	1,000,000
“ 13.—Dye-stuffs,.....	300,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	800,000
“ 16.—Sundries,.....	4,000,000
“ 18.—National products,.....	1,500,000
Total,.....	8,400,000	8,300,000

We come now to the year 1836, whose trade so far surpassed that of all former years; a result brought about by numerous causes, and particularly by the high prices of merchandise. As a proof of our position, we give the prices of the five chief articles of our trade, viz:—*

	1832.	1836.		1832.	1836.
Coffee,.....	32½	37	Cotton,.....	33	51
Sugar, raw,.....	14½	21 3.5	Oil,.....	23½	25½
“ refined,..	21	25	Grain,.....	3½	4

To this increase conspired the very considerable grain importation, the operation of the Anglo-American confederacy, the rich crops in Brazil, and the superabundant yield of oil. The surplus of the 20,000,000 over the average falls upon the following articles, compared with the trade of 1832:—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	1,200,000
“ 2.—Wax,.....	200,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	500,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	9,000,000
“ 5.—Hides,.....	200,000
“ 6.—Drugs,.....	200,000
“ 7.—Dried fruits,.....	300,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	600,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	900,000
“ 10.—Oil,.....	3,900,000
“ 13.—Dyestuffs,.....	300,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	5,400,000
“ 16.—Sundries,.....	3,300,000
“ 18.—Domestic products,.....	3,000,000
Total,.....	24,500,000	4,500,000

The increase and diminution are distributed as follows:—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,.....	4,800,000
America—Hayti,.....	300,000
“ United States,.....	2,100,000
Brazil,.....	5,400,000

* This table cannot minutely specify the prices of those articles, at these two dates, but only the average price of a hundred weight; inasmuch as they, and especially sugar, coffee, and cotton, embrace the most various qualities; but 20 per cent, at least, of the sum total, must be ascribed to these increased prices.

	Above.	Below.
Belgium,.....	400,000
France,.....	1,800,000
Greece,.....	800,000
England and dependencies,.....	2,200,000
Holland,.....	1,000,000
Turkey and Egypt,.....	5,600,000
States of the Church,.....	2,600,000
Portugal,.....	200,000
Sicily and Naples,.....	3,000,000
Total,.....	25,100,000	5,100,000

The following year, under the operation of the Anglo-American convulsion, and the depreciation of all merchandise, (for the illustration of which we give again the prices of the five chief articles, namely—

	1836.	1837.		1836.	1837.
Coffee,.....	37	23	Cotton,.....	51	41½
Sugar, raw,.....	21 3.5	17½	Oil,.....	25½	22½
“ refined,.....	25	22	Grain,.....	4	4½

must naturally fall considerably short of the preceding year, and particularly on account of the partial failure of the olive crop. But when we take into consideration the price of merchandise, the variation from the average appears less important. Compared with 1832, the difference falls upon the following articles:—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	5,300,000
“ 2.—Wax,.....	300,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	760,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	2,900,000
“ 5.—Hides,.....	300,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	100,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	250,000
“ 10.—Oil,.....	280,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	1,200,000
“ 16.—Sundries,.....	1,920,000
“ 18.—Domestic products,.....	2,000,000
6, 7, 11, & 13.—.....	780,000
Total,.....	6,010,000	10,080,000

and is distributed as follows:—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,.....	3,370,000
United States,.....	78,000
France,.....	700,000
Hayti,.....	590,000
Brazil,.....	1,670,000
Greece,.....	400,000
Great Britain and dependencies,.....	4,200,000
Holland and dependencies,.....	1,450,000
Turkish empire,.....	920,000
States of the Church,.....	2,400,000
Portugal,.....	750,000
Naples and Sicily,.....	960,000
Sardinia,.....	480,000
Black sea,.....	70,000
Sweden, Tuscany, and Hanse Towns,.....	450,000
Total,.....	7,248,000	11,240,000

The year 1838, (when the Anglo-American convulsion seemed to have

subsidized, and it was hoped that its influence might be counteracted by new enterprises,) again exceeded the average; and the surplus fell upon the following articles, compared with the trade of 1832 :—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	3,000,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	550,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	3,000,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	400,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	200,000
“ 10.—Oil,.....	150,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	2,000,000
“ 16.—Sundries,.....	1,200,000
“ 18.—Domestic products,.....	2,000,000
Total,.....	7,750,000	4,750,000

and was divided between the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,.....	2,600,000
United States,.....	400,000
Brazil,.....	200,000
France,.....	290,000
Greece,.....	900,000
England and dependencies,.....	2,100,000
Holland and dependencies,.....	2,900,000
Turkey,.....	2,900,000
States of the Church,.....	2,300,000
Black sea,.....	1,900,000
Sardinia,.....	965,000
Sicily,.....	760,000
Spain and dependencies,.....	700,000
Various countries,.....	430,000
Total,.....	11,225,000	8,120,000

The two following years also exceeded the average; the first by 6,000,000, distributed as follows :—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	3,400,000
“ 2.—Wax,.....	200,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	1,000,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	1,500,000
“ 5.—Hides,.....	580,000
“ 7.—Southern fruits,.....	300,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	470,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	500,000
“ 10.—Oil,.....	300,000
“ 13.—Dyestuffs,.....	960,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	2,300,000
“ 18.—Domestic products,.....	3,500,000
Total,.....	10,810,000	4,200,000

divided among the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,.....	3,900,000
United States,.....	600,000
Hayti,.....	300,000
Brazil,.....	2,300,000
France,.....	700,000
Greece,.....	1,000,000
England and dependencies,.....	2,000,000
Holland,.....	2,400,000

	Above.	Below.
Turkey,.....	760,000
States of the Church,.....	1,800,000
Black sea,.....	1,000,000
Sardinia,.....	360,000
Sicily,.....	500,000
Tuscany,.....	200,000
Total,.....	11,920,000	5,900,000

The smaller surplus of 1840 was confined chiefly to cotton and domestic productions, but falls upon other kinds of merchandise as follows, compared with the trade of 1832 :—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	1,200,000
“ 2.—Wax,.....	600,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	160,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	2,200,000
“ 5.—Hides,.....	250,000
“ 6.—Drugs,.....	540,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	170,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	100,000
“ 10.—Oil,.....	560,000
“ 13.—Dyestuffs,.....	650,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	800,000
“ 16.—Sundries,.....	4,560,000
“ 18.—Domestic products,.....	4,000,000
Total,.....	9,430,000	6,360,000

and upon the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,.....	5,180,000
United States,.....	1,880,000
Hayti,.....	90,000
Brazil,.....	2,160,000
France,.....	200,000
Greece,.....	500,000
England and dependencies,.....	3,000,000
Holland,.....	1,560,000
Turkey,.....	360,000
States of the Church,.....	1,870,000
Portugal,.....	630,000
Black sea,.....	1,800,000
Sardinia,.....	280,000
Sicily,.....	600,000
Spain,.....	800,000
Tuscany and Sweden,.....	300,000
Total,.....	12,080,000	9,130,000

The year 1841 requires no particular remark, as we have already noticed at length our local crisis ; which, however, was not confined to us, but extended both to England and the United States.

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,.....	3,438,000
“ 2.—Wax,.....	488,000
“ 3.—Breadstuffs,.....	1,937,000
“ 4.—Cotton,.....	1,408,000
“ 5.—Hides,.....	460,000
“ 6.—Drugs,.....	546,000
“ 7.—Dried fruits,.....	1,050,000
“ 8.—Wool,.....	10,000
“ 9.—Metals,.....	125,000

	Above.	Below.
Table 10.—Oil,.....	630,000
“ 11.—Dried fish,.....	194,000
“ 12.—Brandy,.....	84,000
“ 13.—Manufactures,.....	240,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,.....	525,000
“ 16.—Sundries,.....	2,149,000
“ 18.—Domestic products,.....	3,000,000
Total,.....	4,340,000	11,944,000

From the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,.....	3,400,000
United States,.....	520,000
Hayti,.....	520,000
Brazil,.....	160,000
Hanse Towns,.....	140,000
Belgium,.....	100,000
France,.....	400,000
Greece,.....	1,140,000
England and dependencies,.....	5,200,000
Holland,.....	1,840,000
Turkey,.....	1,800,000
States of the Church,.....	1,700,000
Portugal,.....	876,000
Black sea,.....	2,400,000
Sicily and Naples,.....	260,000
Spain,.....	880,000
Sweden,.....	110,000
Tuscany,.....	230,000
Total,.....	6,900,000	14,776,000

If, from the detailed analysis of the last ten years, we proceed to the results in regard to importation in general, it will become apparent that, except the few fluctuations, the cause of which we have already shown, there has been a constant increase in it. The fact that the year 1832 reached the average of 57,000,000, must be ascribed to the large importation of coffee and grain, to the great supply of cotton from Egypt, and to the unusual influx of merchandise of every description direct from England; as the uncertain condition of Greece, Egypt, and the Levant, rendered direct shipments to those countries inadvisable. If we ascribe to these united causes the weight they deserve, the falling off in the next year will appear less important than the first view of the amounts would indicate; and from that period a gradual increase has been perceptible, especially if we take the years 1836 and 1837 together. The reasons that the past year has not shown a similar increase, and that the present also will show none, are to be found in our local crisis; but, that we have an outlet for even a higher amount than the average, is proved by the smallness of our stock at the close of the year. Although the average of the five years next preceding the year 1841 amounts to 62,000,000, and the amount in 1841 was but 60,000,000, we should not hence infer a decrease in our trade; for it is but a consequence of the existing check, concerning which we have already spoken at length.

Upon examining Table No. 2, exhibiting our commerce with different countries, we arrive at the following tabular division of our trade, namely: Coast of Austria; America—(a) United States, (b) Brazil; the Levant; Greece; Naples, Sicily, and the States of the Church; the Black sea;

the European ports of depot—(a) England, (b) France, (c) Holland; the ports of the Mediterranean.

Our trade with our own coast exhibits an uninterrupted increase, and has almost doubled during the last ten years; a cheering proof that our prosperity has not only a solid foundation, but is in full progress.

IMPORTS FROM THE AUSTRIAN COAST.

1832,.....	6,618,500	1837,.....	9,990,800
1833,.....	8,900,000	1838,.....	9,250,500
1834,.....	8,998,000	1839,.....	10,500,000
1835,.....	9,500,000	1840,.....	10,800,000
1836,.....	11,474,000	1841,.....	10,000,000

As a producing country, able to control the disposal of its own products, Brazil has a surpassing interest for us; since we are there not only upon an equal footing with all other nations, but may hope, in time, to pay in our own products, in part, for what we thence import. We derive from thence two of our principal articles, sugar and coffee. Our flag is largely employed in this commerce, and our relations are on a firm footing. Our imports from Brazil, during the whole ten years, with the exception of the usual fluctuations from abundant or defective crops, exhibit a constant increase, especially if we take the years 1836 and 1837 together. Nothing leads us to expect that this portion of our trade, which is capable of farther gradual extension, will experience any check.

IMPORTS FROM BRAZIL.

1832,.....	6,839,000	1837,.....	5,165,000
1833,.....	6,155,000	1838,.....	7,000,000
1834,.....	5,326,000	1839,.....	9,135,000
1835,.....	6,700,000	1840,.....	9,000,000
1836,.....	12,134,500	1841,.....	7,000,000

The annexed table shows a less considerable variation in our trade with the United States than might be expected from our introductory observations. This is explained by the fact that the greater part of American ships, which brought colonial merchandise, came from intermediate ports; the principal article we receive direct from the United States being cotton. With the exception of the year 1836, on account of the high price of cotton, and the year 1840, on account of the unusual quantity which was ordered by reason of its cheapness, the amount of the importation has been between three and four millions; but this must increase considerably, as the demand for cotton is larger, and importations from intermediate depots will cease when once more regularity and confidence in the American trade shall arise from the existing chaos. Our exportation thither is the most considerable which we have to any part of America; and, when confidence and system shall be once more restored, is capable of very great increase.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

1832,.....	3,422,300	1837,.....	3,700,000
1833,.....	1,246,000	1838,.....	3,000,000
1834,.....	3,563,000	1839,.....	3,000,000
1835,.....	4,000,000	1840,.....	5,500,000
1836,.....	5,705,500	1841,.....	3,100,000

The trade with the Levant, or, to speak more properly, with the Turkish empire, is more exposed than any other to the fluctuations arising from more or less abundant harvests. It cannot, therefore, be expected

that any fixed regularity should be established in that branch of trade. If we regard the general result, it cannot be considered unfavorable; for, making allowance for the above views, the greater or less exports of grain from the mouths of the Danube, and the political condition of these countries, (which, however, is now permanently settled, and will cease to exert a baneful influence,) it cannot be regarded as having, on the whole, diminished.

IMPORTS FROM EGYPT AND OTHER PORTS.

1832,.....	4,048,000	5,908,100	1837,.....	3,033,700	7,841,500
1833,.....	3,898,000	3,500,000	1838,.....	4,500,000	8,400,000
1834,.....	2,772,000	4,472,600	1839,.....	2,600,000	8,115,000
1835,.....	3,000,000	5,628,700	1840,.....	2,500,000	7,095,000
1836,.....	5,904,000	9,711,100	1841,.....	2,300,000	5,790,000

Our trade with Greece has been constantly increasing; and, in the course of the last year, has reached a higher amount than at any previous period.

IMPORTS FROM GREECE.

1832,.....	924,200	1837,.....	1,324,800
1833,.....	1,212,000	1838,.....	1,800,000
1834,.....	1,773,600	1839,.....	2,000,000
1835,.....	1,200,600	1840,.....	1,430,000
1836,.....	1,728,700	1841,.....	2,060,000

Our commerce with the States of the Church amounted, in the year 1832, to an unusually large sum. This is explained by the very considerable exportation of grain from the March of Ancona, which extended into a part of the next year. Laying aside these two years, the succeeding eight years offer no great variation; and, upon the whole, the imports show a greater amount, and, of course, indicate no decline of trade.

IMPORTS FROM THE STATES OF THE CHURCH.

1832,.....	3,875,600	1837,.....	1,500,000
1833,.....	2,500,000	1838,.....	1,600,000
1834,.....	1,220,500	1839,.....	2,000,000
1835,.....	2,000,000	1840,.....	2,000,000
1836,.....	1,268,600	1841,.....	2,200,000

The imports from Naples and Sicily also continue steadily to increase, without any considerable variation, if we except the abundant olive harvest of 1836.

IMPORTS FROM NAPLES AND SICILY.

1832,.....	3,944,500	1837,.....	4,900,000
1833,.....	3,821,000	1838,.....	4,700,000
1834,.....	3,628,000	1839,.....	4,500,000
1835,.....	4,844,800	1840,.....	4,550,000
1836,.....	6,957,200	1841,.....	4,200,000

England ranks first among the European states engaged in the intermediate trade; but, in proportion as we emancipate ourselves from this intervention, our imports will be reduced, especially since refined sugar is no longer an article of import. Were it not for an occasional importation of cotton from the English markets, engines, and railroad iron, this branch of our trade would have fallen off still more; and we must be prepared for a still farther decline. Among the dependencies of England, Malta and the Ionian isles are of some importance to us, and our traffic with them is subject to very little variation. With the Antilles, we have scarcely any intercourse.

IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.					
Years.	Direct.	Dependencies.	Years.	Direct.	Dependencies.
1832,.....	9,523,300	963,000	1837,.....	5,800,000	430,000
1833,.....	6,700,000	670,000	1838,.....	7,400,000	956,000
1834,.....	9,717,800	1,097,300	1839,.....	8,000,000	510,000
1835,.....	7,000,000	1,128,000	1840,.....	6,645,000	760,000
1836,.....	7,416,400	775,600	1841,.....	4,500,000	725,000

In the early part of the period we have been considering, large quantities of refined sugar, and afterwards much colonial merchandise and cotton, were imported from France, chiefly from the port of Marseilles; but this is to be regarded as an occasional trade, which will be of but short continuance.

IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.			
1832,.....	2,290,500	1837,.....	1,583,000
1833,.....	1,600,000	1838,.....	2,000,000
1834,.....	1,275,000	1839,.....	3,000,000
1835,.....	2,600,000	1840,.....	2,500,000
1836,.....	4,122,200	1841,.....	1,900,000

The importation from Holland consists almost exclusively in refined sugar, and will sustain itself so long as the present sugar laws of that state remain in force. It has increased almost tenfold since 1834. We can only occasionally import from Leghorn and Genoa. That trade is of but minor importance.

IMPORTS FROM HOLLAND AND DEPENDENCIES.			
1832,.....	56,000	1837,.....	1,511,000
1833,.....	280,000	1838,.....	2,998,000
1834,.....	435,400	1839,.....	2,500,000
1835,.....	589,600	1840,.....	1,620,000
1836,.....	1,125,200	1841,.....	1,900,000

Our exportation forms the weak point of our commerce. One-half of this goes to our own ports—that is, to the ports on the Austrian coast; but from some of these, as Venice, Chiozza, and Ponte Santa Maria Madalena, a great portion is sent to Southern Germany and Switzerland. Hence, there are fluctuations in the amount of this trade, in proportion to the greater or less demand, in those markets, for Brazil coffee and Egyptian cotton. This depends upon our prices; and when they are so high that we are obliged to import cotton from Marseilles and Liverpool, and coffee from Holland, Bordeaux, and Marseilles, this branch of our trade must be reduced.

EXPORTS FROM THE AUSTRIAN COAST.			
1832,.....	22,640,400	1837,.....	22,500,000
1833,.....	19,968,300	1838,.....	22,200,000
1834,.....	19,654,300	1839,.....	20,700,000
1835,.....	19,500,000	1840,.....	18,690,000
1836,.....	25,230,000	1841,.....	14,400,000

Our exports to the Levant and Egypt have, within certain limits, remained uniform; but a branch of business which is not gaining ground, is losing. Still, we may indulge the hope that it will increase, when the effects of their long-continued civil disturbances shall be less apparent; when Egypt shall return to the cultivation of her rich soil, and enjoy the blessing of a more liberal trade; when Syria shall be pacified; and, above all, when the remaining provinces of the Grand Seignor possess a better pecuniary system.

EXPORTS FROM EGYPT AND TURKEY.

Years.	Egypt.	Turkey.	Years.	Egypt.	Turkey.
1832,.....	1,521,300	5,594,300	1837,.....	1,130,000	5,238,200
1833,.....	1,500,000	4,300,000	1838,.....	1,110,200	4,416,400
1834,.....	1,655,800	4,638,800	1839,.....	800,000	4,000,000
1835,.....	930,000	6,504,200	1840,.....	565,000	4,725,000
1836,.....	1,717,000	8,000,000	1841,.....	1,280,000	5,092,000

Greece is slowly advancing towards a European civilization, and we may confidently hope that our exports thither will increase in proportion to this advance in civilization, as has already been experienced with regard to the past.

EXPORTS FROM GREECE.

Years.	Exports.	Years.	Exports.
1832,.....	829,000	1837,.....	1,200,000
1833,.....	1,800,000	1838,.....	1,511,100
1834,.....	1,172,300	1839,.....	3,000,000
1835,.....	1,408,600	1840,.....	1,910,000
1836,.....	1,331,200	1841,.....	2,000,000

The amount of our exports to the States of the Church, Naples, and Sicily, is rather stationary than decreasing.

EXPORTS FROM THE STATES OF THE CHURCH, SICILY, AND NAPLES.

Years.	States of the Church.	Sicily and Naples.	Years.	States of the Church.	Sicily and Naples.
1832,.....	4,078,000	2,161,600	1837,.....	4,300,000	1,122,300
1833,.....	4,700,000	1,500,000	1838,.....	3,500,000	1,703,400
1834,.....	5,387,000	1,518,500	1839,.....	3,300,000	1,500,000
1835,.....	6,500,000	2,000,000	1840,.....	3,670,000	2,250,000
1836,.....	4,495,500	1,297,300	1841,.....	4,200,000	2,020,000

Our exports to England fluctuate, according to the progress of manufactures and the corn trade, but must be reckoned among the most important branches of our commerce.

EXPORTS FROM ENGLAND AND DEPENDENCIES.

Years.	England.	Depend.	Years.	England.	Depend.
1832,.....	1,192,000	1,075,400	1837,.....	3,252,000	1,380,000
1833,.....	2,200,000	703,000	1838,.....	2,952,000	593,400
1834,.....	2,782,300	1,072,400	1839,.....	8,060,000	678,000
1835,.....	2,784,500	863,200	1840,.....	3,500,000	980,000
1836,.....	4,021,600	1,382,600	1841,.....	2,700,000	760,000

We have already spoken of our exports to Brazil and the United States. With both, they will increase in importance when we shall be better informed concerning the wants of those countries, which we can advantageously supply.

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES AND BRAZIL.

Years.	U. States.	Brazil.	Years.	U. States.	Brazil.
1832,.....	872,500	194,000	1837,.....	1,132,600	345,500
1833,.....	525,000	211,000	1838,.....	620,000	273,000
1834,.....	617,200	337,300	1839,.....	1,002,000	300,000
1835,.....	1,617,700	152,200	1840,.....	710,000	450,000
1836,.....	1,730,200	234,700	1841,.....	785,000	250,000

In fine, if we contemplate the exports of domestic productions, we shall perceive, almost without exception, a very considerable increase. Table 1. paper; 2. breadstuffs; 3. metallic wares; 5. flour; 13. domestic manufactures, have doubled. All other merchandise has increased considerably, with the single exception of crockery, which is excluded by the cheapness of the English ware.

What a different form may not our exportation assume, when once the

long-cherished wish of bringing Hungary nearer to our shores shall be realized. Hungary is, in fact, the most abundantly productive country of Europe—we repeat, the most abundantly productive land of Europe; for what other can compete with it, in variety and value of products, all of a character to take a place in general commerce? when, at length, not only shall its means of transport be brought to a reasonably convenient and uniform condition; but, above all, the loss of time, to which this trade is at present exposed, and which deters all attempts to establish commercial relations, shall be saved. But that these two obstacles can be removed, and that without great difficulty, has been abundantly proved by careful surveys, which have been undertaken with reference to this important object. From the moment when railroads, and improvement of the rivers, shall put it in our power to make a market for the rich harvests of Hungary, that country is sure to find a regular outlet for them. Then Trieste will no longer be limited to carrying on the corn trade of her near and distant neighbors, but will become a corn market of the first rank. Then our German countrymen will no longer need to seek, beneath the glowing sky of the West Indies and Brazil, or even in New Zealand and the Chatham islands, a resting-place, which separates them forever from their country and friends; but they will be able to reap a rich reward for their industry nearer home, in the fertile fields of Hungary, the Bannat, and the picturesque and beautiful vales of Servia.

Much has been said concerning the decline of our trade in the fruits of the south, the greater portion of them being now transported direct from the islands and Smyrna to the north of Europe; but, admitting this, it is to be observed that, in this trade, recourse is had to the intervention of our commercial houses, and that our exports to the northern ports, at least during the last ten years, have not diminished, but increased; as appears from the following table:—

NORTHERN TRADE.					
Exportation to	1832.	1833,	1834.	1835.	1836.
Hanse Towns,.....	572,500	488,300	764,600	460,000
Belgium,.....	120,700	90,700	114,000
Denmark,.....	20,700	50,800	39,400	70,600
Holland,.....	309,300	330,000	289,600	337,600	364,700
Prussia,.....	214,000	440,000	125,400	130,000	189,700
Russia on the Baltic,...	94,200	46,700	120,000	86,000
Total,.....	1,210,700	820,800	1,070,700	1,482,300	1,285,000

NORTHERN TRADE—Continued.					
Exportation to	1837.	1838,	1839.	1840.	1841.
Hanse Towns,.....	533,300	440,000	500,000	430,000	500,000
Belgium,.....	92,800	150,000	130,000	180,000
Denmark,.....	40,000	25,900	40,000	50,000	30,000
Holland,.....	300,000	670,000	500,000	380,000	390,000
Prussia,.....	95,000	200,000	200,000	230,000
Russia on the Baltic,...	154,700	85,000	20,000	90,000
Total,.....	1,120,800	1,315,900	1,410,000	1,280,000	1,330,000

Similar results are shown by the oil trade, which, according to Table 10, has likewise rather increased than diminished; as the year 1836 (the abundant harvest of which forms an exception to the general rule) will not furnish us a standard.

We refer our readers, in fine, to the commercial view of the free port

of Trieste, in the year 1841, appended to No. 18, in which they will find, in minute detail, farther accurate information respecting our trade, which supplies so many numerical proofs in support of our propositions. We have extracted from it the exportation, both by land and sea, from Trieste to other Austrian ports, of the four chief articles of trade, namely: coffee, sugar, cotton, and oil, so far as means of accurate information exist:—

EXPORTATION OF COFFEE, SUGAR, WOOL, AND OIL, TO AUSTRIAN PORTS—(by quintals.)

Coffee.							
Year.	By land.	By sea.	Total.	Year.	By land.	By sea.	Total.
1835,	58,200	44,950	163,150	1839,	75,000	35,300	128,300
1836,	70,700	58,530	129,230	1840,	80,000	59,000	139,000
1837,	68,840	59,215	128,055	1841,	75,753	52,000	127,753
1838,	72,310	36,500	108,810				
Oil.							
1835,	56,760	67,320	124,080	1839,	135,000	20,000	155,000
1836,	109,300	77,850	187,150	1840,	110,000	40,000	150,000
1837,	110,490	35,307	145,797	1841,	85,000	63,000	148,000
1838,	109,000	22,600	131,600				
Wool.							
1835,	115,670	27,950	143,620	1839,	90,552	58,984	149,536
1836,	146,394	86,188	232,582	1840,	110,898	70,786	181,684
1837,	113,040	104,521	217,561	1841,	120,000	67,295	187,295
1838,	115,110	96,404	211,514				
Sugar.							
1835,	230,600	111,720	342,320	1839,	270,000	151,000	421,000
1836,	233,300	120,970	354,270	1840,	260,000	157,000	417,000
1837,	267,375	140,530	407,905	1841,	231,887	177,850	408,737
1838,	231,457	143,100	374,557				

These numbers exhibit no decline, but rather a gradual increase in our trade; and we close our view of the commerce of Trieste with the following tables:—

MARITIME TRADE OF THE PORT OF TRIESTE, FROM 1832 TO 1841, INCLUSIVE.

Countries whence.	1832.			1841.		
	VESSELS.		Val. of goods.	VESSELS.		Val. of goods.
	Sq. rig.	Coast's.		Sq. rig.	Coast's.	
Austrian coasts,.....	40	4,300	6,618,500	90	6,465	10,000,000
United States,.....	35	3,622,300	37	3,100,000
St. Domingo,.....	6	589,800	2	70,000
Brazil,.....	86	6,839,000	87	7,000,000
Argentine Republic,.....
Republic of Colombia,.....
Coasts of the Pacific,.....
Hanover,.....
Hanse Towns,.....	9	290,600	5	150,000
Belgium,.....	5	100,000
Denmark,.....
France,.....	50	2,290,500	53	1,900,000
Algiers,.....	5
Greece,.....	76	924,200	124	206,000
Great Britain,.....	87	9,523,300	41	4,500,000
Gibraltar and Malta,.....	14	345,200	15	350,000
Antilles,.....	1	25,000
Ionian islands,.....	46	561,100	31	350,000
Holland in Europe,.....	3	56,000	34	1,900,000
East India possessions,.....

VESSELS ARRIVING AT, AND GOODS IMPORTED INTO, TRIESTE—Continued.

Countries whence.	1832.			1841.		
	Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Ionian islands,.....	46	561,100	31	350,000
Holland in Europe,.....	3	56,000	34	1,900,000
East India possessions,.....
Ottoman empire—Egypt,.....	76	4,048,500	62	2,300,000
“ Black Sea,.....	9	280,000	38	650,000
“ Other ports,.....	209	5,628,100	211	5,140,000
Papal States,.....	14	560	3,875,600	24	467	2,200,000
Portugal,.....	14	1,016,800	2	140,000
Cape de Verd islands,.....
Prussia,.....
Russia—Baltic Sea,.....
“ Black Sea,.....	134	3,051,500	26	630,000
Sardinia,.....	21	535,800	16	500,000
Sicily,.....	86	280	3,944,500	89	232	4,200,000
Spain in Europe,.....	5	115,400	6	150,000
“ America,.....	18	2,042,800	19	1,195,000
“ India,.....	1	69,400
Sweden and Norway,.....	17	250,500	6	140,000
Tuscany,.....	17	480,600	9	250,000
Total,.....	1,073	5,140	57,000,000	1,038	7,164	49,000,000

FLAGS.

Austrian,.....	513	4,552	25,399,000	521	6,561	23,700,000
United States,.....	45	5,292,000	45	3,800,000
Brazilian,.....
Hanoverian,.....	7	127,300	3	160,000
Hanse,.....	1	12,500	13	550,000
Belgian,.....
Danish,.....	14	655,600	21	1,300,000
French,.....	4	290,600	16	400,000
Greek,.....	93	1,591,100	151	3,000,000
English,.....	165	13,823,000	58	3,800,000
Ionian,.....	14	170,400	19	200,000
Dutch,.....	4	198,800	26	1,200,000
Turkish,.....	3	11,500	7	60,000
Papal,.....	41	375	2,961,800	26	392	2,700,000
Portuguese,.....	1	60,000
Prussian,.....	2	300,000
Russian,.....	28	84,800	17	1,150,000
Sardinian,.....	38	1,274,500	16	600,000
Sicilian,.....	77	213	4,192,500	56	211	3,850,000
Spanish,.....	4	87,100	11	530,000
Swedish and Norwegian,.....	19	779,300	23	1,500,000
Tuscan,.....	3	48,200	6	140,000
Total,.....	1,073	5,140	57,000,000	1,038	7,164	49,000,000

DEPARTURES OF VESSELS, AND GOODS EXPORTED FROM TRIESTE.

The following table shows the number of square-rigged and coastwise vessels departing from the port of Trieste, and the value of merchandise exported in the same, for 1832 and 1841 :—

Destination.	1832.			1841.		
	Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Austrian coasts,.....	77	4,931	22,640,400	141	7,256	14,400,000
United States,.....	23	872,500	21	785,000
St. Domingo,.....

DEPARTURES OF VESSELS, AND GOODS EXPORTED FROM TRIESTE—Continued.

Destination.	1832.			1841.		
	VESSELS. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	VESSELS. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Brazil,.....	15	194,000	12	250,000
Argentine Republic,.....
Republic of Colombia,.....
Coasts of the Pacific,.....	2	80,000
Hanover,.....
Hanse Towns,.....	21	572,500	16	500,000
Belgium,.....	8	180,000
Denmark,.....	1	20,700	1	30,000
France,.....	77	1,333,700	58	1,300,000
Algiers,.....	39	300,000
Greece,.....	124	829,000	165	2,000,000
Great Britain,.....	38	1,192,000	67	2,700,000
Gibraltar and Malta,.....	36	386,000	15	200,000
Antilles,.....	1
Ionian islands,.....	116	689,400	65	560,000
Holland in Europe,.....	14	309,300	9	390,000
East India possessions,.....
Ottoman empire—Egypt,.....	63	1,521,300	39	1,280,000
“ Black sea, ..	4	21,500	6	87,000
“ Other ports, ..	230	5,572,800	167	5,005,000
Papal States,.....	35	544	4,078,000	47	416	4,200,000
Portugal,.....	10	100,800	3	113,000
Cape de Verd islands,.....	3
Prussia,.....	9	214,000	8	230,000
Russia—Baltic sea,.....	3	94,200
“ Black sea,.....	20	400,000	17	200,000
Sardinia,.....	44	468,400	9	260,000
Sicily,.....	90	206	2,161,600	90	328	2,020,000
Spain in Europe,.....	11	38,300	17	190,000
“ America,.....	3	7,000	2	5,000
“ India,.....
Sweden and Norway,.....	1	400	1	21,000
Tuscany,.....	14	282,200	6	214,000
Total,.....	1,079	5,681	44,000,000	1,035	8,000	37,500,000
FLAGS.						
Austrian,.....	529	5,099	33,674,500	507	7,381	25,000,000
United States,.....	44	700,000	45	750,000
Brazilian,.....
Hanoverian,.....	6	138,000	3	20,000
Hanse,.....	1	32,000	14	270,000
Belgian,.....	1	32,000
Danish,.....	12	223,000	22	350,000
French,.....	4	59,000	17	565,000
Greek,.....	91	916,500	146	1,450,000
English,.....	165	2,264,000	67	1,600,000
Ionian,.....	14	74,200	19	200,000
Dutch,.....	4	70,300	26	273,000
Turkish,.....	3	4,100	8	35,000
Papal,.....	42	373	2,500,000	25	395	3,500,000
Portuguese,.....	1	25,000
Prussian,.....	1
Russian,.....	24	380,300	16	190,000
Sardinian,.....	42	394,400	17	250,000
Sicilian,.....	77	209	2,300,000	55	224	2,000,000
Spanish,.....	3	48,300	12	215,000
Swedish and Norwegian,.....	15	169,700	27	650,000
Tuscan,.....	3	51,700	6	125,000
Total,.....	1,079	5,681	44,000,000	1,035	8,000	37,500,000

MARITIME COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF TRIESTE, FROM 1831 to 1842, INCLUSIVE.

Imports of Trieste, from 1832 to 1841.

The Tables I. to XVI. contain foreign products in detail. Table XVII., sum total of do. Table XVIII., domestic products. Table XIX., grand total.

TABLE I.—Coffee.			TABLE II.—Breadstuffs.		TABLE III.—Breadstuffs & Oil-seeds.	
Years.	Centner,* or cwt.	Value in florins.†	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Bushels.	Value in florins.
1832,	256,000	8,348,000	14,444	1,100,000	1,207,000	4,537,000
1833,	158,000	5,530,000	11,697	808,790	900,500	2,902,500
1834,	161,000	5,152,000	6,732	441,000	550,000	1,900,000
1835,	172,500	5,800,000	11,711	1,006,000	700,000	2,700,000
1836,	260,000	9,620,000	11,000	880,000	1,004,000	4,016,000
1837,	132,500	3,047,500	8,581	772,300	1,350,000	5,300,000
1838,	213,500	5,444,250	9,116	861,000	927,900	4,175,550
1839,	188,500	4,901,000	11,000	980,000	1,174,000	5,545,000
1840,	274,600	7,139,600	5,175	477,750	1,150,600	4,700,000
1841,	184,550	4,910,000	6,775	612,600	660,000	2,600,000

TABLE IV.—Cotton.			TABLE V.—Hides.		TABLE VI.—Drugs.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	186,800	6,170,400	29,490	1,403,800	55,551	1,536,000
1833,	123,380	6,199,600	59,212	2,539,500	36,060	1,601,795
1834,	127,485	6,007,700	93,473	3,790,800	60,962	1,674,670
1835,	187,354	10,084,800	38,071	1,601,350	56,902	1,438,600
1836,	294,580	15,159,000	31,107	1,208,650	49,101	1,712,000
1837,	217,580	9,075,500	27,850	1,102,600	51,910	1,352,000
1838,	241,274	8,853,500	46,810	1,587,360	54,545	1,291,000
1839,	159,258	7,640,000	46,000	1,980,200	45,875	1,451,750
1840,	249,600	8,381,000	38,625	1,660,000	66,000	2,000,000
1841,	141,310	4,762,500	48,700	1,867,000	30,529	980,830

TABLE VII.—Dried Fruits.			TABLE VIII.—Wool & Hair.		TABLE IX.—Metals & Min.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	265,000	2,650,000	16,000	490,000	84,000	688,000
1833,	123,500	1,482,000	14,000	440,000	60,000	606,000
1834,	168,325	2,060,200	20,900	606,500	100,000	1,040,000
1835,	216,000	2,786,000	23,120	986,090	90,600	981,500
1836,	170,463	2,367,300	31,560	1,112,800	115,400	1,590,000
1837,	151,800	2,412,500	17,650	606,750	78,700	952,000
1838,	202,000	2,700,000	23,840	900,390	77,710	897,100
1839,	135,700	1,956,000	24,170	868,500	111,740	1,110,500
1840,	191,000	2,674,300	18,224	659,800	92,900	792,700
1841,	181,360	1,600,000	15,000	500,080	68,320	565,000

TABLE X.—Oil of Olives.			TABLE XI.—Salt and dried Fish.		TABLE XII.—Spirits.	
Years.	Orne.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	153,000	3,543,700	39,330	394,200	19,215	261,000
1833,	215,000	4,421,000	37,200	313,500	29,380	442,800
1834,	189,000	4,500,000	33,700	294,000	25,000	334,000
1835,	172,500	4,490,000	51,600	437,000	24,337	322,600
1836,	293,000	7,433,000	51,800	374,700	17,767	360,280
1837,	142,800	3,265,000	30,300	222,900	24,270	527,000
1838,	164,000	3,700,000	32,270	333,270	23,200	427,800
1839,	130,000	3,200,000	28,750	300,000	30,957	540,000
1840,	153,500	4,100,000	22,160	234,000	24,444	320,200
1841,	145,500	4,170,000	20,000	200,700	15,000	177,000

* The Austrian centner, or one hundred weight, is equal to 123½ lbs. avoirdupois.

† The florin is worth 48½ cents United States currency, and 60 kreutzers make one florin.

TABLE XIII.—Dye-stuffs.			TABLE XIV.—Raw Sugar.		TABLE XV.—Refined Sugar.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	64,000	1,004,000	391,000	5,575,000	109,000	2,280,000
1833,	58,000	980,000	224,000	2,949,400	51,000	1,085,600
1834,	65,000	900,000	293,000	4,476,200	57,000	1,141,800
1835,	53,800	1,325,000	360,100	7,851,000	39,900	950,000
1836,	44,000	1,300,000	500,000	10,802,000	100,000	2,500,000
1837,	27,200	816,000	285,000	5,000,000	75,000	1,650,000
1838,	45,000	1,100,000	402,650	7,000,000	146,000	3,000,000
1839,	73,500	1,967,000	473,500	8,200,000	106,000	2,000,000
1840,	82,000	1,650,000	426,050	7,040,000	80,000	1,630,000
1841,	69,000	1,240,000	338,400	4,627,500	154,950	2,703,000

The following table exhibits the value of sundries, not enumerated in the above tables; the total value of foreign products, and the total value of domestic products; and the grand total value of all importations into Trieste in each year, from 1832 to 1841, inclusive:—

Years.	TABLE XVI.	TABLE XVII.	TABLE XVIII.	TABLE XIX.
	Sundries. Value in florins.	Tot. For. Products. Value in florins.	Tot. Dom. Products. Value in florins.	Grand total. Value in florins.
1832.....	10,822,800	51,000,000	6,000,000	57,000,000
1833.....	9,797,515	42,100,000	4,900,000	47,000,000
1834.....	9,681,130	44,000,000	6,000,000	50,000,000
1835.....	6,740,060	49,500,000	7,500,000	57,000,000
1836.....	7,564,270	68,000,000	9,000,000	77,000,000
1837.....	8,898,450	45,000,000	8,000,000	53,000,000
1838.....	9,678,280	51,949,500	8,050,500	60,000,000
1839.....	10,860,050	53,500,000	9,500,000	63,000,000
1840.....	6,420,650	50,000,000	10,000,000	60,000,000
1841.....	8,673,790	40,000,000	9,000,000	49,000,000

NOTE.—These tables contain only foreign, and such domestic products as are imported by sea.

Explanations.—Table VI. Drugs embrace cocoa, cinnamon, cassia, gums, pepper, allspice, tea, and ginger. Table XIII.—Dyestuffs—embraces madder, sulflower, galls, Persian berries, indigo, and dye-woods.

Exports of Trieste, from 1832 to 1841.

The Tables I. to XVI. contain domestic products in detail. Table XVII. total of do. Table XVIII. total foreign products. Table XIX. grand total.

TABLE I.—Paper.			TABLE II.—Breadstuffs & Oil-seeds.		TABLE III.—Metal mfn.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Bush.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	13,180	195,000	50,000	158,900	3,200	321,500
1833,	16,210	240,000	60,000	200,100	3,500	360,200
1834,	20,350	310,500	58,000	182,000	4,100	405,900
1835,	20,360	330,000	62,000	190,000	4,900	500,000
1836,	27,050	401,400	70,000	227,500	6,000	589,000
1837,	20,110	300,100	65,000	198,700	5,200	550,000
1838,	26,140	390,350	100,000	350,000	4,800	500,000
1839,	25,000	400,740	81,000	286,000	5,300	520,000
1840,	36,700	501,280	75,000	230,000	6,000	590,000
1841,	42,500	537,500	80,000	300,000	6,700	600,000

TABLE IV.—Drugs.			TABLE V.—Flour.		TABLE VI.—Wool.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	11,540	240,800	42,000	280,000	8,000	200,000
1833,	10,100	215,000	45,000	300,000	7,500	165,000
1834,	14,300	250,600	44,000	300,300	10,000	228,000
1835,	22,155	473,000	38,000	260,000	15,100	362,400
1836,	18,900	366,500	76,000	540,000	23,855	600,000
1837,	15,000	325,000	80,000	560,000	14,783	360,000
1838,	20,530	364,200	90,000	630,000	11,000	255,000
1839,	16,100	321,000	95,000	660,000	11,251	300,000
1840,	15,700	328,200	72,500	500,000	9,090	225,000
1841,	16,500	322,300	85,000	582,000	6,480	174,300

TABLE VII.—Lumber.

Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	300,000	420,000
1833,	290,000	406,000
1834,	320,000	448,000
1835,	330,000	462,000
1836,	350,000	490,000
1837,	380,000	532,500
1838,	400,000	560,000
1839,	505,000	693,820
1840,	500,000	700,000
1841,	570,000	800,000

TABLE VIII.—Metals and Minerals.

Cwts.	Value in florins.
85,000	1,200,000
82,000	1,000,000
88,000	1,350,000
110,000	1,800,000
117,500	2,038,000
90,000	1,530,000
94,335	1,350,000
101,000	1,408,000
112,515	1,810,000
115,000	1,735,000

TABLE IX.—Tallow Candles and Soap.

Cwts.	Value in florins.
42,000	670,000
38,700	621,000
40,100	830,000
43,000	860,100
48,000	970,350
36,000	720,200
40,500	801,800
42,300	840,330
43,000	640,800
48,600	633,250

TABLE X.—Rags.

Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	40,000	393,000
1833,	50,000	495,100
1834,	40,000	410,000
1835,	100,000	973,000
1836,	60,000	596,000
1837,	110,000	1,097,000
1838,	99,000	964,000
1839,	100,000	977,000
1840,	66,500	660,000
1841,	50,000	473,000

TABLE XI.—Tobacco.

Cwts.	Value in florins.
45,000	650,000
38,000	560,000
43,800	640,000
27,700	420,000
40,000	605,000
24,000	368,900
48,000	720,000
67,000	985,500
55,000	820,000
69,100	1,105,600

TABLE XII.—Crockery.

Crates.	Value in florins.
10,000	50,000
10,200	51,000
9,800	48,000
9,700	48,500
8,000	40,000
7,000	35,000
6,300	33,600
5,400	29,700
4,300	23,865
4,000	22,200

TABLE XIII.—Thread and Tissues.

Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	4,620	700,000
1833,	4,420	630,000
1834,	4,530	700,000
1835,	4,180	600,000
1836,	4,500	640,000
1837,	7,080	960,000
1838,	7,600	1,140,000
1839,	9,880	1,480,000
1840,	10,100	1,500,000
1841,	10,500	1,575,000

TABLE XIV.—Dyestuffs.

Cwts.	Value in florins.
165,000	490,000
150,000	491,700
170,000	492,000
186,000	547,000
180,000	538,000
171,000	513,000
175,000	525,000
189,900	589,000
190,000	597,000
199,000	610,000

TABLE XV.—Glass-ware.

Cwts.	Value in florins.
92,000	1,600,000
95,000	1,710,000
90,200	1,700,000
96,000	1,824,000
86,600	1,632,000
72,620	1,440,000
98,450	1,969,000
119,700	2,274,300
124,570	2,222,000
130,000	2,340,000

TABLE XVI.—Sundries.

Years.	Val. in florins.
1832.....	5,430,800
1833.....	5,554,900
1834.....	5,704,700
1835.....	5,350,000
1836.....	5,726,250
1837.....	4,509,600
1838.....	4,447,050
1839.....	4,238,610
1840.....	5,151,855
1841.....	5,789,850

TABLE XVII.—Tot. For. Products.

Val. in florins.
13,000,000
13,000,000
14,000,000
15,000,000
16,000,000
14,000,000
15,000,000
16,000,000
16,500,000
17,500,000

TABLE XVIII.—Tot. Dom. Prod'cts.

Val. in florins.
31,000,000
27,000,000
28,000,000
31,000,000
38,000,000
31,000,000
27,000,000
32,000,000
25,100,000
20,000,000

TABLE XIX.—Grand total.

Val. in florins.
44,000,000
40,000,000
42,000,000
46,000,000
54,000,000
45,000,000
42,000,000
48,000,000
41,600,000
37,500,000

NOTE.—These tables contain exports by sea only. Of the foreign products exported by sea, according to Table XVIII., about two-thirds are shipped to other Austrian ports.

Explanation.—Table IV. embraces cream of tartar, gums, roots, and medicinal seeds. Table XIV.—Dye-stuffs—embraces white lead, dye-woods, sumach, and coloring earths.

ART. II.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

FREE TRADE VS. PROTECTION—DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.*

ON motion of Mr. Evans, the subject was resumed on Monday, the 5th of February, and he addressed the Senate three hours that day and two hours the next day, in reply to Mr. McDuffie. The great length of this speech, the vast elaboration of the arguments, and the infinite variety of illustrations which it contains, render it impossible to make a compendium embracing more than the mere points bearing directly upon the policy of protection, which, after all, was the immediate point at issue. Even in this particular, we shall be obliged to state these points in substance, but shall do so with a strict regard to fairness and precision.

Mr. Evans, after a few prefatory remarks, classed the views of his opponent (Mr. McDuffie) under three heads, which he undertook to answer *seriatim*. These were, *first*, that the tariff of 1842 would cause such a decline in the revenue as to render a resort to other and more oppressive modes of taxation inevitable, and that the government would become bankrupt, and commerce and business would be destroyed; *second*, that it inflicted an unjust and unequal burden on the mass of the people, by enhancing the prices of all articles of general consumption, and prohibiting foreign imports; and *third*, that it operated with excessive and peculiar injury upon the southern and planting states.

The first of these propositions, the not producing of a sufficient revenue, Mr. Evans maintained he had refuted in his former argument, by the test of facts derived from the custom-house books. The next proposition, the decline of commerce and business, he also maintained was not borne out by facts, for an opposite state of things existed: no one engaged in commerce complained; there was no evidence of discontent on the part of those most interested in business; on the contrary, facts proved that inward freights had increased 30 per cent since the passage of the act; vessels were in greater demand; and commercial business was more active than it had been for years under a reduction of duties. With regard to the third proposition, the peculiarly injurious effect of the tariff on southern interests, that he also met with a direct denial that facts justified any such inference. He maintained that the prices of southern staple exports had risen, and the demand for them had become more active; in proof of which, he referred to the advance in the quotations of the New Orleans prices current, contrasting January of 1843 with January of 1844, which showed the improvement on cotton to be from 40 to 75 per cent, and on tobacco from 5 to 10 per cent. He admitted, Mr. McDuffie might insist that all these things took place *in spite of*, and not *in consequence of* the tariff act; but, in answer to that, he maintained that experience had proved that every recourse to high protective duties had been called for by a bankrupt state of the treasury, a general prostration of commerce and business, and the universal distress of the country; that when adopted, prosperous results had always been predicted and promised by the friends of protection, and these predictions and promises had been uniformly fulfilled, as they had been in the instance of the pre-

* The debate, continued in the order it occurred, from the last number of this Magazine, p. 421.

sent tariff. Lower prices of the articles protected had always followed protection, and, contrary to the theories of free trade advocates, the prices of export staples were always sustained if not increased. This, he insisted, was a legitimate process of inductive reasoning in favor of the protective policy. In proof of his positions, Mr. Evans referred to the tariff act of 1828, which had been denounced in advance by free trade advocates as destructive of revenue, commerce, and the southern interests; yet one of its antagonists, Mr. Calhoun, had in a speech made during one of the sessions of the 26th Congress, attributed to it the disasters and revulsions of 1837-8-9, on the ground that it had produced such an overflowing treasury, that, after paying off the national debt, in order to get rid of the surplus revenue, that surplus had to be distributed to the states, producing a stimulus through the bank of the United States to the banking system, which caused enormous bank expansions, irrational over production, wild speculations, reckless extravagance and indebtedness, reaction, revulsions, sudden contractions, and universal bankruptcy. Here, then, was evidence from the best southern authority that the protective tariff of 1828, instead of destroying revenue and commerce, had too much increased both. Mr. Evans also referred to the contrast of the condition of the country prior to 1824, with that succeeding the tariff of that year, as a further illustration of his position. He then went back to the year 1789, and traced the same effects from the same causes, in every change of tariff. He attributed the misappreciation of the protective policy, on the part of his opponent, Mr. McDuffie, to a reliance on Adam Smith's elementary principles, many of which have had to yield to more enlightened experience.

In reference to Mr. McDuffie's conception, that he (Mr. Evans) had imagined poverty could be legislated out of the country by the mere fiat of an act of Congress, he begged to set the senator right, by stating that his position was, that legislation could provide for employment being given to the unemployed, so as to promote productive industry by securing to it an adequate remuneration and steady continuance of profitable employment—thus insuring the increase of the laborer's comforts and enjoyments, while adding to the general stock of wealth in the country. If this, as Mr. McDuffie contended, could not be done, but by transferring money from the pockets of one person into those of another, Mr. Evans maintained that, so as the transfer could be made from the pockets of foreigners into those of American laborers, the protective policy would be productive of the object its friends had in view—the profitable employment of American labor, and increase of American national wealth, in preference to the profitable employment of foreign labor and increase of foreign national wealth. As a striking instance of the magnificent results of protection, he adverted to the history of the navigation act of England, which, in one hundred and fifty years, had reversed the commercial standing of Holland, as contrasted with that of England, rendering England the greatest commercial nation in the world, and prostrating Holland, (once the mistress of the ocean,) till she became what she now is, the most insignificant commercial state of Europe.

As additional illustrations, he referred to the protection of the sugar interest of Louisiana; to the railroad system, fostered and encouraged by legislation, yet resulting in the benefit of the community, as well as of the speculators in railroad stock; and to the fact, that, if commerce could

be benefited by free trade, it was extraordinary that a consignor of articles free of duty, could not make a cent more profit after selling them in market here, than a consignor of dutiable articles, nor could a vessel freighted with the one make more per cargo than one freighted with the other.

As to the term *price*, he maintained that there was a great delusion about it; inasmuch as the idea was always associated with *money* instead of *exchangable value*. But even in the *money* sense, the community would ultimately be benefited by protection; because the home manufacturers being secure of the market, would embark larger capitals in their business, multiply their productions, bring a larger quantity of goods into competition, and, consequently, render inevitable a reduction of price to the lowest rate of fair remuneration for labor. Reverting, however, to the delusion as to the term *price*, he maintained that the true doctrine was, that no price, however low, could be cheap to the person who had not means to buy; while any price would be cheap to him who was in the continual receipt of means of exchange, whereby he could obtain what he wanted with an equivalent that had cost him an equal or less amount of his own labor than the amount of labor bestowed on the thing he exchanged for, by its producer. On this principle, he argued that, as protection insured to American labor a just remuneration for industry, and therein additional means to those employed of becoming consumers of imports, the protected laborer necessarily became an additional contributor to the revenue, because it was giving, by legislation, to industry the ability and capacity for consumption, which, without such legislation, it could not, by reason of foreign competition, otherwise enjoy. And as to the assumption that duties fell upon the consumers altogether he insisted, that political economists and experience had proved they did not; but had demonstrated that such duties were divided upon the manufacturer, the intermediate dealers, and the consumers. He denied that Mr. McDuffie's position could be maintained, that the exchange of our rude or raw export products for imports of foreign manufactures, was a fair and equal exchange of labor for labor; as the fact must result, on the principles laid down by Adam Smith, that the *whole* of the labor of the export staple country would, in practice, be exchanged for a mere *fractional part* of the manufacturing labor of the manufacturing country; the difference between the *whole* labor of the one, and the *fractional part* of the particular labor of the other, being an entire loss to the rude staple producing country.

Mr. Evans next quoted largely from Professor Tucker's recent work, on the Progress of the United States in Fifty Years, to show that labor was as well rewarded in the southern states as in the manufacturing states, and that capital yielded as much profit (all products being considered) in one section of the Union as in another. The remainder of Mr. Evans's argument was devoted to a refutation of the proposition advanced by Mr. McDuffie, that a division of this Union into three distinct and independent confederations, each possessing homogeneous interests, would redound to the unparalleled prosperity of the south, and occasion the downfall of the New England states. But, as this argument does not add any force to the doctrine of protection, it is presumed unnecessary to dwell upon it here. It will be sufficient to say, that Mr. Evans maintained, through a very elaborate and well sustained train of reasoning,

that no confederation could exist upon an isolated interest, and that the greatest advantages and blessings of the Union resulted from the diversity of interests, climates, soils, and productions, which afforded such various paths for the diversified pursuits of industry.

Mr. Woodbury next obtained the floor, and on the 7th and 8th February occupied the attention of the Senate for about five hours. We labor under considerable difficulty in attempting any synopsis of this speech; a speech esteemed, wherever it has been read, as a masterpiece of statistical research, and the most formidable array of facts ever brought forward in this country against the protective system.

Mr. Woodbury, leaving the discussion on more elementary principles to Messrs. Evans and McDuffie, at once avows his purpose of addressing himself to figures and facts. One fact he calls to mind, which he considers not a little important as an answer to the strong appeals made from the other side in favor of not disturbing the law of 1842, and that is, that it never could have become a law except as a temporary measure in a great emergency; and he recurs to the vote in the Senate on its passage, to show that it would have been rejected but for the casting votes of Messrs. Wright, Buchanan, and Williams, who avowedly looked to its speedy revision, being entirely dissatisfied with many of its provisions. In proof of this, Mr. Woodbury quotes passages from their speeches on giving their votes. Neither was it probable, he thinks, that the president would have signed the bill, had he not contemplated its modification by the then next Congress. Under all these circumstances, he conceives that the plea urged against any immediate revision of the tariff, must be considered untenable. There is also extant, he says, a letter from Mr. Clay, which has gone the rounds of the newspapers, in which he expressly declares that the act of 1828 was "discreditable to American legislation," because it was a *high tariff* measure. Now, if that was a tariff act deserving of this stigma, Mr. Woodbury thinks the act of 1842 is much more so, since, in its general features, it is as objectionable, while, in many instances, it is more objectionable, the duties being left by it more onerous. Mr. Woodbury enumerates several articles of importation on which the duties under the act of 1842 are as high, and others higher, than the duties were under or after the act of 1828, and many of these are articles of general consumption. He adduces numerous proofs of this, showing that when nominal, they were no higher by the act of 1842, than the law stood after the passage of that in 1828. The act of 1842 was the most onerous and oppressive if the duty was specific—because prices had fallen much since 1828—and a like specific duty now, would be much more on the value now.

Mr. Woodbury gives a general history of the energies put into requisition by the manufacturers to get the act of 1842 passed by Congress, with a view of showing that it was accomplished by the activity and address of a very small number. This, he holds, never could have been accomplished, had it been possible to interpose the judgment of the mass of the people. The sole object was protection, not revenue: for the duties, in most instances, were made to transcend not only the revenue point, but to reach the point of absolute prohibition. By treasury documents furnished to Congress, it appears that, by reducing the specific duties to ad valorem duties, there are not less than forty of the prime necessities of general consumption taxed far beyond the revenue point—

some to prohibition—the duties ranging from 50 to 100 per cent. In many of these, the true revenue point would have been between 15 and 20, or, at most, 25 per cent. In proof of this, Mr. Woodbury gives the following table:—

Several Articles in the Tariff of 1842, which pay a higher duty than 30 per cent—when specific, reduced to a scale ad valorem, at the Treasury Department, except when in brackets.

Boots, silk,.....	50 to 75 per cent.	Lead,.....	[100]	per cent.
Coal,.....	61	Whiting,.....	146	“
Cordage,.....	71 to 188	Linseed oil,.....	[50]	“
Cottons,.....	49 to 63	Molasses,.....	51	“
*printed hdkfs.,	[132]	Oilcloth,.....	67	“
† many others,.	[50 to 150]	Opium,.....	75	“
Cotton bagging,.....	53 to 55	Pepper,.....	130	“
Gunny cloth,.....	[100]	Paper, [97 by mer-		
Clothing, made up,.	40 and 50	chants,].....	35	“
“ embroider'd,	50	Salt, 80, [and Turk's	144]	“
Flour, wheat,.....	70	island.....		
Fruits,.....	50	Silks,.....	40 to 65	“
Glass, computed by		Shoes,.....	50 to 75	“
merchants,.....	[186 to 243]	Soap, soft,.....	50	“
Gloves, children's,...	75 to 50	Sugar, brown,.....	71	“
“ kid,.....	60	“ refined,.....	101	“
Hats,.....	[35]	“ syrup,.....	[161 by merchants.]	
Hemp,.....	[39]	Spirits,.....	61	“
Iron,† pig,.....	45 to 72	Spices,.....	[50 to 90]	
“ scrap,.....	50	Tobacco, in cigars,.	40	“
“ bar,.....	85	Wines,.....	60 to 67	“
“ rolled,.....	77	Woollens,.....	40 to 87	“
Leather,.....	53			

To show that its design was to favor a small class of the community at the expense of the great mass, Mr. Woodbury refers to the fact that, while the farmer is taxed oppressively, by duties on the imports he consumes, the articles which enter into competition with his own products, such as hides, linseed, cheap wool, rags, quills, silk, bristles, hemp, flax, lead, tin, &c., considered necessary for the manufacturer, are taxed so light as to give the home producer little or no protection. This will be seen in the following table, which Mr. Woodbury adduces:—

DUTIES, DISCRIMINATING FOR MANUFACTURES, AND AGAINST AGRICULTURE, &c.	
Agriculture, and other raw material, low.	The manufactured materials, high.
Hides, § 5 per cent.	Leather, 35 per cent.
Linseed, 5 per cent.	Linseed oil, 25 per cent.
Wool, cheap, 5 per cent.	Woollens, 28 to 60 per cent.
Cork, bark, free.	Corks, made, 25 to 30 per cent.
Rags for paper, 1 cent per lb.	Paper, 15 to 17 cents per lb.
Quills, unprepared, 15 per cent.	Quills, prepared, 25 per cent.
Silk, raw, 50 cents per lb.	Silks, \$2 50, &c.

* Several articles pay so high a duty now, as to stop all imports of them; and hence the rate has to be computed otherwise than at the department, and on the values of 1840.

† See a schedule, computed on an English price-current of Steward & Co.

‡ Seventeen articles pay from 45 to 235 per cent on their cost abroad. See table in memorial from New York.

§ \$4,118,000 were the imports of only three articles out of the fifteen, in 1840, viz:—

Hides,.....	\$2,756,214
Cheap wool, (under 8 cents,).....	675,009
Hemp, (all kinds,).....	686,777

Total,..... \$4,118,000

DUTIES DISCRIMINATING FOR MANUFACTURES, AND AGAINST AGRICULTURE—Continued.

Agriculture, and other raw material, low.	The manufactured materials, high.
Bristles, 1 cent per lb.	Brushes, 30 per cent.
Brass, crude, free.	{ Brass, manufactured, 30 per cent.
	{ " kettles, 12 cts. per lb.
Hemp, 30 to 32 per cent.	{ Cordage, 100 to 130 per cent.
Cotton, 3 cents, or 33 to 25 per cent.	{ Cotton bagging, 50 to 80 per cent.
Flax, raw, 1 cent, or 7 to 9 per cent.	Cotton cloths, 80 to 120 per cent.
Lead, crude, 1½ to 3 cents per lb.	Flax, manufactured, 25 to 50 per ct.
Tin, crude, in pigs, 1 per cent.	{ Lead, pipes, &c., 4 cents per lb.
Wood, rough, 20 per cent.	{ " white and red, 4 cents per lb.
	Tin, in plates, 2½ per cent.
	Wood, manufactured, 30 per cent.

It is absurd, Mr. Woodbury thinks, to tell the farmer his interests are equally guarded, because adequate duties are imposed against the importation of grain, beef, pork, lard, potatoes, &c., most of which are so much cheaper in this country than in any other, that no foreign nation can entertain an idea of growing them for export to the United States. It is all a gross delusion—got up to blindfold the farmer from seeing the unjust partiality of legislation for the favored few. Mr. Woodbury quotes from the works of Jefferson, Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and other eminent statesmen, of different political creeds, various passages to show that, anterior to 1816, except in cases of retaliation, no duties but those for revenue were ever thought of—protection to manufacturers being a mere incident—and that the true revenue point was esteemed not to exceed 15 per cent. A paramount objection which Mr. Woodbury has to the act of 1842, is, "that it taxes articles of trade so high as to tend to break up trade itself; that it taxes necessities higher than luxuries; that it taxes the person in its operation, rather than property or ability to pay; and, in many cases, by one specific duty, it collects from the consumer, in middling or indigent circumstances, as large a tax on a coarser and cheaper fabric, than on a finer or more costly one of the same name, worn by the rich. The only effectual mode of preventing partiality and oppression in such bills, is to fix a liberal maximum of 20 or 25 per cent. Within that, the duty may well fluctuate, rather than be rigidly horizontal, if revenue objects require and admit it; so as to relieve necessities some, if practicable, and favor the needy rather than the wealthy, and graduate most, if not all duties, on a scale *ad valorem*—so that the people can know the true extent of their burdens, and each pay only in proportion to the value of what he consumes." If this principle of prohibitory duties for the benefit of a favored class, (the manufacturers for instance,) were to be carried out at the will of a majority, it would lead to the adoption of the odious corn-law system of England, and legislation might be turned against manufacturers for the exclusive benefit of agriculturists; hence, Mr. Woodbury argues, the vicious tendency of varying the amount of duty on particular articles beyond the ordinary and settled standard for mere revenue. Mr. Woodbury points out the fallacy of relying upon calculations based on the receipts of revenue for a particular quarter or month, as an evidence of the income to be permanently expected from the act of 1842; the tendency of the duty it imposes, being, to cause great fluctuations, as experience had proved: the falling off, or excess of one quarter over another, under its operation, having already varied a million or more, thereby precluding any reliance on its steady operation.

It seemed absurd to argue that the tendency of such high duties could be favorable to revenue, when it is notorious that experience proves the tendency to be to check and diminish imports through the customs, and to encourage and increase smuggling. Much had been said about the revival of business, as if it were the effect of the act of 1842, while the palpable and real causes of the stimulus to trade, both in this country and in England, were to be found elsewhere—as one instance, in the impulse given to the commerce of the world by the opening of the new markets in Asia, and by the abundance of capital offered at low rates of interest to embark in new enterprises. Experience had proved that any considerable rise of duties always checked, instead of stimulated revenue. The net revenue from customs, in 1817, was about \$26,250,000, which, on the credit system then in force, had accrued chiefly on the imports and tariff in force in 1816. “Now,” observes Mr. Woodbury, “so far from its rising under the higher duties of 1817, or the still higher of 1824, or even of 1828, it had, in 1818, fallen to about \$17,000,000, and had never again equalled \$26,000,000, till 1832; and then had become larger, not by means of more natural business and of higher duties, but by much larger imports, artificially swollen, to bring home the proceeds of state loans abroad. I quote from the official receipts and expenditures, published in 1842, p. 242. If the last report of the secretary of the treasury differs from the document I quote, in some details, both agree in the general results I have stated.”

Mr. Woodbury also objects to the act of 1842, on the ground that it imposes a heavy burden on large classes and sections of the country, to favor small classes and particular sections, instead of operating equally on all classes and sections and for revenue purposes. Its average rate of duties, for convenience in computation, may be taken at 40 per cent, though it is 2 or 3 per cent lower. Under the operation of this act, the imports of dutiable articles similar to those manufactured here, amount to only \$30,000,000, which, at 40 per cent, yield \$12,000,000. Suppose, on the same imports, the real revenue duty of 20 per cent were levied, it would yield only half the latter sum; showing, palpably, that the other half is a tax on the general consumers for the exclusive benefit of manufacturers. The tax does not stop there, but is extended to all the products of the protected manufacturers, the prices of which are thereby ratably enhanced. “Now,” observes Mr. Woodbury, “these similar domestic manufactures, made and consumed in this country, equal in value annually about \$200,000,000. 40 per cent on that, is \$80,000,000; but as half of it would be gained by an incidental and necessary, equal and proper protection from a 20 per cent revenue tariff, the only addition to the public burdens, by the partial and high discriminations, is \$40,000,000; making, with the other \$6,000,000, about \$46,000,000 paid yearly to the benefit of the manufacturing classes. As those classes constitute only one-eleventh of our whole population, ten-elevenths of the sum is paid by other classes for the benefit merely of that one-eleventh. Now, could such a system, so unequal and anti-republican as this, and so oppressive to ten-elevenths of the people, stand a single hour, if the facts were accurately understood? No, sir, no. But the fallacy is widely circulated that the increased duty, rather than enhancing the price of articles, reduces it; and when that paradox does not gain full faith, from its contradictions to experience and common sense, as well as theoretical reason,

it is urged that the apparent beneficiaries of the tax are not alone aggrandized by it, but the whole country made more prosperous, and better able to pay enhanced duties and prices. Let us scrutinize this delusion a little. . . . Adam Smith, Ricardo, Huskinson, McCulloch, Tooke, and many others, make their calculations that an enhanced duty augments the price, just as naturally as that higher rents, or wages, or interest, tend to make an article cost more; just as naturally as more fuel added, increases the fire—more rain raises the streams. Franklin, in this country, says that high duties on the importation enables the manufacturer to *tax the home consumer by greater prices.*”

Mr. Woodbury enters into a variety of details, and cites numerous authorities and documents illustrative of this position; for which, however, we cannot here make room. These illustrations he thus sums up: “It then follows that, as a general principle, the enhanced price of the foreign article, and also of the domestic article, is paid by the consumer. This, we have already shown, equals here, now, beyond a fair revenue, about \$43,000,000 yearly; and as the manufacturers constitute but one-eleventh of the whole, ten-elevenths of it is paid by other consumers, and for the benefit of that one-eleventh. As most of these others belong to the agricultural classes, they being near three-fourths of all our population, the great mass of this enormous burden is thrown on them, and must induce them in time, as the real facts are well understood, to demolish the whole system of partial protection, and require, as some of us do now, that a tariff for such protection be corrected without unnecessary delay. What does it amount to per head yearly, including their families? Over \$2 to each man, woman, and child, on an average.”

Mr. Woodbury next proceeds to the injurious effect of this high tariff on agricultural products, and points to the already extensive market offered by Great Britain and her dependencies; a market that, he argues, could be immensely increased in value and extent by a moderate and true revenue duty on British products imported into this country. After quoting and urging numerous statistical details, showing the amount and value of foreign markets for our agricultural products, and pointing out the check of a high tariff on those markets, Mr. Woodbury proceeds: “And what, sir, is offered in reply to all the dangers and losses a perseverance in this system exposes us to in our greatest foreign markets in Europe? A new and better home market instead of them. This is another of the plausible and deluding positions that reconcile many to the restrictive system, but which cannot stand the test of scrutiny or facts. There is a charm to the hearts of all, in the word ‘home.’ But do not the articles of comfort and necessity, we procure abroad from all regions, help to increase the charm of home, as well as what we raise or make nearer? The tea and coffee we drink from the Indies, the sugar we eat from Brazil, the clothes, and salt, and iron we use from Europe—are they not procured from all climes by means of our labors at home, as well as the other articles we buy, that are made here? But, in an economical or pecuniary view, it is reiterated, again and again, that the home market is the best, and an ample substitute for others. Can gentlemen dwell on this, when so vast a quantity of our productions, consumed at home, is never sold, but used by those raising or making them. Think you, that, for the rest which the producers may desire to exchange or sell, the home market of 1,000,000 or 2,000,000 of people only connected with manufactures, is

as great as that abroad of near 800,000,000—circling, as our commerce does, with that surplus to every zone, and every sea, and better and better still as would become the foreign markets, if we only encouraged more and more the principles of a freer trade with them? Recollect, too, that the home market is, and always has been, first supplied; but still it has proved, and always will prove, to be utterly insufficient for all we raise. Instead of being the best market for our surplus of 100,000,000 yearly, it is no market at all for it, and, but for the foreign markets, the whole would perish on our hands; or the industry of the country would become so paralyzed as not to produce it, and obtain all the necessaries and comforts it brings back in return, and showers over every fireside. So far from the home market being a substitute for the foreign, for all these vast surplus productions, it is filled and glutted, and can take no more of them before they become a surplus. That position, then, is entirely indefensible. Others talk of the near exchanges in the home market, being much more profitable to the producer. But how is the fact? He may, to be sure, quickly exchange a bushel of wheat with a neighboring manufacturer for a shovel, each valued at a dollar; but if, in the freer trade and more open market abroad, under a low duty, the shovel, equally good, could be bought for eighty cents, taking off half the present average 40 per cent duty, and his wheat sold 20 per cent higher, or at a dollar and a fifth, will he not be forty cents better under the low duty? And after all the freight and charges, though equalling half the difference, if the village merchant performs both of these operations for him, and takes his wheat, and lets him have the shovel as quick as the manufacturer could, is he not still a gainer of twenty cents on a dollar? and are not all the great channels, means and instruments of commerce, at the same time, more employed and invigorated by more freights? But others may argue that, by means of the restrictive system, manufacturers will increase so much faster than farmers, that the home market for domestic produce will enlarge so as speedily to consume all the usual surplus, though it will be at a lower price, probably, and furnishing manufactured fabrics at a higher price, as before shown, if a high duty is continued as necessary to protect them. But every one who scrutinizes our commercial records, knows that experience teaches just the reverse of this. The surplus productions, that the home market cannot purchase and consume, have increased, rather than diminished, since this restrictive system was in force. Under it, instead of its becoming less necessary to go abroad, it has become more necessary. In a country with such immense quantities of fertile land, at low prices, the agricultural productions increase faster, far, than the manufacturers; and every addition to our agricultural population, which is made at the rate of 4 per cent yearly, augments, rather than diminishes the surplus, as each new member of society here, instead of being, as in some countries, a new burden, and eating up a part of what the others have, or need, becomes a producer, and, ere long, adds yearly to the common income much more, on an average, than he consumes. Gentlemen seem blind to this beautiful and encouraging peculiarity in our national position, and which should justly render our country long a real asylum for the famished of all nations; and they find it difficult to get rid of European and Asiatic ideas, where agriculture is stationary, and every new birth tends to produce scarcity and suffering. Look at the official figures in connection with these sup-

posed facts. In 1816, by imposing higher duties, we were assured that an additional and better home market would speedily be created by an increase in manufactures, and all our surplus productions would be consumed here, and profitably, and the country become independent of foreign markets, and of the *pauper labor* of Europe. How has this prediction been verified? So far from happening, in the next eight years, ruin overspread the country, and the home market utterly failed as to our surplus. Again: the duties, in 1824, were raised still higher, with a promise that the hope would then be fulfilled, under great additions to our manufactures. They were said to be on the eve of taking root. But, in only four short years, again disappointed in the growth and sufficiency of the home market, came the higher tariff of 1828; and again, in 1842, to run another disappointing round, comes a tariff still higher than that of 1828. In the meantime, to test, by the actual official figures, how poorly the home market has grown in a whole quarter of a century, so as to absorb all or most of our surplus, it appears that this surplus, now required to be exported or to rot on our hands, is near 100 per cent more than it was twenty years ago; and, as before shown, the aggregate of it, exported during the last ten years, is more than double what the aggregate was in the previous ten. Even during the greatest height of the duties, it appears, by the tables used on the other side, from 1821 to 1832, the period when the duties began to be reduced, the surplus, instead of being more and more used up here and purchased in the home market, increased from \$43,671,894 to \$63,137,470—about 50 per cent. At this rate of progress in the *home market*, (taking off all our surplus,) it would not be effected till doomsday; and, indeed, would yearly grow worse and worse, instead of better and better.”

Mr. Woodbury next adverts to the effect of the protective system upon navigation, external commerce, tonnage, &c., &c. In fine, he thus lays down the principles which he approves: “Let it not be said that I wish to see the gains by modern machinery and steam abandoned, where these last can be used for large purposes, and with profit. But I would not see them attempted where the state of society, capital, and skill, is not favorable to compete with others in the use of them, without ruinous risks and losses, unless bolstered up by high duties and taxes. I would buy and use such manufactures whenever cheapest and best; but for numerous home wants in a new and agricultural country, like much of ours, why not take what is produced by such establishments and improvements elsewhere, beyond what can be furnished through the frugal aid of household life? Why tempt our own people, by bounties, into the heated atmospheres of great establishments, forced into being, often prematurely here, by high duties, and at the expense of other large classes? What commendation can be bestowed on these, in a country young and enterprising, over the bracing air of the ploughman’s field, or the rosy exercise of the dairy, or the transportation of the products of both over the mountain wave, and throwing the line and harpoon in every sea? Most persons point to New England as the best illustration of the great profits by the protective system. But beside the mischiefs already alluded to as incidental to it, what has she gained from it in other respects, when all her population connected with her great cotton establishments, would not fill a single county in several of our states; when the fisheries alone support greater numbers; when many of her sons are, in their habits, almost as

web-footed as the sea-fowl which fly over their heads; when, if not diverted from agriculture, navigation and the fisheries, her hill-sides would, probably, have been ploughed nearer their tops, her swamps more thoroughly drained, her manures improved, additional inventions in raking, threshing, reaping and sowing, sought out, or the present ones discovered sooner, her fisheries doubled, and grown to what they are in England, and her ships still more and more carrying the surplus produce of much of the civilized world? Her population and capital would, in that event, have been as large, if not larger, than now, and the former quite as hardy, moral, useful and American, as it is now; and, by moderate and regular profits, far less tempting to inroads on our frugal habits, and on our primitive morals, now exposed to smuggling and all its train of demoralizations." "In another point of view, the supposed gain to this country by the use of machinery in great manufacturing establishments, becomes, in truth, only a question between the expediency of having them used here, where dearest, least understood, or least perfect, and abroad, where it is the reverse.

"So, if we go to the statistics of the late census, similar results are demonstrated. It is imperfect in some respects, and conclusions somewhat different are drawn by different persons. But after being revised and corrected, the gains in manufacturing, though high, are probably not much higher than in other pursuits, if we deduct what is added by the discriminating duties. Without that deduction they reach near \$160 yearly, on an average, to each person employed and connected with them; whereas, in agriculture, they yield but \$62, or less than half, and in navigation, only \$80." "The capital is larger per head in agriculture, than in manufactures; it being \$235 each in the first, and \$200 only in the last, though in navigation it is higher, being \$303 each. Gentlemen may take whichever horn of the dilemma is most agreeable; and if the profits are not higher, after the reduction of the gain by high duties, than in other pursuits, there is no advantage to the whole country by the forcing system. We pay for all we get. But if they are higher after it, then the forcing is not necessary, besides its being partial and wasteful in order to aid them."

Mr. Woodbury concludes, by pointing out the folly of supposing that this or any other nation can unite successfully, within itself, the productions and manufactures of all others—all climates and all stages of civilization. "Let us," he observes, "be content to buy all we need where it can, without force, be produced cheapest, whether at home or abroad; and sell all we do not need where it will bring most, whether at home or abroad. In this way, we shall follow out the apparent dictates of Providence, in giving advantages, in some things, to all climates and people, to be exchanged with others through the blessings of free commerce, and thus adopting the best apparent method of increasing our prosperity, and extending civilization, and securing peace throughout the world. While all has changed, and is moving onward, are we to go back and cling to the dark restrictive systems of a ruder civilization? Are we prepared to take the backward step, so as to protect, by discriminating duties, the old channels of commerce by the Euphrates and the Isthmus of Suez, and again to build up Tyre, Alexandria and Venice, rather than doubling the Cape of Good Hope? Are we to tax higher the use of steam in navigation, so as to encourage oars and sails?"

The subject lay over till the 12th of February, when it was again called up by Mr. Evans, Mr. Huntington, of Connecticut, being entitled to the floor. Mr. Huntington occupied the attention of the Senate for two hours on that day, and two hours the next day; but having no ground to dwell upon, that had not been gone over by Mr. Evans, it is conceived unnecessary in this sketch to present any of Mr. Huntington's views, except such as offer some new phasis of the question at issue. In the first part of his speech, he attributes to some of the present advocates of free trade, in Congress, the amendments to the act of 1828, when that act was in the progress of legislation, which amendments earned for the measure, after its effects were experienced, the title of "a bill of abominations;" he deems it unjust, therefore, to charge the friends of protection with the odium due to their opponents. Passing all this, however, and coming to the experience of years, Mr. Huntington argues that protection had effected all its friends ever promised; and, as an instance, with regard to cheapening prices, he states that salt which cost \$1 per bushel before high tariffs were established, could now be purchased in this country at twenty cents, because the domestic manufacture of that article had grown to maturity under the protective policy. Such had also been the effects of that policy with respect to leather, paper, cotton goods, woollens, &c., &c. Mr. Huntington next dwells on the constitutional question, maintaining the power of Congress to grant protection to home industry; but this not being the immediate point at issue, we deem it unnecessary to cite his arguments.* He combats the idea presented by Mr. Woodbury, that it never was intended by the framers of the constitution to throw all the burden of necessary revenue upon commerce, taking the ground that the fathers of the revolution so abhorred direct taxation, that they never could mean to authorize a resort to excise for the support of the general government, unless in cases of extreme national exigencies, such as embargoes or a state of war; therefore, the ultimate power given by the constitution, to resort to direct taxation, could not be authorized in any case till enough of revenue could not be obtained from customs. He next opposes to the doctrine of free trade—that low duties yield most revenue—the experience of the English government, which, he shows, on the authority of a speech made by Sir Robert Peel, has been the reverse of the proposition, except in reference to the articles of coffee and rum. He then denies the assumption, that England afforded this country a market of any national consequence in amount for its farming products. He contends that previous to the late alterations in foreign tariffs, Massachusetts alone consumed more of the farming products of the rest of the Union, than the amount which the whole of the United States exported to all other nations. He further denies that the falling off in our external carrying trade is owing to the operation of the tariff laws, but contends that it is due entirely to the reciprocity treaties. These treaties, for instance, give what is called the triangular voyage to the navigation belonging to the Hanseatic towns, and other foreign powers, with which we are bound to trade on terms of reciprocity. Mr. Huntington sums up his arguments, by taking Mr. Woodbury to be the exponent of the party opposed to the

* The constitutionality of a protective tariff has been ably discussed in the *Merchants' Magazine*, Vol. VIII., No. 6, for June, 1843, p. 512, &c., by the Hon. Charles Hudson, of Massachusetts.

protective policy, and reduces his speech to the following propositions: 1. That the tariff law of 1842 is destructive to revenue, instead of being a law to provide revenue; 2. That free trade is the only sound and rational policy most conducive to national prosperity and general civilization, and therefore it ought to be adopted, or, at least, as close an approximation to it as circumstances will permit; 3. That the imposition of duties on imports enhances prices to the consumers, for the benefit of the *few* at the expense of the *many*. To each of these propositions Mr. Huntington opposes the following: 1. That the act of 1842 is not only productive of revenue, but of more revenue than was obtained under the low duty system during the last year of the compromise act; 2. That in the present state of the world, universal free trade is impracticable, and no advances towards it can be made by any nation that will not operate injuriously to it, being one-sided, and opposed by the restrictions of other nations; 3. The experience of all the tariff acts ever adopted by this government, had been to build up home manufactures, till they grew strong enough finally to compete with foreign rivals, and hence they had always concluded to the diminution of prices to the consumers.

The subject was again resumed on the 16th February, and Mr. Phelps, of Vermont, took the floor. The same remarks will apply to Mr. Phelps's speech, as to Mr. Huntington's, that Mr. Evans had exhausted the subject, and, therefore, it was impossible to avoid going over the same ground. We shall advert only to such positions taken by Mr. Phelps, as present anything new or more striking than the arguments we have already quoted. Mr. Phelps spoke for two hours, on the 16th, and three on the 19th. As to the usefulness of the discussion even upon a question leading to no practical result, he takes ground, at the outset, opposed to that taken by Mr. Evans: for, he admits that this debate (in the Senate) is of great importance, inasmuch as it must tend to the dissemination throughout the country of the ablest arguments upon the policy of protection which can be brought forward on both sides of the question. It is a matter of such absorbing interest, that he conceives the constituents of every member of Congress who votes on the subject, will expect to know the reasons by which he is influenced in the side he takes. He is therefore in favor of full and free discussion. Mr. Phelps, having thus shown his approval of the debate, proceeds methodically to review the arguments of Messrs. McDuffie and Woodbury. First, he meets the assertion of Mr. McDuffie, that the act of 1842 was "a foul and faithless violation of the compromise act," by a comparison of the two laws, to show that both were framed with a view of providing for home interests and the payment of cash duties; that both looked to the obtaining of a sufficient revenue for the bare wants of the government; and because the one, towards the close of its term of trial, failed to effect that object, the other was rendered necessary. There could be no violation of a pledge, that there was no obligation to continue longer than it was the will of legislation to continue it. The compromise act was not of the same nature as a bill involving private rights, which necessarily implies final and unalterable legislation. It was a public bill of national policy, subject, like all other national laws, to alteration or repeal, at the will of the legislative power. Mr. Phelps conceives it is waste of time to cavil about the law of 1842 being a protective law, as he yields the point at once that it is, as it was intended to be, eminently protective of the interests of home industry. He admits that,

in detail, the interests necessarily involved, make that act a very complicated one; but he denies that there is anything unconstitutional in its provisions or principles. To appreciate it fairly, it must be taken as a whole, and not with a view of judging it by its bearings in isolated instances. If there was only one real interest in the country, that of the cotton planters, Mr. McDuffie's principle of protecting that interest, by securing it free trade, might do very well; but, inasmuch as there are other great interests of no less national importance, each of which must be more or less injured by free trade, it became necessary, in legislating for all, to legislate so as to give to the number and magnitude of interests their due preponderance, whilst, at the same time, the legislation for their benefit was made to conduce to the benefit of the interest called upon to yield something for the general good. This, he contends, has been accomplished by the act of 1842, which encourages the growth of a home market for the cotton planters. To show the necessity for some such measure as the act of 1842, Mr. Phelps enters into a full history of the causes which led to its adoption. He then dwells upon the results of that act, among which he enumerates as most important, the restoration of business, public confidence, the credit of the government, and the rapid advance of home industry. The diversion of a portion of the labor of the country from over production in agriculture, to increased extension of manufactures, he deems not the least beneficial of the consequences of the policy of the act of 1842.

Mr. Phelps, in reply to Mr. Woodbury's arguments in favor of cultivating the export market for our farming products, argues that the British market for our breadstuffs is very inconsiderable in proportion to that which is required to absorb the surplus of the whole quantity we grow. For instance, he assumes that the wheat product of the United States, for the year 1842, was 100,000,000 of bushels; and allowing to each individual of our population, three bushels for home consumption, the surplus for export must have been 40,000,000 of bushels; yet Great Britain and her dependencies took only 5,000,000 of bushels of the product of that year, being but one-eighth of the surplus. The theory of increasing exports by increasing imports, he characterises as tantamount to the proposition of increasing one's income by increasing expenditures. To increase the exports of the southern states, the rest of the Union is called upon to spend its means extravagantly upon foreign imports. Now, Mr. Phelps holds that it is a great fallacy to suppose such sacrifices are necessary on the part of the rest of the Union, for the preservation of the foreign market to the cotton growing states. He holds that Great Britain cannot do without our raw cotton, for three reasons: first, because she wants it for the manufacture of such fabrics as she has ample demand for in all other parts of the world, as well as in the United States; secondly, because she wants a vast quantity of cotton fabrics for her own domestic consumption; and, thirdly, because she has just opened a new market in China and India, the extent of which no one can, as yet, conjecture. The protective system has created already a large home market for the cotton planters. Manufactures of every kind have grown up under it, employing a capital of \$300,000,000, and yielding at least \$240,000,000 of annual products. This state of things could not exist without a manifest increase of national wealth, and an increased ability for the consumption, not only of the products of the earth at home, but of dutiable imports.

On the 21st February, the subject was again resumed, and Mr. Bates, of Massachusetts, obtained the floor. A great portion of Mr. Bates's speech is devoted to a defence of his state, which, he argues, had but one representative out of fourteen, that could be found ready to vote for the tariff bill of 1824, while the tariff acts of 1816 and 1824 were openly carried by the support of southern members. Mr. Bates then gives a brief review of the history of those acts, and of the subsequent act of 1828, with a view of exonerating Massachusetts from the stigmas cast upon her by the south. He next adverts to the elementary principles of labor being the source of wealth, and on that ground advocates manufacturing labor as of equal consequence with other branches of industry. Jealousies had been fomented between agriculturists and manufacturers, by representing the profits of the latter as exorbitant; but Mr. Bates goes into many statistical details to prove that this is a gross exaggeration. As an instance of the actual profits, he takes the capital invested in the manufactures of Lowell at \$9,500,000, which, he asserts, yielded for the last two years but 6 per cent profit.

The general views of Mr. Bates accord with those of Messrs. Evans, Huntington, and Phelps, which he sustains with much eloquence and effect, adding great force to their advocacy of protection; but elaboration of these arguments is not deemed necessary in this sketch, the object of which is to present, in a compressed form, the mere points at issue in the debate.

ART. III.—THE KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

COMMERCIAL statistics of Naples and of Sicily are of the most unsatisfactory kind, from the secrecy the government maintains in its custom-house reports. The great advantage to be gained by turning our attention to such ports, is the knowledge we get of what *might* be done, did a different policy prevail, and the channels of trade that may be thrown open any year, by a single edict of government. The greatest fortunes made in our country through foreign commerce, have been gained by some sudden change in a foreign port, which some lucky man first took advantage of. A slight change in the policy of the Neapolitan and southern governments, would give some men fortunes at once. For instance: let the quarantine be removed from vessels coming from the Black sea, or from a certain class of vessels that have come down the Bosphorus without stopping, and the man who should employ a steamer to cut ice in that sea, and sell it in the southern ports of the Mediterranean, would make a fortune in a single summer. Or let the duty on foreign timber be removed, and the exporter of American wood would need but a few voyages to secure wealth. The low state of manufactures in the south of Europe, and the drone-like manner in which business is carried on, would soon check the importation; for the market would be glutted, and the golden river stopped. We are not sure the American maple, that is, the curled and speckled maple, would not now be, even with the high tariff, a valuable material for a part of a cargo. Throughout Italy, our maple is regarded a rarer and more beautiful wood than mahogany, and fetches a higher price. Cabinet-work is almost universally inlaid; and mahogany and spotted maple are used together for the richest furniture. We have

seen the private apartments of a royal palace entirely furnished with American maple, and it was exhibited as a rare and costly sight. In the north of Italy, it is known only as an American wood; in the Neapolitan kingdom, a small quantity is obtained from Calabria. The same is true with regard to agricultural and mechanical instruments. Even with the present tariff, could the prejudices of the people against all innovation be removed, there would be an immediate demand throughout the entire kingdom for English and American tools. It is a great pity, that countries so well situated for commerce, should not only shut the world from them, but shut themselves out from all the sources of national prosperity. With one of the most beautiful bays in the world, and occupying, as it were, the commercial centre, its shipping presents a meagre appearance, and the high tariff on all imported articles amounts almost to a prohibition. It is seldom under 100 per cent ad valorem, and often over 150 per cent. For all practical purposes, the king of Naples might as well extend a sand bar from Capri, in both directions, to the shore. There is also a heavy duty on exports, which doubles the burdens on the people. Sicily might furnish grain in almost any quantity to the north of Italy, were it allowed to be taken away freely. The wheat of the island is often stored in pits dug out of soft rock or earth, and walled up in the shape of a bottle, and then hermetically sealed. Grain will keep in this way an indefinite length of time. It has been known to keep a century. I remarked that the export duties were heavy. Grain is free of duty if exported in native vessels; if in foreign vessels, there is a duty of a shilling per cwt. On oil, the duty is fourteen dollars and a half a tun in native vessels, and about twenty-one dollars a tun if exported in foreign vessels.

The last published tables of the tariff on exports from Naples, give, in addition to what we have stated:—

Articles.	Weights.	Money.
Cotton,.....	per cwt.	\$ 44
Horse-hair,.....	"	2 33½
Wool,.....	"	21
Pitch, white,.....	per ton.	1 09
" black,.....	"	81½
Liquorice root,.....	"	55½
Sponges,.....	"	1 62
Cork,.....	"	21½
Rags, white,.....	"	3 68
Colored rags, and Argol, both,.....	"	1 37
Saffron,.....	per lb.	05

Cocoons and roda reed are prohibited. This table is not correct to the smallest fraction; and, indeed, in reducing Neapolitan money into ours, reference must always be had to the rate of exchange at the time. It is near enough, however, for all practical purposes, as the tariff in large quantities is given.

This self-destructive policy of a high tariff on the exportation of oil is pursued while Naples has not the monopoly of the trade. Tuscany, Sardinia and Spain, all enter the market with her. Naples and Sicily both possess natural advantages surpassed by few other countries in the world; and yet their people are deprived of all the benefits resulting from them, by the restrictive policy of the government. Men will not produce, when

they are denied a market for their productions; and they will not work, if their labor yields nothing. The laziness of the Neapolitans is proverbial, so is the tyrannical and ruinous policy of the government. Let the latter cease to be a proverb, and the former, probably, would also cease to be. Added to all this, there is an enormous tax on rent, yielding to the government an annual revenue of over \$7,000,000.

The disastrous consequences of the high tariff on imports are somewhat mitigated by the vast amount of smuggling carried on along the coast. To save expense, custom-house officers are paid such low wages, they can scarcely live on them. The smuggler pays better, and hence finds but little difficulty in keeping the officer out of the way. The smuggler gives him twice as much for doing nothing, that the government does for working, and why should not he support the smuggler? Added to this, to say nothing of Sicily, the Neapolitan kingdom alone has a coast of nearly 1,000 miles in length, approachable throughout almost its entire extent. Yet this long line of coast is, in many places, thinly inhabited; in others, furnishing a population that are but a grade above the savage. Under such circumstances, the smuggler has a fair field to operate in, and he improves it. To such an extent is smuggling successful, that one often finds the same article he gives a dollar for in Naples, at half that price in the remote villages. In such a government, the smuggler is a public benefactor instead of a criminal, and deserves well of the community.

The chief exports from Sicily are grain, wine, oil barilla, fruit, nuts, shumac, salt and salt fish, brimstone, argol, manna, pumice-stone, liquorice, skins, honey, rags, cotton, wool, saffron and linseed. Of barilla, there are three classes—toka, tokata and pulvere. Brimstone is exported in large cakes, and the inexperienced buyer is often deceived, by the fair appearance of the outside into the purchase of a bad article. If grayish sandy particles are discovered at the bottom when broken, the article is not worth the purchase. Coral is also an article of export; it goes first to Leghorn, and thence over the world. Amber, also, is found in large quantities on the coast, and this island has been regarded as furnishing it in greater abundance than any other part of the world. Like the Papal states, the exportation of rags, especially of linen rags, is enormous. One often wonders where the immense quantities of rags come from in this country, where the people seem to wear them entirely out on their bodies. But it must be remembered that they are gathered and hoarded here, as in no other part of the world. Soap was formerly a great article of export, and was carried by American ships to the West Indies, and sold at a large advance. Most of the grain goes to the north of Italy, Majorca, and Minorca. Of the wines, the Etna and Syracuse are very rich, and drank only in small quantities. Marsala is exported extensively, and has often been sold in the West Indies, by American merchantmen, for Madeira, which it resembles very much, especially after a couple of voyages at sea. It improves by time, and, unlike most of the light wines of the south, keeps well in the hottest climates. It is produced principally on the mountains of the western coast of Sicily.

The imports to the island are cotton and woollen goods, timber, cod-fish, hides, tin, iron, spices, coffee, cocoa, indigo and sugar. This island furnishes a fair illustration of the practical workings of unjust restrictions on commerce. It contains 10,500 square miles, and nearly 2,000,000 of

inhabitants, which it scantily supports; yet once it was filled with populous cities, and not only supported 6,000,000 of people, but supplied almost the entire Roman market with corn. Now, corn cannot be exported at all without the leave of a public tribunal, whose office is to get the amount raised, and then make a calculation of how much is needed to supply the home demand. If there is a balance in favor of the home consumption, this tribunal can issue licenses for the exportation of a certain quantity. This is all mere form, however, and the tribunal (real patrimonio) never take the trouble to make calculations; and, instead of issuing licences, *sell* them to certain individuals, who thus have the monopoly of the corn trade. Even royalty has been in the market, and speculated in this way. It would be better if it would adopt the plan of the king of Sardinia, who lets the grain alone, but has the exclusive privilege of selling salt, tobacco and gambling cards. If he would let the salt alone, he might be welcome to the rest. The king of the "Two Sicilies" lays *his* hand on the very heart and soul of the land, and gains nothing by it either. With a more liberal policy, and a lighter duty, he would receive a larger revenue than now from the same source. The increased quantity would more than compensate for the high rates. Sicily might be one of the richest countries in the world, filled with thriving cities and an industrious population, if the government was not blind and stupid, as ignorance always is. There has been some change already, and it will progress, till the island will yet furnish, we trust, some of the finest corn-shipping ports in the world.

Naples has similar exports to those of Sicily. Of its wines, *lacrima Christi* (tears of Christ) is the best, though but little of it ever reaches foreign countries; and, indeed, but little of that, drank in the kingdom by foreigners as such, is the real wine. The cellars of the king, and the higher classes of the nobility, enjoy almost the exclusive monopoly of it. Staves and hoops are exported to some extent, from Castelamare, which is within sight of Naples on the farther side of the bay. The chief export, however, is olive oil. Over 36,000 tuns are exported yearly. It has been estimated at 36,333 tuns, which, at \$101 64 per tun, would amount to \$3,693,086 12—a pretty fair source of revenue. The whole coast, from Gioja to Gaeta, is covered with olive-trees; but Apulia and Calabria produce the best quality, and in the largest quantities. It is generally shipped at Gallipoli, whence it derives its name of Gallipoli oil. The olive is usually gathered when ripe, and crushed without breaking the stone, and then placed in rush bags and pressed. The first draining is the best. But the olives from which Gallipoli oil is made, are never plucked from the tree, but allowed to drop off of their own accord, and afterwards gathered by women and children. The whole process of manufacturing is rude, and coarse in the extreme. The most simple and slowest process of crushing and expressing is used by the inhabitants, who seem to have settled it as an indisputable truth, that all improvements are injurious. The oils and wines of Italy are usually carried in skins, or small barrels, on the backs of mules. Two are fastened together, and slung across the creature's back, in which manner they are brought from the mountainous regions, by paths inaccessible to any kind of vehicle, into the cities and large towns. It is amusing to see these demure, long-eared animals march. Accustomed so much to narrow paths, they get in the habit of going in single file, so that, however wide

the road may be, they are strung along in a single line, straight or waving, as the foremost one takes it in his head to go. If you are on a mountain path, the tinkle of their bells admonish you of their approach long before they are in sight. From the region round the Gulf of Otranto, there is a constant stream of mules, laden with skins of oil, into Gallipoli. The Gallipolitans have introduced an entirely new kind of warehouses. The town itself is built on a soft rock, and seems designed by nature for an oil depot. Oil, kept under ground, clarifies more readily, and preserves much longer than in any other way; hence, the calcareous rock, on which the town is built, is just the thing for oil cellars. It is easily excavated, and stands close on the sea. The people have had sense enough not to neglect this advantage, supplied by nature, but have bored the rock in every direction, so that, if it were exposed to the daylight, whole sections of it would have the appearance of a honeycomb. The traveller through the town may wonder where all the oil is stowed, for he sees nothing but dwelling-houses around him. If, on inquiry, he is told to enter the basement story of the dwelling, he is no more enlightened, for the low-arched room is apparently empty; but, in the rocky floor of this room, he will find half a dozen holes, five or six feet in circumference, sunk like wells several feet in the rock, and serving as reservoirs for the oil. Here, the dirtiest, muddiest oil soon becomes of itself clear and limpid. From these cisterns it is drawn off into skins, and carried by men to the sea-shore, where it is emptied into a large reservoir, from whence it is again drawn into casks and shipped.

The vineyards of this kingdom are not so beautiful as those farther north. In Tuscany, the vines are trained on low trees, and festooned gracefully from one to the other, making the vineyard one large, green bower; while here, they are trained on tall misshapen poplars, that give to the vineyards a gaunt, naked appearance.

Agriculture, of course, is in a miserable state. The land is fertile, but there is no encouragement to industry; and the little that is done, is performed to great disadvantage. An American farmer would look around in despair, were such agricultural implements as are used here put in his hands. The plough is but little better than a pointed stick, which is run through the ground, turning no broad smooth furrow like our instrument. It is also very light; and we once saw a woman harnessed to one of them, dragging it backwards and forwards through the field, while the man quietly held it behind. The soil was soft, but the mode of ploughing was certainly unique. The region on towards Pæstum is desolate in the extreme. As far as the eye can reach, over the unfenced plain, will be seen roaming herds of buffalo, each with its keeper, who rides among them on horseback, calling them, like dogs, by name. They are not like the buffaloes of our western prairies, but are smaller, blacker, and without the hump. Indeed, our western animal is not the buffalo, but bison. Sometimes you will see a flock of sheep enclosed by a net, within a small space, to keep them from a patch of cultivated ground lying near. The house of the keeper, standing a little distance off on the wide, open plain, resembles a beaver's hut, in shape and is not much larger in size.

The merchant makes the city. Cripple him, and you cripple commerce. Cripple commerce, and you check at once the growth of the soil; and when this commences, the nation has commenced its downward course. It is mournful to stand by the old harbor of Myzenum, where

once rode the Roman fleet, and see not even a fisherman's boat moored amid its ruins ; and to stroll along the glorious bay of Salerno, and see no ship riding its bosom. This whole coast is indented with harbors, from which spreads away a fruitful land ; but where are the manufactories and shipping ? It seems impossible that three centuries should have wrought such a change. If, in a thousand years from now, not a wharf or vessel would be around New York, and over all the island would roam, unchecked, herds of buffaloes cropping the long grass, where now stand well filled warehouses, and run innumerable streets, it would not be a greater change than has passed over some of these cities. Pæstum, once stood by the sea, a city of palaces and luxury. Now, three skeletons of temples, mere fragments of ruin, rise on the desolate plain. Pompeii, with its once crowded streets, is now a hill of ashes ; and the old magnificent Mole of Puteoli, can only be dimly traced in the bottom of the bay. Thus commerce shifts, and the prosperity of nations decline. This Italian coast was once the centre of the world's commerce—it is now scarce its outskirts. Yet there is no fatality about this—no insuperable obstacle in the way to a commercial resurrection. Give our laws and commercial regulations to this kingdom, and it would rise at once like a sphynx from its ashes.

H.

 ART. IV.—WISCONSIN AND ITS RESOURCES.

AMONG a large portion of our eastern countrymen, there has been an idea prevalent that the picture of the abundant resources and real prosperity of the west, so often exhibited to their view, is highly colored ; that extravagance of description has been substituted for simple fact ; and that the enthusiasm of young and ardent minds has magnified the native materials of our prosperity, till it was in vain to look or hope for correct delineations of our resources and advantages from those whose homes are in our midst.

The speculations of 1836, resulting so disastrously to a large proportion of those engaged in them, and the constitutions shattered by exposure to the agues of Michigan and the fevers of Illinois, in the wild search for immediate wealth, too often induced the unlucky sufferers to bear home no flattering descriptions of the land, in which they had found disappointment and disease, instead of the realization of their golden hopes. Later years, harder times, and more accurate information, have disseminated more correct knowledge, and more than confirmed the most glowing accounts of western fertility ; and the last year has witnessed a result, unexampled even in the history of the rapidly increasing west—a flood of emigration pouring into Wisconsin that has no parallel in the past career of the United States, increasing, as it has, with greater rapidity than any other civilized nation upon the face of the globe.

In 1828, according to the official report, the population of Wisconsin was 18,440 ; in 1830, it had increased to 30,747 ; in 1842, to 46,978 ; and at the commencement of the year 1843, it had undoubtedly amounted to 50,000. The statistics of the Erie canal, for the last five years, exhibit the following amount of furniture as having passed that thoroughfare destined for Wisconsin : in 1838, only 42 tons ; in 1839, 742 ; in 1840, 816 ; in 1841, 1,190 ; and in 1842, 1,985. An increase of over 4600 per cent ;

while, for all the other states bordering upon the lakes, it has diminished rapidly during the same period. For Michigan, Indiana and Pennsylvania, it has fallen off more than one-half, and for Ohio, and Illinois, more than one-third. Showing that the tide of emigration is no longer flowing exclusively to the organized states of the west, but is sending a mighty current towards our no longer infant territory.

In the opinion of men of capacity and intelligence, whose attention has been directed to the lakes, and whose situation enables them to form a correct judgment, it is estimated that from 50,000 to 60,000 have been added to the population of Wisconsin by the way of the great lakes. Full 10,000 more have ascended by the Mississippi, showing an aggregate of 60,000 or 70,000 souls as the increase of the past season; and the astonishing result of a territory of 50,000, more than doubling her population in a single year.

We may then assume 110,000 as the present population of Wisconsin, and every indication leads us to believe that the emigration of 1844 will far exceed that of 1843.

The geographical position of Wisconsin is decidedly favorable to the development of her vast internal resources. Including within her acknowledged limits all that portion of the United States lying north of the 42° 30' of north latitude, and between Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, and the river Mississippi, (except the contested territory of Michigan,) she has an area of 95,000 square miles, surrounded by navigable waters, capable of bearing, and yet to bear, to a direct market, the unnumbered millions of her productive wealth.

Though already larger than any state in the Union, her boundaries have been strangely infringed. Upon the north, west and south, she has been subjected to the rapacious exactions of parent, brethren and stranger, and stripped of portions of her territory, each large enough to form a respectable state.

By the organic act of the Congress of 1787, providing for the government of the northwest territory, in consideration of the cession to the United States, by the states of Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, of all their title in said territory, it was ordained that there should be formed within the limits now occupied by Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, not less than three, nor more than five states. The boundaries of the three states were "fixed and established;" but it was provided, that Congress should have "authority to form one or two additional states in that part of said territory which lies north of an east and west line, drawn through the southerly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan." And it was further provided, that the "articles of compact between the original states, and the people and states in the said territory, should for ever remain unalterable, unless by common consent."

Wisconsin, therefore, claims all that portion of Illinois north of the southerly bend in Lake Michigan, a distance of seventy miles upon the lake, including Chicago, and an area nearly as large as the state of Massachusetts, comprising a portion of country unrivalled in its agricultural facilities, and, with the adjoining counties in Wisconsin, capable of sustaining a larger population to the square mile, from its agricultural wealth, than any other section of the same size in the United States.

The title of Wisconsin to this section has been recognized, by Congress itself, by the gift to Michigan of the northwest part of Wisconsin

in repayment of the disputed tract upon the southern part of Michigan, given to Ohio in 1836.

Michigan founded her undoubted title to that tract, upon the same authority that Wisconsin now claims a portion of Illinois; and though the numerical force of the Ohio delegation effected the confirmation of her claim, the voice of the country was raised against such injustice, and Congress, in atonement, despoiled Wisconsin of 20,000 square miles of her territory, and bestowed the same upon Michigan to satisfy her wounded pride and violated rights.

The inhabitants of the disputed territory are also anxious to be publicly acknowledged as a part of Wisconsin, and have at sundry times signified their desire to co-operate with the people of the territory in forming a state constitution, and in a united body demand their admittance into the Union. The ordinance of 1787, the mutual interests existing between the northern part of Illinois and Wisconsin, and the almost universal wish of the inhabitants of the territory in dispute, all require that the claim of Wisconsin should be sustained, and the boundary lines established at the southern bend of Lake Michigan.

That portion of the Chippewa country given to Michigan, is bounded on the north by Lake Superior, and stretches along 300 miles of the southern coast of that great lake. On the west and southwest, it is bounded by the Montreal river, to the Lake of the Desert, and a straight line drawn from the source of said river to the nearest head waters of the Menomonic river, thence down said river to the centre of Green bay, thence through Lake Michigan and the Straits of Mackinaw to the Falls of St. Mary. Subsequent explorations have shown, that the Lake of the Desert empties into the Wisconsin instead of the Montreal, and that the boundary line between Michigan and the territory, is yet undefined; and it is hoped that, when this matter is again brought before Congress, they will listen to our just demands, sustain the spirit of the ordinance that undoubtedly intended that the natural divisions made by the great lakes, should be the boundary lines of the respective states upon their borders, and reaffix to our territory, that portion so allied by nature, and so effectually separated from Michigan, for six months out of the year, except by a tedious journey of 700 miles around the head of Lake Michigan, and through Wisconsin, Illinois and Indiana.

The treaty of 1842, between the United States and Great Britain, again assailed our boundaries. By the same ordinance of 1787, the northern boundary of the fifth state was defined to be "the territorial line between the United States and Canada, to the Lake of the Woods, and Mississippi;" and by the definitive treaty of peace, concluded 1783, between Great Britain and the United States, upon which the boundary lines in said ordinance are predicated, said territorial line was defined as running "through Lake Superior, northward of the Isles Royal and Philipeaux, to the Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods." By the treaty of 1842, the line left Lake Superior "at the mouth of Pigeon river, and up said river, to and through the north and south Fowl lakes to the lakes of the height of land between Lake Superior and the Lake of the Woods, thence along the water communication," through several small lakes, to Rainy lake.

The late report of the Hon. Moses M. Strong, to the council of the territory, shows, conclusively, that the entrance of Long lake (the boundary

of 1783) into Lake Superior, is through the Kamanistagua or Dog river, sixty miles northeast of the entrance of Pigeon river, (the boundary of 1842.) The boundary lines, then, of the two treaties, are essentially different; leaving Lake Superior at widely different points, and only reuniting in Rainy lake: thus surrendering to a foreign and a rival power, an area of over 10,000 square miles, without so much as asking the consent of the people of Wisconsin, whose boundary lines were declared to be unalterable unless by common consent.

During the agitation of the northeastern boundary question, the Union was convulsed from one extremity to the other, and prepared for an immediate resort to arms, were our rights violated upon that frontier. Two powerful states were in readiness to exert the full power of their sovereignties, at every risk, in preserving the integrity of their boundaries; and when an appeal was made to the spirit of negotiation, instead of the God of battles, these two states were again admitted, through their commissioners, and allowed to deliberate upon the treaty and determine the quantity of territory they would release, and the equivalents they should receive. But upon the northwestern frontier, an infant territory existed without an organization of her own, and without power in the national Congress; and portions of her territory, larger than the whole of Maine, have been silently taken and bestowed upon neighboring states and foreign powers, without the slightest allusion to her consent as one of the parties, and the only party to be affected by the solemn contract of 1787. It is certainly a matter of serious consideration, whether the cession by the general government, especially to a foreign power, of a portion of Wisconsin, without the consent of the people or even with their consent, while under a territorial government, will be a bar to their claiming, as a state, the boundary guaranteed by the ordinance. That, that ordinance was a contract binding upon all parties, cannot be denied; and it is also true, that its terms cannot be altered or rescinded without the common consent.

To preserve the balance of power, the northern states probably stipulated, that there should not be less than three states in the northwest territory; and, for the same reason, the south stipulated that there should not be more than five. The infringement of the boundaries of that territory, at the instance of only one of the contracting parties, is to alter the terms of the contract, and that in one of its most important provisions; thereby doing a deed that is either null and void in its very inception, or that rescinds the mutual agreement, and vests the northwest territory again in the original owners.

The question of our boundaries will come up for future consideration, and cannot be finally settled until the original boundaries are restored, or Wisconsin sees fit to confirm the spoliations already made, and accept an indemnity therefor. And, even if Wisconsin should give her consent, it would seem that the consent of the original donors should first be obtained, before the question can be put at rest for ever.

The river Wisconsin has hitherto been considered the boundary line of the settlements, and those beyond have enjoyed no regular administration of the laws. During the last winter several new counties have been established, in the immense country north and west of that river. Comparatively unknown as is that region, it may be well to bestow rather more attention upon its geographical position than would be necessary in

an older state. Her lakes and rivers, whose names hitherto have been scarcely heard, are upon a scale, as to number and size, commensurate with the magnitude of the territory, and worthy of the resources they are to assist in developing.

First in importance, is the Mississippi, rising in the northwest. It laves the whole western boundary of the territory, offering a great thoroughfare to the markets of the south for all the bordering country. From the Falls of St. Anthony to the southern line of the territory, a distance of 300 miles, it is navigable for steamboats. Above the falls, the stream is broken by occasional rapids so as to impede its navigation, till the country north shall warrant its improvement.

The Wisconsin, the second river in size, rises in the Lake of the Desert, in the northeastern part of the territory, and pursues a southerly course for 150 miles till it approaches within a mile and a half of Swan lake, a small lake through whose waters the Neenah or Fox river flows into Green bay, thence, south by east, it continues a course of 100 miles and enters the Mississippi 40 miles from the southern boundary. This river is navigable for steamboats of ordinary size, for 100 miles; and for batteaux, a much greater distance. The Pine river, after running 100 miles in a due south line, through a heavily timbered pine country, empties into the Wisconsin 30 miles west of Swan lake. This river is navigable nearly its whole distance for rafts, batteaux, &c. Sixty miles north of the mouth of the Wisconsin, by the way of the river, the Prairie de la Crosse, 75 miles in length, empties into the Mississippi. Twenty miles farther up, the Black river empties into the Mississippi. With a little improvement at its mouth, it would be navigable for small steamboats 50 miles to its falls, where there is an immense water power, partially improved, and from the value of the surrounding forests capable of being made a place of great importance. Fifty miles north of the Black river, the Chippewa empties, navigable for small steamboats 75 miles, and for canoes 150 miles; passing through, and drawing its sustenance from numerous lakes, and watering that part of the territory known as the Carver Grant. This river is nearly, if not quite, as large as the Wisconsin. The St. Croix runs in a southwest direction, and empties into the Mississippi, 75 miles north of the mouth of the Chippewa, and 30 miles below the Falls of St. Anthony. It is navigable for small steamboats 40 miles to its falls. Immediately above the Falls of St. Anthony, the Missisagaigou or Rum river is received. Taking its rise in the dreary Tamerack swamps of the north, it runs nearly due south, and is navigable for canoes 125 miles.

Beside these, the principal rivers emptying into the Mississippi, there are numerous smaller ones, nearly all of which are capable of providing a large amount of water power. Upon the 48° of latitude, Turtle lake gives rise to the Grand Fork, a river running northerly, at the extreme north, dividing Iowa from Wisconsin, and emptying into Rainy lake, through which passes the boundary line between the United States and her Britannic majesty's possessions.

Of the rivers emptying into Lake Superior, the St. Louis is by far the largest; pursuing a tortuous course of over 300 miles, with its general bearing towards the east, through the mountains in the northern part of the territory, it loses itself in Lake Superior, in the extreme western point. For 20 miles from its mouth it presents the appearance of a large

estuary, easy of entrance at all times to the largest vessels, and capable of affording a secure harbor, for all the commerce of the United States. At the head of this estuary, the navigation of the river is interrupted by falls, that, in the course of a few miles, make a descent of over 300 feet. The Burnt Wood, rising in a small lake in the interior, runs nearly due north, and empties in the Superior, 40 miles east of the mouth of the St. Louis. This stream is navigable for batteaux about 80 miles, and is connected by a portage with the waters of the St. Croix. The Mauvaise, or Bad river, rises in Pipestone lake, pursues the same course as the Burnt Wood, and discharges itself into the lake, 75 miles east of the Burnt Wood, by the headlands of the lake, and 15 miles east of La Pointe, the place of the utmost importance upon Lake Superior, and possessing a superior natural harbor, at all times accessible. The Bad river is said to be navigable 100 miles in canoes. Twenty miles further east, is the outlet of the Montreal, a stream much larger than the Mauvaise, and at present the boundary between Wisconsin and the disputed territory of Michigan. It is a rapid, but navigable stream for the Indian batteaux, for over 150 miles, and connects with the Menomonie, by a short portage. This latter stream is also the boundary line of the territory, and empties into Green bay, midway between its north and south extreme. In the southeastern part of the territory, the Neenah or Fox river, taking its rise near the Wisconsin, with which it is connected by a portage only a mile and a half in length, pursues a general northeastern course, passing through several small lakes into Lake Winnebago, thence, by a course of 40 miles, emptying into the southern extremity of Green bay. Ten miles west of Lake Winnebago, the Neenah receives the Wolf river, a stream that rises in the northeast part of the territory, near the source of the Wisconsin, and pursues a southerly course to its junction with the Neenah. It is considerably larger than the Neenah, and is navigable 60 miles.

In that section of the territory between the Wisconsin river on the west, and Lake Michigan on the east, there are few rivers of importance. Of these, Rock river is by far the largest. It runs through the centre of said section for 150 miles, and after an additional course of 165 miles, in the state of Illinois, empties into the Mississippi. Illinois has attempted the improvement of her portion of this river, and it is estimated that \$178,000, expended under the control of the state, would be sufficient to render it navigable to the territorial line. The official reports of officers of the topographical corps, show the feasibility of making it navigable through the territory, for vessels drawing two and a half feet of water, to the junction of the Rock and Doty rivers, 150 miles by the way of the river, and only 18 miles from the southern extremity of Lake Winnebago, to which it might be connected by a canal that would divert, if it were necessary, still more water into the channel of the Rock. The second river in size, is the Pashtie or Fox, which runs southerly, parallel to the lake, for about 60 miles in the territory, and empties into the Illinois, near the southern extremity of the Michigan and Illinois canal.

It is a singular fact, that along the western side of Lake Michigan for full one half its length, there are rivers running parallel to it from 5 to 25 miles distant. The Fox river in the territory, is in no case more than 25 miles distant, and the river Des Plaines, which rises in Racine county, and contributes to form the Illinois, in its course of 60 miles, is, in many

places, not over 6 miles distant from the lake. Green bay, in the same manner, drains the country upon the northern half of the lake.

Numerous lakes are scattered over the face of the territory, which, if anywhere else than in the vicinity of those great internal waters by which Wisconsin is surrounded, would render our territory famous. Green bay, though not properly called a lake, as it is connected on the north with Lake Michigan by a channel some 20 miles in width, filled with small islands, is 120 miles in length, by 20 broad, and receives into its waters all those rivers that rise in the northeast part of the territory, and flow in an easterly direction. Lake Winnebago, 10 miles in width, by 30 in length, is situated, as has been remarked, 40 miles southwest of Green bay; and is most known, as, till lately, it marked the boundaries of the settlements. It is surrounded by a beautiful country, adapted to agricultural purposes, and over its waters must pass the commerce that will soon find an outlet at Green bay. Lake De Flambeau, upon the western side, in the midst of a broken country, gives rise to one of the branches of the Chippewa, and averages about 40 miles in length by 10 in width. The country around this lake is highly diversified, resembling more the New England scenery, than the generally monotonous aspect of the west. The Lake of the Desert, 10 by 20 miles in size, formerly supposed to be the source of the Montreal, and the boundary between the Michigan claim and the territory, is now known to give rise to the Wisconsin. Lakes Tomahawk, Courteoreille, and Chi Tac, average, in size, 8 by 20 miles, and give rise to separate branches of the Chippewa. Lake St. Croix, 36 miles by 3, receives the waters of the St. Croix, and discharges them into the Mississippi, by a channel two miles in length. Besides these, there are numerous smaller lakes, varying in size from 10 to 50 square miles.

The face of the country presents very different aspects in its different divisions, offering all the variety of mountain, plain, and valley. The southern portion of the territory is comparatively level, the greater part of it alternating between the prairie and the oak openings, the latter of which consist of burr oaks scattered from ten to fifty feet apart, perfectly free from underbrush, and resembling more an ancient park than the forests of a new country. Singular in their growth and position, they are often found running for miles in narrow ridges, parallel to each other, divided by belts of prairie, varying from a few feet to miles in width.

The prairies have a deep black, and exceedingly fertile soil, but are not generally esteemed as highly for the cultivation of wheat as the warmer and more protected surface of the oak openings. They are, however, improved by frequent tillage; and, if secured a few years from the annual fires that sweep over them, will generally be found covered with a thick growth of timber. The centre of the territory, between Illinois and Lake Superior, assumes a more hilly appearance, and as we approach the north, the larger timber becomes more abundant; though, even upon the shores of Lake Superior, and thence extending south, are to be found prairies of respectable size. Numerous tamerack swamps are also to be found in this section, that render the exploration of the country, without roads, somewhat difficult.

It is said by the Hon. Alfred Brunson, who made a report to the last legislature of his travels in the interior of the territory, that "after ascending the Black and Chippewa about 30 miles, the general face of the

country is some 300 feet lower than the bluffs of the rivers and the ridges that divide their waters. These lowlands, as they may be called, though 200 feet above the rivers, are generally level or gently rolling, of a sandy soil, with but little timber, and present the appearance of having been once the bottom of large lakes, formed by the rivers, shut in by the Mississippi bluffs from that stream, but cutting their way through the bluffs, and a channel through the sandy bottoms left the plains far above the present channels of those streams. If this was ever the case, the lake formed by the Chippewa must have been some 300 miles in circumference, nor could that formed by the Black river have been much less."

The agricultural facilities of the more northern part of the territory are not much known. It is unquestionably good for grazing; and the region between the St. Louis and the Montreal is said to be suited to the raising of wheat, and to afford farming sites, excelled by none, even in the west. Hitherto, however, it has only been traversed by the trapper, or the adventurer in pursuit of mineral wealth; and the numerous rivers are the thoroughfares, upon which, in bark canoes, they seek their journey's end. Few demands have been made upon the soil for its fruits, except in the scanty patches cultivated around the trading posts; and, therefore, little can be said of its capabilities, except by report, which characterises the north as an agricultural section scarcely inferior to the south, and richer by far in mines, timber, fisheries, and water power.

Private enterprise is in a fair way to develop some of the resources of the north. Bands of men have recently penetrated to the borders of Lake Superior, allured by the brilliant descriptions of its mineral wealth. Mines of lead, copper and iron, have been represented as abounding, of extraordinary richness, and easy of access; and specimens of silver have been exhibited, as a promise of what Wisconsin can afford of the more precious metals. And though time has not sufficiently elapsed to determine with certainty the result of their enterprise, yet the huge boulders of virgin metal, already extracted from the borders of Lake Superior, and the reports of others, of even greater size and purity, attest the uncontradicted accounts of its mineral wealth and varied resources; so much so, that the secretary of war, in his last report, recommends the construction of a ship-canal around the Falls of St. Mary, that there may be an uninterrupted ship-communication from the lower lakes to the vast mineral region of Lake Superior, and announced the taking possession of the mining country with a military force; so that the enterprise of individuals, has not only to contend with the fastnesses of nature, but with the physical force of the general government.

The construction of that canal will make the northern part of the territory as easy of access as the south or eastern; and should its agricultural fertility in any degree correspond with its other resources, the tremendous influx of population, into that region, will people northern Wisconsin with unprecedented rapidity. Not only will our own territory be benefited by that canal, but an additional impetus will be given to the commerce with the larger portion of British America; and Rainy lake, Lake of the Woods, and even Lake Winnipeg, will be almost as near the markets of the east, as, at the present time, are the borders of the greatest of lakes. According to the secretary's report, this great national work can be "effected by the construction of a canal about a mile in length, through the lands of the United States, around the Falls of St.

Mary, with two locks suitable for passing steamboats, the expense of which will not probably exceed \$100,000." Such is the importance of the object, it would seem, that the present Congress could not adjourn without making a suitable appropriation to that effect.

The numerous rivers and inlets along the southern coast of Lake Superior, will, in a great measure, relieve government of the burden of constructing harbors upon that iron-bound coast. At the mouth of the St. Louis, at La Pointe, and at Isle Royal, are natural harbors that no artificial aid can equal. Not so upon Lake Michigan, whose remarkably smooth, regular, and sandy shores, are indented by no inlets, and receive no rivers of sufficient importance to preserve an open channel through the sandy beach. South of the Manitow's, which are situated near the extreme north of the lake, for 300 miles there is no protection for shipping except that which government shall construct. A commerce that, in 1836, amounted to \$16,000,000, in 1841, to \$66,000,000, and at the present time undoubtedly amounts to \$100,000,000, demands the fostering aid of the general government; and yet, though the lake commerce is equal to one-half of all the foreign commerce of the United States, though the public treasury has received over \$6,000,000 from the inhabitants of Wisconsin, \$30,000 only has been appropriated to facilitate her commerce, and provide an eastern outlet for her agricultural and mineral products. Milwaukee, Racine, and Southport, are the three prominent points that are claimants for congressional appropriations; and the estimated expense of constructing a harbor, at each of these places, is about \$80,000 for Milwaukee, \$40,000 for Racine, and \$44,000 for Southport—the former a place of 6,000 inhabitants, the next of 1,200, and the last of 1,800. Some idea of the importance of these towns, and the rapidity of their growth, may be formed from the returns given at a late census of the village of Southport: in 1840, it had 300 inhabitants; in January, 1842, it had 762; and, in November, 1843, it contained a population of 1,820. The past year, 75,000 bushels of wheat, and nearly 400,000 pounds of lead, have been shipped to the east, notwithstanding the danger and inconvenience of vessels loading at wharves projected into the lake, without protection of any kind.

Can it be possible that the 100,000 inhabitants of Wisconsin will longer be refused the trifling sum of \$160,000—trifling compared to the advantages it will secure—to construct those harbors that the safety of their property, and the lives of those who minister unto their wants, imperiously require? Harbors, at the three points mentioned, would double the price of land, and add millions to the private estates of the country, besides adding incalculably to the value of the national domain.

Sank Harbor, Sheboyagan, and Manitowoc, situated farther north—at the mouth of rivers of their respective names—are also claimants of the public bounty, and deserve sufficient appropriations to accomplish the desired object. As the north increases in population, their wants will be more apparent, and the necessity of harbors, at these points, more urgent.

Next to the construction of harbors upon Lake Michigan, no improvement is more demanded by the people of the territory, or would be of greater importance to the country at large, than the connection of Lake Michigan with the Mississippi, by means of a railroad. It is no Quixotic scheme, or idle speculation, to suppose that it is equally needed, and to believe that it would be full as profitable as *any* of the railroads of the

east. It is the last remaining link in the chain of steam communication from the ports of Maine to the Mississippi; connecting, by the shortest route, the father of waters with the busy marts of eastern commerce, and bringing the borders of remote Iowa into immediate contiguity with the shores of the Atlantic.

Such a road, from Southport or Racine, to Potosi or Galena, a distance of 150 miles, would run in a nearly due east and west line, through the most fertile and highly cultivated portion of the territory; penetrating the very heart of the mineral region, and diverting, beyond doubt, millions of pounds of lead from the long and dangerous navigation of the Mississippi, to the safer and more direct passage of the lakes.

Upon the completion of the Michigan railroad, a citizen of Iowa could place his foot in Boston in ninety-six hours after his departure from home. The farmers of Wisconsin, and the northern part of Illinois, would be the first to feel the beneficial influence of a railroad; for their great staple is an article so bulky, that the expense of transportation is often equal to half the value of the wheat; and some of the best wheat lands are from 40 to 75 miles from the lake. The expense of constructing such a road, at a fair calculation, could not exceed \$1,000,000 or \$1,200,000, as the country over which it would pass is comparatively level. Were it constructed, of the 41,000,000 pounds of lead produced at the upper mines the last year, it would be fair to suppose that three-quarters of it, at least, would pass over this road, paying at the rate of $37\frac{1}{2}$ cents per 100 lbs., which would yield over \$100,000; one single article thus paying 10 per cent interest upon the original investment.

Another improvement, hardly less important than the last, and effected at much less expense, is the connection of the Wisconsin and the Neenah or Fox river, and the improvement of this last, so as to open a direct water communication between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan, by the way of Green Bay. The rapids in the Neenah, between Lake Winnebago and Green Bay, present the principal obstruction to this improvement; and it is estimated that these obstructions can be removed at an expense of \$375,000, so as to render the river navigable for the smaller class of steamboats that ply upon the Mississippi. For the remaining 110 miles, from Lake Winnebago to Swan lake, (a small sheet of water, separated from the Wisconsin by a portage only a mile and a half in length,) the Neenah is already navigable, and requires only the removal of an occasional sand-bar to afford a sufficient depth of water, at all times, for the craft that will be required to enter her waters. The Wisconsin also requires the removal of a few sand-bars, to render her navigation entirely free; but this can be effected at a slight expense.

At ordinary times, the waters of the Neenah are a foot and a half lower than those in the Wisconsin; but, during the season of high water, the height of land that divides them is covered to the depth of three feet, or more; and waters destined for the Mississippi find their outlet in the St. Lawrence.

The cost of constructing the section of the canal uniting these rivers, as estimated by government agents, will be only \$64,000. Thus, for less than half a million of dollars, as determined by estimates made years ago, when the value of every article was much higher than at the present time, a direct water communication can be effected between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan—a communication that will be full as impor-

tant and valuable to the interests of Wisconsin, as will be the Michigan and Illinois canal to the state through which it is to pass.

The obvious importance of this route, and the feasibility of effecting a passage across the country, instigated the early French, a hundred years ago, to locate, at Green Bay, and there establish the earliest settlement in Wisconsin; and it is worthy of note that, in this northwest territory, the barriers that divide the waters flowing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, from those flowing into the Gulf of Mexico, are, in many places, so faintly defined, and the sources of the respective streams so closely connected, that the old voyagers could often float in their bark canoes from one water to the other.

A bill is now before the Senate of the United States, providing for the grant of every alternate mile of a strip of land, two miles in width, upon either side of the Neenah and Wisconsin rivers, from their sources to the point of connection, for the improvement of these rivers; and in the report of the committee, it was observed, that no work of its magnitude and interest to the general government could be constructed at less expense. Not a dollar would be taken from the public treasury, and the work would progress, only as rapidly as emigration should flow into that region, and the appropriated lands taken up. The friends of the work desire no more available fund than such a grant; convinced, as they are, of the impetus it will give to emigration into that region, and the consequent ready sale of the lands. A single glance, at the mass, will convince one of the importance of the enterprise. Passing through the garden of Wisconsin, and connecting the lakes and the Mississippi by the shortest water communication, it will, of course, become the outlet for the section of the country bordering upon it, and all that vast, and as yet unfrequented region of the northern Mississippi.

It may be too much, to say, that the Wisconsin route will divert trade from the Illinois canal, which, 300 miles farther south, runs parallel to it; but, while the latter depends upon a canal of 100 miles in length, a complete water communication from the east to the west is furnished by the former, with only five miles of canal; but, if it should not divert commerce from below the Illinois river, it will suffer nothing north of that river to pass eastward by any more southern route.

The construction of a national road from Fond du Lac, at the mouth of the St. Louis, to St. Peter's, at St. Anthony's falls, is another work that should be effected by the general government. The distance is only 150 miles, and the country between is said to be of the first quality for a road, connecting the extreme north and western points of navigation upon the Mississippi and Lake Superior. Such a road is much needed at the present time, as there is no communication between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi, and any part of the whole coast of Lake Superior.

The construction of harbors upon the lake coast, the extension of a railroad from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi, and the improvement of the Fox and Wisconsin, are objects of paramount importance to the people of Wisconsin, for which the aid of Congress has been repeatedly implored, and is now demanded, as some slight reparation for the infringement of her boundaries, and the violation of her vested rights. It is also demanded, as a measure of justice to the great west, whose commerce now exceeds, by nearly one quarter, the whole foreign commerce of the United States, but whose rivers have been left obstructed, and whose

lakes have been left unimproved, while, from Maine to Georgia, the whole Atlantic coast has been guarded with a watchful care, and a navy, supported at the expense of millions, ever ready to lend a helping hand to relieve from suffering or protect from danger. The west does not complain that the Atlantic coast has been properly protected, they do not even complain of the \$10,000,000 spent in protection of the \$200,000,000 of foreign commerce, if that amount is really needed; but they do complain of the scanty pittance doled out so grudgingly for the protection of the still greater commerce of the west. They will ever complain of that policy that wantonly sacrifices the lives and property of citizens of the west, for want of improvements effected at a few thousand dollars expense, while millions are spent in erecting splendid custom-houses, and repairing useless ships upon the Atlantic coast.

A feeling is abroad, and deeply settled in the minds of men, that the west has been unfairly dealt with; and when the power shall come to their hands, as come it surely will, in 1850, it need not create astonishment if the same measure is meted to the east that she is now so ready to give the west. Every supporter of the east, every lover of the navy, should be ready *now* to make those concessions, that will secure a favorable hearing for themselves, when "westward the star of empire takes its way." One-third part of what Wisconsin has already paid into the public treasury, would be sufficient to construct all her harbors, railroads and canals; and a moderate grant of the soil to be used for this purpose of improvement, would increase the value of the remainder of the public domain, hasten its sale, and benefit the people of Wisconsin incalculably, without detracting a dollar from the public wealth.

The great staples of Wisconsin, upon which she must principally depend for years to come, are the productions of her mines and fields. From the census of 1840, it is ascertained that there were then 49 smelting-houses in the territory, employing a capital of \$664,600, and 220 men, and yielding 15,129,350 pounds of lead, worth about \$500,000. In 1843, there were probably about 20,000,000 pounds smelted, equal to one-half of all the lead produced in the United States. The principal lead diggings are in the counties of Grant and Iowa, in the southwest corner of the territory; and the thriving towns of Mineral Point, Plattville, Dodgeville, Potosi, &c., have sprung up and derive their importance entirely from the mineral wealth in their vicinity. The largest portion of the mineral seeks a purchaser at Galena, five miles south of the present boundary; but should a railroad be constructed from any part of the Mississippi to the lake, a large proportion of this sale and exchange would be diverted to other points.

Copper, lead and silver, have been discovered upon the borders of Lake Superior, but the explorations and reports have not been sufficiently extensive and accurate, to allow us, at this time, to judge with certainty of their real importance; nor would it be for the interest of those engaged in the search for minerals, to allure thither by flattering reports, competition from their companions, or opposition from government. It is, however, known that the copper mines of Wisconsin average about 21, 10-100ths of pure metal, while the famous mines of Cornwall, England, average only about 10 per cent. Mineral Point, alone, during the past year, yielded \$11,000 worth of pure copper. About the falls of the Chippewa, virgin copper has been found; and thence, up that stream, indications of

the ore have been discovered that promise to make that region valuable for its ores as well as its lumber. In the vicinity of La Pointe, there is a group of islands, upon a number of which large copper mines have been discovered. Isle Royal, an island 40 miles long, in the northwest of Lake Superior, is also rich in her mines. Upon the St. Louis, above the falls, both virgin copper and the ore abound, in the vicinity of an inexhaustible water power, and where every convenience for smelting is easily obtained.

Numerous mounds, apparently of iron ore, from 100 to 300 feet in height, exist in the neighborhood of the Black river falls, and of the best water power; and the product of these mines is capable of an easy transportation to the interior of the territory.

There is an abundance of limestone, and excellent clay for bricks throughout the whole territory, generally burning to a yellowish white, very much resembling the Bristol brick. Between the Black and the Chippewa rivers, large quantities of quartz formation are found, so connected with flint as to cut glass, and, by experienced millers, pronounced capable of making Burr millstones equal to any imported from France. Jasper, cornelian, agate and sardonyx, have been discovered in the territory. The census of 1840, showed that 1 in every 38 of the population of Wisconsin, were engaged in mining, though the mineral resources are but partially developed, while the average proportion in the rest of the United States was as 1 to 1,122.

The statistics of agriculture, derived from the census of 1840, are extremely meagre, and based upon a population hardly one-third of the present, cannot be relied upon as giving any accurate idea of the present resources of the territory. It exhibits, however, the following returns:—

Horses and mules,.....No.	5,735	Wheat,.....bush.	212,116
Neat cattle,.....	30,269	Barley,.....	11,062
Sheep,.....	3,462	Oats,.....	406,514
Swine,.....	51,383	Rye,.....	1,965
Poultry,..... Value in dollars	16,157	Buckwheat,.....	10,654
Wool,.....lbs.	6,777	Corn,.....	379,359
Hops,.....	133	Potatoes,.....	419,608
Wax,.....	1,474	Hay,.....tons	30,938
Sugar, (maple,).....	135,288	Wood,.....cords	22,910
Ginseng,.....	3,562	Dairy,..... Value in dollars	35,677

The culture of tobacco has been recently undertaken by the farmers of Rock river valley, with flattering prospects of success. The raising of hemp is also receiving attention; and from present indications, and the adaptedness of the soil to their culture, we may reasonably conclude that in a few years Wisconsin will become a great exporter of these two valuable articles.

Wool raising is also a prominent object of attention, and the time is not distant when the west must engross the markets of the east with this commodity. The number of sheep has rapidly increased throughout the territory, and in Racine county, alone, there are probably more now than in the whole territory in 1840. For eight months in the year, millions of sheep may be kept, without let or hindrance, upon the prairies; and the curing of the same grass, upon which they feed in summer, constitutes the only expense attendant upon their keeping in the winter. It is generally estimated, that the increase of the flock will fully pay all the expenses of keeping. From almost every part of the territory, the expense

of transporting wool to the manufactories of Lowell, cannot exceed three cents per pound. With this only drawback to all the other facilities of the west, it is evident that the eastern wool grower cannot long compete with the cheaper product of the west.

But it is in the raising of wheat that Wisconsin, for years to come, will derive a large portion of her wealth. There can be no better soil upon the face of the earth, for that grain, than the oak openings that are scattered profusely over her surface. The amount she is able to export, after supplying the wants of the tens of thousands who have recently entered her borders, affords some intimation of its capacity, when all her tillable lands are occupied, and her army of consumers turned producers. The two counties of Racine and Walworth, twenty-four miles square each, probably raised twice as much wheat in 1843, as was produced by the whole territory in 1840. The soil of the openings is generally preferred to that of the prairies, for wheat; and one reason alleged, is, that the greater fertility of the prairies gives to the wheat stalk too rapid growth, rendering it liable to rust. This is obviated by frequent tillage. For every other production of a northern climate, the prairies are exceedingly adapted; and, for years to come, their fertility will be scarcely impaired by the repeated annual drafts to which they are subjected.

Considerable quantities of pork and beef are prepared in the territory for an eastern market, and these articles will, of course, increase with the age of the country. Several lard oil manufactories are in process of erection, and any amount can be produced that the market shall warrant.

In 1840, there were ships and vessels, owned in Wisconsin, only to the amount of \$7,159; commercial houses 7, capital \$6,300; retail grocers 178, capital \$661,550; lumber-yards 14, capital \$21,180; and \$202,239 worth of lumber was produced in the territory. There were also returned \$124,776 worth of furs and skins, as the product of the year 1839; a quantity undoubtedly below the real amount, as in this department accuracy at any time cannot be expected, the hunters scattered throughout the wilderness making their market wherever a good or evil fortune may chance to throw them.

The statistics of manufactures are even less satisfactory than the others. Of all factories there were 11; value of articles, \$11,800; capital, \$17,002. Bricks were manufactured to the value of \$6,527; capital, \$4,355. Value of the tanneries, \$150; hats, \$61. Soap and candles, 64,317 lbs.; tallow candles, 11,909 lbs. Distilleries, 3; gallons produced, 8,300. Breweries, 3; gallons produced, 14,200. Flouring-mills, 4; barrels of flour, 9,000. Grist-mills, 29; saw-mills, 124. Printing-offices, 6; weekly papers, 6; capital, \$10,300.

These are but the faint beginnings of those interests, that, ere long, must elevate Wisconsin to a lofty rank among the manufacturing states. Her water power is immense, capable of affording a motive power for all the manufactories of the world; her valuable mines are spread over her entire surface, far exceeding those of any other state; her wheat-fields yield almost spontaneously; wool will soon become one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of her agricultural staples; cotton may be brought to her western border from some of the cotton-growing states, with greater facility than it can be transported to New Orleans. The railroads and other improvements that, in course of time, will be constructed, whether

Congress lend a helping hand, or not, will scatter this material over her entire surface, greater, by one-half, than all New England.

With all these facilities, Wisconsin lacks only *capital*, without which, the greatest natural advantages are useless, to become a dangerous rival to the manufacturing states of the east, and even of the old world; and capital can only find its way, by easy and hesitating steps, into the wilderness of a new country.

The timber of Wisconsin consists of white, yellow and Norway pine, rock and soft maple, nearly all the varieties of oak, balsam, fir, white and red cedar, spruce, hemlock, lynn, aspen, white, black and yellow birch, ash, poplar, basswood, walnut, hickory, tamerack, wild plum, cherry, &c. But few species of the genus *pinus*, are found in the extreme southern part; there is some cedar, and occasionally a tamerack swamp. The more northern portion abounds in those varieties, most essential to the use of man; and such is the situation of the country, that nearly all parts of it may be supplied with pine lumber, at a moderate expense. From Green bay, Sheboygau and Manitowoc, large quantities of pine are shipped to Milwaukee, Racine, Southport and Chicago, and retailed at an average price of \$10 per thousand. Throughout the northern parts of Michigan and Wisconsin, the pine forests are immense; and for many years to come the price will diminish, rather than increase, as capital is more and more diverted to the pineries. At Southport, Racine and Milwaukee, from 12,000,000 to 15,000,000 feet of lumber, and from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 of shingles, have been sold the past year. From the valuable pineries upon the banks of the Pine, the Black, the Chippewa and the Wisconsin rivers, are rafted down large quantities of lumber to the Mississippi markets. By the estimate of Mr. Brunson, these rivers have yielded 15,000,000 feet the past year, and their capacity can be increased to any desired extent.

The fisheries of Wisconsin are not unworthy of notice. In the very heart of the North American continent, thousands of miles from the scene of the labors of the hardy Cape Cod and Nantucket men, a trade is springing up that will banish their commodities from the west. In the year 1840, 9,021 barrels of pickled fish were cured, and 1,500 gallons of fish-oil produced in the territory. Since that time, the business has been increasing, and large quantities of white fish, a fish peculiar to the lakes, are sold in the markets adjoining the lakes. Besides, there are found in abundance, the Mackinaw trout, by many preferred to the brook trout, the sturgeon, salmon-trout, muskelunge, a species of pike frequenting the rivers, and often caught from four to six feet in length, pickerel, perch, herring, rock-bass, white and black bass, cat-fish, trout, gar and mullet.

The uninhabited parts of Wisconsin abound in nearly the same species of game and wild animals, that are found in all the new northwestern states. Elk, deer, moose, beaver, bear, gray, black and prairie wolves, wild cat, panther, rakkoon, porcupine, martin, fox, squirrel, opossum, lynx, muskrat, weasle, gopher and black, or prairie hens, which are found in large quantities upon the prairies, and in the neighborhood of the cultivated fields.

The census of 1840, when the population of the territory was 30,000, exhibited the following returns as to the number engaged in some of the principal employments: in mining, 794; agriculture, 7,047; commerce, 479; manufactures and trades, 1,814; navigation, 209; learned profes-

sions, 259; showing a greater proportion of the whole population engaged in mining, navigation and the learned professions, than in any other of the states or territories; and, except Louisiana, a larger proportion engaged in commerce. These same proportions probably hold good to the present time.

The interests of education have not been neglected in this new land. A majority of its inhabitants, coming from New England and New York, bring with them, not only the rudiments of education, but a love for the institutions left behind; and though the sparseness of the population prevents them from at present reaping the same practical benefits, yet, there is a system of common schools established, that, with some revision, will, in time, work the same happy results as in the older states. As in all the new states, every sixteenth section in a township, is set apart, by the general government, for the single purpose of supporting free schools; and when we become a state, this fund will be applied to its object, as the collective wisdom of the legislature shall prescribe. There has also been appropriated by Congress, 46,000 acres of land for the establishment of a university. During the several past years, nearly all of this land has been located by committee's, or agents of the legislature, in detached parcels, and must, therefore, constitute a valuable and rapidly increasing fund. In all the considerable towns and villages, academies and high schools are established; and the tone of education and morality will compare favorably with the favored regions, whence the mass of the population sprung.

Notwithstanding she has been shorn of her territory, upon either side, when she enters the confederacy, Wisconsin will enter it with the most extended domain of any state in the Union; and, except a few thousand dollars, improvidently expended by her legislature for legislative expenses, over and above the general appropriation, she will enter it free from that scourge of republics, a public debt. The example of some of the neighboring states, so lately and narrowly upon the verge of bankruptcy, will deter her from launching, unaided, into schemes of public improvement, (presenting, indeed, to the fancy, brilliant prospects of success,) before the means shall be secured, and the way of payment clearly pointed out. By an act of the late legislature, the question of forming a state government is to be formally submitted to the people, at the coming fall election; and if a majority are in favor of that measure, the governor is authorized to call a convention to form the constitution. It is believed that, at the present time, a majority of the people are in favor of putting off territorial bondage, and seeking immediate admission into the Union.

The enlargement of the Welland canal, will be an important measure for the interests of Wisconsin. Aided by the Ericson propeller, which is expected to work a new era in the commerce of the lakes, we may confidently anticipate the time when a direct trade in lead, copper, wool and wheat, will be opened between the ports of Lake Michigan, and those of the Atlantic coast, and the products of the west, relieved from the transshipments, to which they are now subject, in their passage to the east.

And, finally, over and around all these elements of wealth, that Wisconsin possesses, health throws her blessed shield. Her prairies and her openings, yield no noxious vapors, and her mines breathe no deadly pestilence. Here are none of those prevailing diseases incident to the south, the east and other parts of the west. The emigrant may rest as-

sured that, while the earth yields him her increase almost spontaneously, and nature showers her bounties with a prolific hand, health will brighten his cheek, and strength nerve his arm. From those diseases, whose periodical visitation to some parts of the west, make the privations of a new country doubly irksome and gloomy, he will be comparatively exempt; and if he continues to rely upon, and exercise his own energies, and avoid that bane of a fertile country, idleness, he may be assured that no portion of this Union can offer him surer prospects of future wealth, or more permanent advantages for himself and his descendants.

ART. V.—PROGRESS OF INVENTION AND MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE Annual Report of Mr. Ellsworth, the Commissioner of Patents, for the year 1843, is a document of great interest, embracing, as it does, a large amount of information on subjects connected with the progress of the arts, manufactures, agriculture and the general resources of the country. We propose, in the present article, to exhibit a few of the facts and statements of the report, in a concise and comprehensive form, as they fall within the design of this Magazine. From this report, we learn that five hundred and thirty-one patents were issued during the year 1843, including eleven reissues, fourteen designs, and two additional improvements to former patents. During the same period, four hundred and forty-six patents expired. The applications for patents, during the year 1843, amounted to eight hundred and nineteen; and the number of caveats filed, three hundred and fifteen. The receipts of the office, for 1843, amounted to \$35,315 81; from which are to be deducted, repaid, on applications withdrawn, \$5,026 66. The ordinary expenses of the patent-office, for the past year, including payments for the library, and for agricultural statistics, were \$24,750 30, leaving a net balance of \$4,538 85 to be accredited to the patent fund. The whole number of patents issued by the United States, up to January, 1844, was 13,523. The patents granted for the year 1843, exceeded those of the previous year by twenty-four, and the excess of applications amounted to fifty-eight.

The rapid improvement of the arts, may help to account for the reduction of price, as to many articles of manufacture, and especially in some that are usually ranked among the necessaries of life. Shirtings, for instance, which cost, thirty years ago, sixty-two cents per yard, is now bought for eleven or twelve cents, and equally as good.

HOSIERY is now made in the United States with astonishing rapidity, by the aid of the power weaving loom, an American invention, which has not yet been introduced into England. While, there, it is a full day's work to knit by hand two pairs of drawers, a girl, here, at \$2 50 per week, will make, by the power-loom, twenty pairs in the same time. A piece, twenty-eight inches in width, and one inch long, can be knit in one minute, thus reducing the expense of manufacturing this article one-tenth of the former method by the hand-looms. The importance of this improvement may be estimated from the fact, that the quantity of hosiery used in the United States is valued at \$2,500,000; and the stockings, woven shirts and drawers, made in this country, at \$500,000.

HOOKS AND EYES is another illustration of the progress of inventive industry. Thirty years ago, the price was \$1 50 per gross; now, the same quantity may be purchased, from fifteen to twenty cents. At one establishment in New Britain, Connecticut, 80,000 to 100,000 pairs per day are made and plated by a galvanic battery, on the cold silver process. The value of this article, consumed annually in the United States, is estimated at \$750,000.

HORSESHOES furnishes a similar proof of the bearing of the progress of inventions. An improved kind of horseshoes, made at Troy, New York, for some time past, is now sold at the price of only five cents per pound, ready prepared, to be used in shoeing the animal. At a factory, recently erected, fifty tons of these are now turned out, per day; and, it is believed, they can be made and sent to Europe at as good a profit as is derived from American clocks, which have handsomely remunerated the exporter.

LEATHER.—The improvement in the manufacture and making up this article, has also greatly reduced the price of shoes. By further inventions to render leather water-proof, likewise, much has been done to protect the health, and promote economy. "Those who have not turned their attention to this subject, may be surprised to learn that leather, made water-proof in the best manner, will last at least one-third longer than other kinds." Allowing, therefore, \$3 per head for each person in the United States, for shoes, the cost of the whole article in the country would be \$50,000,000, one-third of which, sold, would be over \$16,000,000.

SUGAR.—By a process of sugar-making, invented by Professor Mapes, at the sugar-works of Messrs. Tyler and Mapes, 15,000 to 20,000 pounds of sugar are manufactured per day, from common West India molasses, and generally of a quality superior to that made from the cane in Louisiana. Molasses, which has become sour, is often used for this purpose with good effect.

PINS.—The progress made in the United States, in the manufacture of this article of universal use, within a few years, is truly astonishing. A manufactory, near Derby, Connecticut, has a contrivance for sticking pins in paper which is quite marvellous. It takes, in England, sixty females to stick in one day, by sunlight, ninety packs, consisting of 302,460 pins. The same operation is performed here, in the same time, by one woman. Her sole occupation is to pour them, a gallon at a time, into a hopper, from whence they come out all neatly arranged upon their several papers. The mechanism, by which the labor of fifty-nine persons is daily saved, yet remains a mystery to all but the inventor; and no person, but the single woman who attends to it, is, upon any pretext whatever, allowed to enter the room where it operates.

* Professor Mapes, is now taking patents in this country and abroad, for a new evaporation, and some other improvements connected with sugar-making and sugar-refining. It is calculated to effect a great change in the whole system of sugar-making, in Louisiana and the West India islands.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE press of the spring business has passed; and the city banks, having succeeded for a time in obtaining a little higher rate for their money, are now forced by the competition of private capital to give way again, and offer their money at less rates—that is, at 5 a 6 per cent. Business has been, and continues to be, exceedingly active; as indicated in the universal increase of the tolls and revenue of governments and companies. The quantities of produce in the interior of the country, coming forward to market, have been, and are large. The supply of goods in the cities, both imported and manufactured, is extensive; so much so, that, in the early part of the spring season, there was an evident tendency in prices to fall. This fact induced a greater anxiety to sell; and to do so, more liberal terms of credit were extended, which had the effect of inducing purchases, on the part of dealers coming to the city, to a greater extent than they had previously been calculated upon; and, of course, to swell the general amount of business done. The progress of imports into the port of New York is seen in the following table of revenue for the first four months of the two last years:—

REVENUE OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
January,.....	\$548,046	\$1,876,615	\$1,328,559
February,.....	492,216	1,169,110	1,676,894
March,.....	936,596	1,691,000	754,404
April,.....	1,033,263	1,890,626	857,367
Total,.....	\$3,010,125	\$7,627,351	\$4,617,226

The same ratio of tariff charges being in operation this year and last, and the average rate on dutiable goods being 35 per cent, it follows that the dutiable imports last year amounted to \$8,600,000, and this year to \$21,800,000—an increase in amount of \$13,200,000. The effect of this has been felt in the market for foreign bills; the rate of which has been, for the packets, firm at 9 per cent sterling, with an upward tendency; and inducing the belief that shipments of at least from \$3,000,000 to \$4,000,000 will be made to Europe before the bills drawn against the new crop shall be realized in sufficient amounts to supply the market.

The rates of inland bills are low, and very uniform; but are now showing a tendency to turn in favor of New York from those extreme points of the south to which, for the last eighteen months, specie has been constantly flowing. The rates of domestic bills, as compared with some former dates, have been as follows:—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS IN NEW YORK.

	1842.		1843.		1844.	
	February.	May.	March.	May.	March.	May.
Boston,.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{4}$	par a $\frac{1}{4}$	par a $\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$
Philadelphia,.....	7 a $8\frac{3}{4}$	par a $\frac{1}{8}$	par a $\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$
Baltimore,.....	2 a 3	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$	par a	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$
Virginia,.....	9 a $12\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	1 a $1\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ a $1\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ a $1\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$ a $1\frac{1}{4}$
North Carolina,.....	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$ a $3\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$
Charleston,.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$
Savannah,.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$
Mobile,.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$ a 13	29 a 30	17 a 18	12 a 15	12 a 15	12 a 15
New Orleans,.....	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	1 a 2	1 a $1\frac{1}{2}$ pr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$
Nashville,.....	14 a $14\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$ a 15	3 a $3\frac{1}{4}$ dis.	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$
Louisville,.....	$9\frac{1}{2}$ a 10	$3\frac{1}{2}$ a 4	$\frac{3}{4}$ a $1\frac{1}{4}$	1 a $1\frac{1}{2}$	1 a $1\frac{1}{2}$	1 a $1\frac{1}{2}$
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	4 a 5	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	4 a 5	1 a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$
Mobile, specie,.....	... a a .	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$ pr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{4}$

The quotations in February, 1842, are in the local currencies furnished at that period by the suspended banks, as is now the quotation on Mobile. At all other points, the uniform currency of the constitution has resumed its functions, and exchanges are uniform and equal—at some points, lower than they ever before retained for any length of time. The amount of bills supplied by the surplus products shipped from any one section, fully equals the demand for the payment of goods imported into that section. The individual brokers, standing between the sellers and buyers of the bills, transact the business for the difference of $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, and the utmost uniformity must be preserved. When, however, a bank at a particular section lends money or credits to individuals, to buy goods, beyond what the proceeds of the crops will pay for, that institution must actually send the money to pay for the goods, because there are not bills sufficient to transmit. If she has not the dollars to send, the exchanges are, of course, deranged. If banks lend money at all, it is for this purpose. When the banks of the south and west resumed specie payments, a large amount of bank capital was put in liquidation, and the credits withdrawn from circulation. Immediately an immense flow of specie commenced to those points, to supply the vacuum thus created. This has continued up to the present time; when the abundance of specie, and the state of the exchanges at those points, evince the approach of a turn in the market, and that specie will again come to this point. This movement is seen in the following table of the circulation and specie in the New Orleans banks at certain periods, and the amount of specie which had arrived at that point from September, 1842, when the influx commenced:—

CIRCULATION AND SPECIE OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS, WITH THE AMOUNT OF SPECIE RECEIVED FROM SEPTEMBER 1, TO THE CLOSE OF EACH PERIOD.

	Circulation.	Specie.	Sterling bills— New York sight. par a 2 prem.	Receipts of specie from Sept. 1, 1842.
October, 1842,....	\$1,679,039	\$1,504,661	2½ a 3 “
February, 1843,...	1,507,410	4,100,449	7½ a 8 “	\$5,257,726
June, 1843,.....	1,854,000	6,301,415	7½ a 8½ “	9,347,644
September, 1843,.	1,248,652	5,858,857	5½ a 6 “	10,395,130
March, 1844,.....	2,678,840	8,555,391	8½—¾ per cent.	13,447,493
May, 1844,.....	3,023,378	9,918,052		17,407,265

The receipts are, it appears, over \$17,000,000, and a large proportion of it passed into circulation. With the amounts received at Mobile, the whole sum will be near \$22,000,000. Up the valley of the Mississippi, and through the Southern states, specie is become exceedingly abundant, and bills rising with the approaching close of the crop season, when travellers and dealers commence coming north. The stocks of cotton held there are still large, and in the channels of circulation there are but few treasury notes, or other floating paper usually used in exchange operations; so that there is every indication that specie will come forward, to the extent of some millions. Since last year, at this time, near \$9,000,000 of treasury notes, now used for exchange purposes, have been withdrawn by the government; and that fact will give a greater activity to specie. When business is stagnant, and money is flowing towards any given point, it is always the case that more is received than is actually wanted, because it is not so active as a healthy state of business requires. When, however, business begins to move, and money changes hands rapidly, the surplus quantity flows off to some other point. During the last two years, this has been the case all over the commercial world. The same features apparent in the above banks of New Orleans, are evinced not only by all the banks in this country, but by the leading institutions in Europe. This is seen in the following table of the amount of specie, at different periods, in several banks—all reduced to dollars.

SPECIE IN THE VAULTS OF THE BANK OF FRANCE, BANK OF ENGLAND, BANKS OF NEW YORK, NEW ORLEANS, SOUTH CAROLINA, AND OHIO.

Banks of	1842.		1843.		1844.	
	January.	July.	January.	August.	April.	
England,.....	\$26,010,000	\$30,095,000	\$54,665,000	\$59,360,000	\$81,610,000	
France,.....	41,230,000	39,732,964	43,182,000	46,355,625	52,500,000	
New York,...	4,074,601	3,976,328	6,174,317	12,965,966	11,200,000	
N. Orleans,...	1,741,526	1,208,455	4,586,737	5,864,019	9,918,052	
S. Carolina,.	857,649	810,640	817,131	1,171,689	973,318	
Ohio,.....	1,018,611	873,210	524,096	688,543	774,689	
Total,...	\$74,931,787	\$76,696,597	\$109,949,181	\$126,405,820	\$156,976,056	

This presents a singular result, evincing the fact that the same general causes have influenced the state of business throughout the commercial world; and that the outstanding credits, which were created by the process of expansion emanating from London in 1831-32, have been nearly settled up; that the stagnation and distress caused by the fall of property, incident upon the withdrawal of those credits, is giving place to renewed activity in all the branches of trade and channels of intercourse, both in this country and in Europe. The products of industry, both agricultural and manufactured, are becoming exchanged with a constantly increasing degree of animation. The indications of this improving business are found in the returns of the public works for the four months ending May 1st, this year and last, as follows:—

RECEIPTS OF PUBLIC WORKS, FROM JANUARY TO MAY.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
Reading Railroad, 3 months,.....	\$44,445	\$85,547	\$41,102
Michigan Central, 4 months,.....	21,997	56,378	34,380
Norwich and Worcester, 4 months,.....	32,788	58,231	25,443
Syracuse and Utica, 4 months,.....	23,373	37,186	13,812
Utica and Schenectady, 4 months,.....	46,108	59,763	13,655
Western Railroad, 4 months,.....	129,519	171,150	45,633
Kentucky Slackwater, 4 months,.....	1,125	5,394	4,269
Total, seven works,.....	\$299,353	\$473,649	\$174,296

This rate of increase, which is 60 per cent, is common to the public works in all sections of the country. The great canals, also, the Erie, of New York, the Wabash and Erie of Indiana, and the Ohio canal, all evince, since the opening of navigation, a great increase. This fact of improved trade, is rapidly giving value to most of the stocks of those works which, heretofore, have paid no dividend; and speculation, promoted by the great abundance of money, has assisted to send the prices of all very high. The following table, will show the degree, to which this advance has taken place:—

PRICES OF LEADING STOCKS IN NEW YORK.

	February 3.	April 11.	May 20.
United States 6's, 1862,.....	113 $\frac{3}{8}$ a 113 $\frac{3}{8}$	113 a 113 $\frac{1}{2}$	114 a 115
Ohio 6's, 1860,.....	97 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 98	94 a 94 $\frac{1}{2}$	99 a 99 $\frac{3}{4}$
Kentucky 6's,.....	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ a ...	101 a ...	103 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 104
Pennsylvania 5's,.....	64 a 65	65 a 66	76 a 77
Illinois Sp. bonds,.....	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41	39 a 40	45 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 46
Vicksburgh Bank,.....	8 a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
North Am. Trust Co.,.....	15 a ...	14 a 14 $\frac{1}{8}$	14 a 14 $\frac{1}{2}$
Farmers' Trust Co.,.....	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 32	39 a 40	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$
Canton Company,.....	29 $\frac{3}{4}$ a ...	37 a 37 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 a 59 $\frac{1}{2}$
Paterson Railroad,.....	73 a 73 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 a 74 $\frac{1}{2}$	83 a 84
Harlem Railroad,.....	43 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	65 a 65 $\frac{1}{2}$	83 a 84
Stonington Railroad,.....	33 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	39 a 40	48 a 48 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mohawk Railroad,.....	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	62 a 63	75 a 75 $\frac{1}{2}$
Nor. and W. Railroad,.....	34 $\frac{3}{8}$ a 35	43 a 44	65 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 66
Long Island Railroad,.....	69 a 70	70 a 71	80 a 81

This gives a great and rapid advance in most of the railroads, which have been a source of immense profit to most of the present holders of the stocks. When the prices fell very low, the majority of the stock passed into the hands of men of large capital, by whom the affairs of the roads were placed upon an efficient and economical footing; and with the great increase which has taken place in travel, and the regular business of the country, the receipts have swollen in the degree indicated in the above table, and many roads which never before paid dividends, will now, in all probability, realize that result.

In consequence of these things, speculation is taking the direction of railroads very rapidly. In a former number, we mentioned the fact, that the directors of the Erie railroad had applied to the common council to procure, through their aid, a loan of \$3,000,000, from the city, to make up \$6,000,000 to complete the Erie railroad, on condition that the other \$3,000,000 should be subscribed by individuals. This application was rejected by the common council, and subsequently, proposals were issued by the directors for a subscription of the whole amount, \$6,000,000, on the condition that the whole of the new stock should have a prior right over that of the old, that is, that out of the joint net earnings of the road, a dividend of 6 per cent should be declared on the new stock, and the surplus, if any remains, to be divided on the old stock. This gives the new stock, all the benefit of the former outlay of \$4,500,000. This subscription has gone on very well, thus far, and already some \$1,000,000 has been subscribed by citizens at large, who anticipate great advantages from laying open to the command of the city, the hitherto untouched southern tier of counties, and of commanding the lake trade now, for some weeks earlier in the spring, than the canal is usually navigable. In order to estimate, in some degree, the advantages of the local business to be derived from this road, we will take a comparative table of the population, in 1830 and in 1840, of the counties through which it passes, and similar statements of the population of those counties, cut through by the Erie canal and the northern line of railroads. The Erie canal, commenced in 1824, and we have, therefore, given the population of those counties, at that period, and at two subsequent ones. We may remark, that the population for 1825, is that of the state census, and the others of the United States census.

POPULATION OF THE CANAL COUNTIES AT THREE PERIODS, AND OF THOSE COUNTIES THROUGH WHICH THE ERIE RAILROAD IS TO RUN.

<i>Erie Railroad Counties.</i>			<i>Canal Counties.</i>			
	1830.	1840.		1825.	1830.	1840.
Chautauque,	34,617	49,975	Niagara,.....	14,069	18,485	31,132
Cattaraugus,.....	16,726	28,872	Orleans,.....	14,460	18,779	25,132
Alleghany,.....	26,218	40,975	Monroe,.....	39,108	49,862	64,902
Steuben,.....	33,975	46,138	Wayne,.....	26,761	33,555	42,057
Tioga,.....	27,704	20,527	Cayuga,.....	42,743	47,947	50,338
Broome,.....	17,582	22,233	Onondaga,.....	48,435	58,974	67,911
Delaware,.....	32,933	35,396	Madison,.....	35,646	39,037	40,008
Sullivan,.....	12,372	15,629	Oneida,.....	57,847	71,326	85,310
Orange,.....	45,372	50,739	Herkimer,.....	33,040	35,869	37,477
Rockland,.....	9,388	11,975	Montgomery, ..	39,706	43,595	35,818
			Albany,.....	42,821	53,560	68,593
Total,.....	256,927	320,604		394,636	470,983	548,673

The Erie railroad has now to pass through a tier of counties, as populous as was the northern tier, in 1825, when the canal went into operation with such eminent success. Hence the revenue to be derived from the local trade, will be larger in the proportion created by the demand arising from the increased growth of the city of New York.

The road will, however, open upon a western trade, which has grown up almost entirely within the last ten years, and now affords a very large proportion of the revenues derived from the Erie canal. The following is a table, showing, from official sources, the gross amount of tolls derived alone from the Erie canal, in the last ten years, and the proportion drawn from the produce of other states, as distinguished from that gathered from the produce of this state. The tolls on produce from other states, is that, paid on produce shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock; of that, paid on merchandise going west, at Albany and Troy, is to the extent of 20 per cent on goods going to other states:—

AMOUNT OF TOLLS ON THE ERIE CANAL, FOR TEN YEARS.

Tolls.	For 5 years, ending Jan., 1839.	For 5 years, ending Jan., 1844.	Total, 10 yrs.
On produce of other states,.....	\$792,359	\$2,327,346	\$3,119,705
“ this state,.....	3,376,129	3,298,200	6,674,329
On merchandise going west,.....	2,388,037	2,661,733	5,049,770
Total,.....	\$6,556,525	\$8,287,279	\$14,843,804

The five last years have been but of small business, in the sales of merchandise to the west, as compared with the immense credit sales of the five preceding years. Nevertheless, the tolls on merchandise, have increased in amount. The tolls on the produce of this state, it appears, probably because of the inability of the farmers of this state to compete with the prolific yield of the rich lands of the west, to advantage, and also to the fact, that the increasing density of the population of the canal counties, particularly in cities, that the consumption is rather outrunning the production. The progress of affairs, in this respect, may be seen in the following table of the population of six cities on the line of the canal:—

POPULATION OF CITIES ON THE ERIE CANAL.

	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.
Albany,.....	12,630	15,971	24,238	28,109	33,721
Buffalo, incorp. in 1832,	15,661	18,213
Roch'ter, “ 1834,	14,404	20,191
Schenectady,.....	3,939	4,068	4,258	6,272	6,784
Troy,.....	5,264	7,859	11,605	16,959	19,034
Utica, incorp. in 1832,...	10,183	12,782
Total,.....	91,588	110,725

The increase in the river counties, from 1830 to 1840, was 78,000, and the increase in their six towns was 40,376; showing that the consumers had multiplied faster than the producers. Hence all the increase that has taken place in the Erie canal tolls, has been from the western trade. The opening of the Erie railroad will form an active and dangerous competitor for that trade. It will be open earlier in the spring, by some weeks, and will in the fall always be ready to carry the produce brought to it promptly to market, without danger of its being wintered over in the interior towns, as is too often the case on the Erie canal. These are advantages which will enable it to command most of the western business; and, in addition, as much local travel as those northern railroads—the Utica, and others—which afford such profitable returns for the capital expended upon them, although hitherto not allowed to carry freight. The advantages accruing to New York are many and great, from opening an interior communication with the western part of the state all the year round, and increasing the supply of provisions and farm produce brought to the city.

The quarterly returns of the banks of the state of New York present the following results, as compared with former ones:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.

	Capital.	Loans.	Stocks.	Specie.	Bal. due b'ks.	Circulat'n.	Deposits.
Jan'yry,	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1831,	27,555,264	57,689,704	395,809	2,657,503	4,310,936	17,820,408	19,119,338
1836,	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	6,224,646	3,892,314	21,127,927	20,088,685
1837,	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	6,557,020	2,630,569	24,198,000	30,883,179
1838,	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	4,139,732	2,025,292	12,460,652	15,221,860
1839,	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	9,355,495	1,222,158	19,373,149	18,370,044
1840,	52,028,781	67,057,067	5,464,120	7,000,529	1,031,419	14,220,304	20,051,234
1841,	51,630,280	69,230,130	6,738,000	6,536,240	1,302,000	18,456,230	20,678,279
1842,	44,310,000	56,380,073	10,291,239	5,329,857	883,099	13,949,504	17,063,774
1843,	43,950,137	52,348,467	12,446,087	8,477,076	7,771,112	12,031,871	19,100,415
August,							
1843,	43,019,577	58,593,081	12,320,987	14,091,779	10,611,940	14,520,843	24,679,230
November,							
1843,	43,369,152	61,534,129	11,665,311	11,502,789	4,941,076	17,213,101	27,387,160
February,							
1844,	43,649,887	65,418,762	11,052,458	10,086,542	5,343,347	16,335,401	29,026,415
May,							
1844,	43,462,311	70,161,068	10,362,330	9,455,161	6,650,315	18,365,031	30,742,289

The loans of the banks were never so high as now, with the exception of the two years 1836-37; and the deposits never were so high, with the exception of the year 1837. The specie in August last was, to the circulation and deposits, as 1 to 2.75. It is now as 1 to 5.50, showing a great extension of credits. The proportion in which the movement has been made by the city banks, as distinguished from those of the country, may be seen by comparing the aggregates of each, as seen in the following table of the leading features in August last, when the specie was at its greatest point of accumulation, and at the present returns. These aggregates compare as follows:—

	CITY BANKS.		COUNTRY BANKS.	
	August.	May.	August.	May.
Loans,.....	\$36,514,332	\$42,129,817	\$22,078,749	\$28,031,243
Specie,.....	12,965,944	8,485,563	1,125,835	969,598
Circulation,.....	5,308,525	5,894,438	9,212,318	12,470,573
Deposits,.....	23,475,641	25,000,757	1,193,589	5,741,532

The increase of loans, on the part of the city banks, was during the quarter ending February. Since then, the movement has been large on the part of the banks in the interior, whose loans have been increased to the extent of about \$4,000,000; giving a corresponding increase of their circulation, which has been exceedingly abundant in the city since the opening of navigation, and the rates of discount increased to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The loans of the city banks, during the last quarter, have not materially increased, the movement having been on the part of the country banks, whose facilities, at this time of year, are in demand from the dealers, to buy goods in the city. To this fact may be attributed much of the improvement which has taken place in the spring trade, enabling the city dealers to support the prices of goods, and avoid the losses which the state of affairs at the opening of the spring business promised.

It is also observable that the nature of the paper afloat, being mostly of a short business character, is conducive to the continuance of an abundance of money. It is only when the paper discounted becomes of unusual length, and the number of borrowers on that description of paper large, that the value of money can become enhanced. It has generally been found, in the operations of the banks of England and France, that the most effectual way of easing the market is to reduce the length of the paper admissible to discount. This immediately makes money more active, and gives a greater degree of flexibility to floating credits, bringing them more under the command of the bank.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

CREDITOR'S BILL.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, holden at Boston. William W. Crease, *et al.*, in Equity, *vs.* Samuel H. Babcock, *et al.* Judge Shaw presiding.

This was a creditor's bill against the defendants, as stockholders of the Chelsea bank, in which the rights of the billholders to charge the stockholders, under the 31st section 36th chapter of the revised statutes, was sought to be enforced. The plaintiffs claimed, among other things, a joint judgment against all the stockholders; so that, in case of insolvency, or absence from the jurisdiction of either of them, payment of the bills, by solvent stockholders, within the commonwealth, would be insured; and they relied upon the provision of the 32d and 33d sections, which give a remedy among the stockholders, when any one shall have been obliged to pay debt or demand, to recover a proportional part of the other stockholders, as indicating that intention in the legislature.

Shaw, chief justice, delivered the opinion of the Court, that the respondents were not jointly liable; and could not, by any form of judgment, be made liable for each other. Ordinarily, when persons are jointly liable, it is because, as between them and the creditor, each is liable, *in solido*, for the whole amount. There is, therefore, no injustice in requiring either of them to pay the whole amount, leaving him to obtain redress amongst his co-debtors as he can. But in the present case, the liability is created by statute, and is in its nature several. The property in respect to which the liability is created, namely: the shares in the bank, is separate property. So far as the stockholder is owner, he is sole owner. Again, the statute declares that holders of stock shall be liable in their individual capacities for the payment and redemption of all unpaid bills, and in proportion to the stock they may respectively hold, at the dissolution of the charter. The term respectively, indicating the different proportions in which they may hold, indicates also the different proportions for which they may be holden, and as clearly indicates a several liability.

It follows, as a necessary consequence from this view, that no stockholder, who was such at the time of the expiration of the charter, can be responsible beyond a sum equal to the nominal par value of his stock at the time of such expiration; that is, beyond the amount of \$100 for each share so held, although the aggregate amount of the liability of the parties so chargeable should be insufficient to satisfy the whole amount of the claims of the billholders.

The fact that some of the stockholders are without the jurisdiction of the Court, or that some of them are insolvent, or discharged under proceedings in bankruptcy, is the ordinary misfortune of a creditor, whose debt cannot be made available. But it cannot enlarge or alter the liability of another party, who, to a limited extent, is responsible for the same debt.

The Court were therefore of opinion that the respective respondents are severally liable, to an amount not exceeding the number of shares held by them respectively, at \$100 per share, to the whole amount, if necessary, to satisfy the amount of outstanding bills; otherwise, to an amount sufficient to redeem and pay all such unpaid bills; but they are not liable for a greater sum, although the aggregate of all such liabilities should prove insufficient to pay the whole amount of such bills.

TAX ON PASSENGERS IN LOUISIANA.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, Judge Bullard pronounced a judgment in the case of the Charity Hospital *vs.* Fullerton, by which it is decided that, although the state

legislature has an undoubted right to impose a tax on every passenger coming to New Orleans, toward the support of the Charity Hospital, yet the law cannot oblige the captain of the ship in which he arrives to collect it, and that he is not answerable for an evasion of the contribution by his passengers, nor liable to penalty for not coercing them by seizing their baggage. The only legal way to recover the payment of the tax so evaded, is by direct action at law.

PROMISSORY NOTE.

Supreme Court of Louisiana. *Reeder vs. Theurer.* Judge Martin on the bench.

Judge Martin—The defendant is appellant from a judgment on his promissory note, the payment of which he resisted on an allegation that the note had been divided into four others. It appears, by an endorsement on the back of the note, that the plaintiff had received from the defendant, after the maturity of the note, four smaller ones, amounting together to the sum due on that sued on, which the plaintiff declared would be, when paid, in full of the original note. This endorsement certainly precluded the plaintiff from suing on the original note, without tendering the four smaller ones. But he was not obliged, as the defendant states, in his answer, to institute a suit on the smaller notes, or on any of them. Had the latter, instead of urging the plaintiff's obligation to do so, demanded that judgment should not be given against him, or that its execution should be suspended until the four small notes were returned to him, he might, perhaps, have claimed at our hands the costs of the suit in the parish court. That court ought, however, in our opinion, to have protected him from the danger of being sued by the endorsees of the plaintiff on the small notes. He is entitled to this relief at our hands, and it is our duty to amend the judgment in this respect. For aught that appears on the record, these notes may be afloat.

It is therefore ordered that the judgment be affirmed, with this amendment, to wit: that no execution shall issue thereon, nor shall the judgment be recorded in the office of mortgages, until the four smaller notes, enumerated on the back of the original one, shall have been delivered to the defendant, or deposited for him, duly cancelled, in the office of the clerk of the parish court. The costs of the appeal to be paid by the plaintiff and appellee.

ACTION UPON A GUARANTY.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, Boston. *Thomas Curtis vs. Bowman W. Dennis.* Judge Hubbard presiding.

This was an action upon a guaranty in the following words:—"Know all men, by these presents, that I, Bowman W. Dennis, of Cambridgeport, in consideration of one dollar, to me paid by Curtis & Morse, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, do hereby guarantee to said Curtis & Morse the payment of one-half of any loss which may accrue in the business of my brother, Selah G. Dennis, during such time as he may be connected with them in business.

"Boston, September 23d, 1840."

Of the same date, an agreement was made by Curtis & Morse, of one part, and Selah of the other part, whereby it was covenanted that the parties should enter into a copartnership for two years. Curtis & Morse were to supply goods to Selah, who was to open and carry on a store in Bangor, for the benefit of both parties, and they were to share equally all profit and loss, and, at the close of the term, to divide the property; and each party was to secure the balance he might owe to the satisfaction of the party who was entitled to it.

About two months after the date of the agreement, Curtis & Morse dissolved their copartnership; and at that time Selah had received of them, in pursuance of the partnership agreement, about \$— worth of goods, and had transmitted about \$— in

cash to Curtis & Morse; and the balance of their account against Selah amounted to about \$4,500.

At the trial, evidence was offered to show the amount of this balance, as a claim covered by the guaranty; but it was objected to, and held inadmissible.

No notice to the guarantor of the acceptance of his guaranty, or of the amount for which he was held liable, and no demand on him before bringing action being proved, the defendant contended that the plaintiff was not entitled to recover in this action; and the presiding judge ruled accordingly, and the case was carried, by agreement, before the full court, for their opinion on these points.

Judge Hubbard—The guaranty must be construed according to the fair and obvious meaning of the words. The construction, where the language is doubtful, is not to be taken strongly against the guarantor, as it is against the granter, in deeds of land; but the true intention of the parties is to be ascertained. This guaranty, taken in connection with the partnership agreement, obviously was intended only to cover the losses of the three, Curtis, Morse & Dennis, under that agreement, (as losses by bad debts, depreciation of goods, &c.) and was not intended to secure any balance which might be due from Selah to Curtis & Morse, on winding up the concern; nor any sums he might owe them individually.

The guarantor was also entitled to notice of the amount for which he was held liable, as that amount was uncertain, and the guarantor had no other means of ascertaining his liability except from Curtis & Morse.

The guarantor was also entitled to have a demand made on him of the amount claimed of him before suit, and within reasonable time after such amount was ascertained, and that bringing an action was not a sufficient demand or notice. According to the agreement of parties, a new trial was to be had, to give the plaintiff an opportunity to prove a partnership loss, if there were any, and notice and demand, if any had been made or given, and to let the defendant into any defences mentioned in his specification of defence.

MASSACHUSETTS LAW OF INSURANCE ON LIVES, FOR THE BENEFIT OF MARRIED WOMEN, ETC.

The following are the provisions of an act passed at the last session of the legislature of Massachusetts, and approved by the governor, March 11, 1844:—

“1. Any policy of insurance, made by any insurance company, on the life of any person, expressed to be for the benefit of a married woman, whether the same be effected by herself, or her husband, or by any other person on her behalf, shall enure to her separate use and benefit, and that of her children, if any, independently of her husband, and his creditors and representatives, and also independently of any other person effecting the same in her behalf, his creditors or representatives; and a trustee or trustees may be appointed by any court authorized to appoint trustees, to hold and manage the interest of any married woman, in any such policy, or the proceeds thereof.

“2. Where a policy of insurance is effected, by any person, on the life of another, expressed therein to be for the benefit of such other, or his representatives, or for that of a third person, the party for whose benefit such policy is made, shall be entitled thereto, as against the creditors and representatives of the person so effecting the same.

“3. In case of any premium being paid on any such policy of insurance as is mentioned in the two preceding sections, by any person, with intent to defraud his creditors, a proportional amount of the interest in such policy, or proceeds thereof, shall enure to the benefit of his creditors, such proportion to be determined in a proceeding in equity in the Supreme Court, or other suitable legal proceeding.”

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PILOT STATION OFF THE MOUTH OF THE RIVER HOOGLY.

THE experience of a second season's trial of the new pilot station off the South Channel having established that it can be made by vessels from Falls Point with the greatest facility, and that pilots can also be readily supplied, and the same cause existing which, during the last S. W. monsoon, rendered necessary the removal of the pilot station from off Point Palmyras to a position about 15 miles S. W. by W. of the outer floating light, in latitude 20 deg. 56 min. N., longitude 88 deg. 3 min. E., and in from 17 to 22 fathoms water, notice is hereby given that this latter station will in future be continued during the S. W. monsoon, viz: from 15th March to the 15th September. No difficulty can possibly be felt in passing from Falls Point to the new station, if common attention be paid to the lead, and to the following directions, prepared by Captain Lloyd, late officiating marine surveyor of the ground between the two points:—"Falls Point lighthouse is in lat. 20 deg. 19½ min., and lon. 86 deg. 47 min. E., and the South Channel buoy in lat. 25 deg. 59 min. N., and lon. 88 deg. 4 min. E., and bears from the lighthouse N. 61 E., true, or by N. E. E. ¼ E., by compass, distant 83 miles, and is laid in 12 fathoms. A bank of soundings extends from off Point Palmyras, in a direction towards the tail of the Western Sea Reef; and the nature of the bottom (as distinguished from that of the Hoogly deposit, which is sand and mud, with shining specks,) is a gravelly substance, composed of sand, shells, and small pebbles, discharged from the Kunka, and other rivers near Point Palmyras, the lighter materials of which, being carried further out, are deposited, and forms what is called the Pilot's Ridge; which, in crossing to the N. W., shows a little less water than on either side. In coming from seaward, you shoal rather suddenly from 28 to 23 fathoms, upon its eastern edge. It is composed of a shelly sand, or minute gravel, of a reddish or rusty brown color.

The best guide, hereafter, to enable a vessel to direct her course from Falls Point to the vessel at the new station, will be to run down the edge of the Pilot's Ridge, which can be readily done by making the lighthouse, and bringing it to bear about W. S. W., or S. W. by W., distant by computation 10 to 15 miles; then steering to the E. N. E., and paying gradually, increase the depth of water to 23 fathoms upon the eastern edge of the ridge; regulate the course to keep between it and 27 fathoms; when, by attention to the lead, and nature of the soundings, course and distance run from the lighthouse, it is almost impossible to miss the pilot vessels, (if the above limits are kept within,) either by getting too far to windward, or falling to leeward; for the soundings increase so rapidly to seaward, from the proposed new stations, that 28 fathoms will not be more than three or four miles to the southward of it. The soundings to the seaward of the ridge are in general a greenish, olive-colored mud, with occasionally a few bits of broken shell mixed with it." Vessels approaching the station during the day, are required to show the usual signal for a pilot, and by night to give as early and as much warning as possible, by firing guns, burning blue-lights, and by exhibiting two lights in a vertical position, where best seen; but commanders are strictly enjoined to avoid, as much as possible, making the station during the night. To mark the station, (until a proper light-vessel is built, of which due notice will be given,) one of the pilot vessels will show, during the day, a large St. George's jack, (white, with red cross,) at the maintop-gallant masthead, and a good masthead light during the night; and will burn a blue light and a maroon alternately, every half hour, and fire a gun at 8 P. M., at midnight, and at 4 A. M. Vessels approaching the station, and while there, as well as

when approaching the light* and buoy station vessels, are warned to be careful in avoiding collision by night or by day; and in communicating with either of the above vessels, either at anchor or hove-to, and when it is necessary to cross her, to pass under the stern. Several instances of serious damage have occurred during the S. W. monsoon, whereby the outer floating light was more than once compelled to leave her station for repairs, to the great inconvenience and risk of vessels entering and quitting the river.

JAMES C. MELVILL, Secretary.

East India House, London, 20th February, 1844.

REFLECTING LANTERN AND HELIOTROPE.

At a meeting of the American Philosophical Society, held in Philadelphia, in March last, Major Graham, of the corps of Topographical Engineers, a member of the society, described a reflecting lantern and a heliotrope, used by him as meridian marks for great distances, in 1841, while tracing, in his capacity of United States commissioner, the due north line from the monument at the source of the river St. Croix.

The lantern was constructed by Messrs. Henry N. Hooper & Co., of Boston, under Major G.'s directions. It was similar in form to the parabolic reflector lantern sometimes used in light-houses, but much smaller, so as to be portable.

The burner was of the argand character, with a cylindrical wick, whose transverse section was half an inch in diameter, supplied with oil in the ordinary manner. This was placed in the focus of a parabolic reflector, or paraboloid, of sheet copper, lined inside with silver about one-twentieth of an inch in thickness, polished very smooth and bright. The dimensions were as follows:—

	Inches.
Diameter of the base of frustum of reflector,.....	16.00
Distance of vertex from base,.....	3.75
Distance of focus from vertex,.....	2.25
Diameter of cylindrical burner,.....	50
Diameter of a larger burner, which was never used, but which, by an adapting piece, could be easily submitted,.....	1.25

The instrument answered the purpose for which it was intended admirably well, and was of great use in tracing the due north line. While it occupied the station at Park's Hill, fifteen feet above the surface of the ground, or 828 feet above the sea, in the latter part of September, and early part of October, 1841, the light from it was distinctly seen with the naked eye, at night, when the weather was clear, from Blue Hill, whose summit, where crossed by the meridian line, is 1,071 feet above the sea; the intervening country averaging about 500 feet above the sea, and the stations being thirty-six miles apart.

The light appeared to the naked eye, at that distance, as bright, and about of the same magnitude, as the planet Venus. Viewed through a transit telescope of forty-three inches focal length, it presented a luminous disc of about thirty seconds arc in diameter. From its brilliancy at that distance, Major G. has no doubt that it would have been visible to the naked eye at fifty miles, and through the telescope at 100 miles, could stations free from interposing objects have been found so far apart.

It was remarked that the wick employed by Major Graham was considerably smaller than that usually made, even for parlor lamps; and to this cause he attributed, in a great measure, the perfection with which the parallel rays were transmitted from the reflecting parabolic surface, so as to make them visible at so great a distance. Though a greater quantity of light is generated by a larger wick, the portion of rays reflected in a direc-

* The light-vessels are directed, when another vessel is approaching during the night, to show a light at the gaff, and mark the way they are riding.

tion parallel to the axis, and which alone come to the eye, is smaller as the flame transcends the local limit. The size of the wick most advantageous for use, may easily be determined by experiment. Major G.'s impression is, that the smaller its transverse section, provided it is only large enough to escape being choked up by the charred particles, even one-third, or perhaps one-fourth of an inch, the farther the light would be visible.

It has occurred to Major G., that lanterns of this description might be used with great advantage as station-marks, in extensive trigonometrical surveys, requiring primary triangles of great length of sides. A revolving motion might be given to the lanterns, so as to make the light transmitted from them visible from many different stations within short intervals of time. Their simplicity, and the ease with which they are managed, would perhaps give them, for such purposes, a great advantage over the Drummond or Bude lights, even though they be not so brilliant as the latter.

The heliotrope, which he employed in the day-time, was made by order of Mr. Hassler, at the instrument shop of the coast survey office. It was a rectangular parallelogram, of good German plate glass, 1 4.5 by 1 1.15 inch in size, giving an area of reflecting surface of 2 16.100 square inches. This also was seen distinctly with the naked eye, at the distance of thirty-six miles.

THE PIER JETTY AT NAPLES.

SICILIAN CONSULATE GENERAL, Naples, Feb. 17.

The pier or jetty of the new military mole of Naples having been considerably lengthened, it becomes necessary that mariners should be informed that it now extends as far as in front of the lighthouse on the old mole, bearing N. 4 deg. N. E., and is consequently in the track which vessels might steer in coming direct from the grand entrance from Capri towards the said lighthouse.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

MERCHANDISE ILLEGALLY IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

THE following are the provisions of an act "directing the disposition of certain unclaimed goods, wares, or merchandise, seized for being illegally imported into the United States," passed during the last session of Congress, and approved by the president of the United States April 2, 1844:—

1. That hereafter, in all cases of seizure of any goods, wares, or merchandise, which shall, in the opinion of the collector, or other principal officer of the revenue making such seizure, be of the appraised value of one hundred dollars, or less, and which shall have been so seized for having been illegally imported into the United States, the said collector of the customs, or other principal officer of the revenue making such seizure, shall proceed as follows: that is to say—he shall cause a list, containing a particular description of the goods, wares, or merchandise, so seized, to be prepared in duplicate, and an appraisement of the same to be made by two sworn appraisers under the revenue laws, if there are such appraisers in such place of seizure; and if the said seizure be made where there are no such appraisers, then by two respectable and disinterested citizens of the United States, residing at the place where the seizure may be made, and to be selected by him for said purpose. The aforesaid list and appraisement shall be properly attested by such collector or other officer, and the persons making the appraisement; and for which service said appraisers shall be allowed out of the revenue the sum of one dollar and fifty cents per day each. If the said goods shall be found by such appraisers to be of the value of one hundred dollars, or less, the said collector or other officer shall publish a notice, for the space of three weeks, in some newspaper of the

county or place where the seizure was made, describing the articles, and stating the time, place, and cause of their seizure, and requiring any person or persons claiming them to appear, and make such claim within ninety days from the date of the first publication of such notice: *Provided*, That any person or persons claiming the goods, wares, or merchandise, so seized, within the time specified in the notice, may file with such collector or other officer a claim, stating his or their interest in the articles seized, and may execute a bond to the United States, in the penalty of two hundred and fifty dollars, with two sureties, to be approved by the collector or other officer referred to, conditioned that, in case of condemnation of the articles so seized, the obligors will pay all the costs and expenses of the proceedings to obtain such condemnation; and upon the delivery of such bond to the collector or other officer mentioned, he shall transmit the same, with the duplicate list and description of the goods seized, to the United States district attorney for the district, who shall proceed thereon in the ordinary manner prescribed by law: *And provided, also*, That if there shall be no claim interposed, and no bond given, within the time above specified, the collector or other officer, as the case may be, shall give twenty days' notice of the sale of the goods, wares, or merchandise, in the manner before mentioned; and, at the time and place specified in such notice, shall sell the articles so seized at public auction; and, after deducting the expenses of appraisement and sale, he shall deposit the proceeds to the credit of the treasury of the United States, as shall be directed by the secretary of the treasury.

2. That within one year after the sale of any goods, wares, or merchandise, in virtue of this act, any person or persons claiming to be interested in the goods, wares, or merchandise so sold, may apply to the secretary of the treasury for a remission of the forfeiture thereof, or any of them, and a restoration of the proceeds of the said sale, which may be granted by the said secretary, upon satisfactory proof, to be furnished in such manner as he shall prescribe: *Provided*, That it shall be satisfactorily shown that the applicant, at the time of the seizure and sale of the goods in question, and during the intervening time, was absent out of the United States, or in such circumstances as prevented him from knowing of such seizure, and that he did not know of the same; and also that the said forfeiture was incurred without wilful negligence, or any intention of fraud on the part of the owner or owners of such goods.

3. That if no application for such restoration be made within one year, as hereinbefore prescribed, then, at the expiration of the said time, the secretary of the treasury shall cause the proceeds of the sales of the said goods, wares, or merchandise, to be distributed according to law, as in the case of goods, wares, and merchandise, condemned and sold pursuant to the decree of a competent court.

4. That all provisions of any former law, inconsistent with this act, shall be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

MASTERS AND WARDENS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

The following act, to amend the act therein referred to, declaring the rights, and for the relief of the masters and wardens of the port of New York, was passed March 29th, 1844:—

Sec. 1. No person or persons shall, under any pretence whatever, do, perform, or exercise, or attempt or offer to do, perform, or exercise, any of the powers, functions, or duties of the master and wardens of the port of New York, conferred on or required of them by law, or the act in the next section mentioned, or ask, demand, take, accept, or receive, of or from any person or persons whatever, any money, fee, emolument, or reward, for any such service; which powers, functions, and duties, are hereby declared to be exclusively vested in, and to belong and appertain to, the master and wardens of the port of New York, by virtue of their said office.

Sec. 2. That if any person or persons shall, under any pretence whatever, do, perform, or exercise any of the powers, functions, or duties of the master and wardens of the port of New York, by doing any of the acts, or performing any of the duties or services belonging or appertaining to them or their said office, specified in the act entitled "An act to reduce the laws particularly relating to the city of New York into one act, so far as the same relate to the master and wardens, harbor-master, and pilots of the port of New York, and their duties, and for other purposes," passed February 19, 1819, or which otherwise belong or appertain to the said office, by virtue of any existing law of this state or of the United States, each and every person so offending shall, for each and every offence, forfeit and pay to the masters and wardens of the port of New York

the sum of fifty dollars, to be sued for and recovered by them in their corporate name, with costs of suit, in any court having cognizance thereof; the one-half whereof, when recovered, to their own use, and the other half to the use of the pilot's charitable fund, in the city of New York: *Provided, however*, That nothing herein contained shall prevent any person or persons from acting as appraisers or arbitrators of damaged goods, in any case or cases belonging to the duties of the master and wardens of the port of New York, whenever they shall or may be required, in writing, to act as such, by all parties and persons interested in the act or acts to be done, or by their lawful agents, or from making his or their report or award in such case or cases, as in any other matter of skill or judgment, or of arbitration.

NEW TOBACCO INSPECTION LAW OF LOUISIANA.

The following act, regulating the inspection of tobacco in hogsheads and casks, was passed at the last session of the legislature of Louisiana, and approved by A. Mouton, the governor, March 25th, 1844:—

Sec. 1. That there shall be appointed by the governor and senate, from time to time, eight inspectors of tobacco for the city of New Orleans, and two inspectors of tobacco for the city of Lafayette. That, from and after the 1st day of May, 1844, no owner or owners, nor agent or agents of owners of tobacco, shall offer the same for sale, until it shall have been inspected in the manner herein directed, under the penalty of fifty dollars for every such offence, and as to each and every hogshead of tobacco; and that the two additional inspectors contemplated by the provisions of this act, be appointed forthwith.

Sec. 2. That the owner or owners, or agent or agents of owners of tobacco, brought into the city of New Orleans, and intended for sale therein, are hereby required to give notice to the said inspectors, at their office, that the same may be inspected; and that at least two of the said inspectors shall be present at every inspection, and, in case of disagreement as to quality, a third inspector shall be called to decide; and no inspector appointed in pursuance of this act shall, either directly or indirectly, buy or sell tobacco on his own account, nor act in the sale of tobacco as broker, agent, or factor, for any other person, under the penalty of four hundred dollars for every such offence.

Sec. 3. That from and after the 1st day of May, 1844, it shall be the duty of each and every inspector of tobacco, when a hogshead or cask of tobacco is opened for inspection, to examine the same carefully, in at least three different places, and to have a true and just sample drawn therefrom, (and neatly put up by the inspector,) for the use of the vender and purchasers. That before pronouncing on the quality of the same, in no case shall the brand or other mark be affixed on the hogshead, cask, or sample, until at least two inspectors have agreed on the quality thereof; the brand or mark to be affixed on the hogshead or cask to correspond with that on the sample, and classed as follows:—Admitted or refused. That all tobacco shall be classed "Admitted," unless the same shall consist chiefly of ground leaves, decayed, wet, or damaged tobacco, or in a state too moist to keep. That if any hogshead be partially damaged, to an extent not exceeding 10 per cent, said damage shall be cut off, and the samples be marked "Trimmed or cut," and the probable weight cut off be marked on the label of the sample. That all tobacco shall be classed as "Refused" when damaged to an extent exceeding 10 per cent on the net weight of the hogshead, or when the same shall consist chiefly of ground leaves, lugs, wet or damaged tobacco, or tobacco in a state too moist to keep: *Provided*, That from and after the 1st day of May next ensuing, any person or persons requiring tobacco, in hogsheads or casks, inspected by stripping off the casks, to ascertain the actual tare thereof, and more fully to determine whether the tobacco is firmly packed, and free from trash, shall have that right granted to them by notifying the inspector to that effect. The inspector, in that case, shall cause the hogshead or cask to be up-ended by the necessary coopers and laborers supplied by the owner or consignee, so that the space of eighteen square feet shall be allowed by the warehouse-keeper for each hogshead or cask. The inspector shall then cause the hogshead or cask to be uncased or opened, and the empty hogshead or cask taken off and weighed, and the tare thereof inscribed thereon; after which, the empty hogshead or cask shall be returned on the tobacco from which it came, and coopered up in good shipping order, approved by the inspector; for which service the owner or owners, or consignee, shall pay, over and above the charges allowed by law, heretofore provided for, twenty cents per hogshead, additional fee, to the inspector, and forty cents to the coopers, for such

extra labor. And it shall be the duty of the inspector to certify the actual tare in his certificate, and that the cask has been actually stripped.

Sec. 4. That if any person or persons shall alter or erase any brand or mark of said inspectors, every person so offending shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars for every cask, hoghead, or sample label, the brands or marks of which shall have been so altered or erased.

Sec. 5. That nothing herein contained shall be construed to extend to tobacco in car-rots, or to stripped or stemmed tobacco, or to tobacco stems in hogheads, nor to leaf tobacco in hogheads, boxes, or bales, intended for reshipment without sale, unless at the request of the owner of the same.

Sec. 6. That, on the passage of this act, the governor shall appoint, with the advice and consent of the senate, suitable tobacco inspectors, according to the provisions of this act, to serve until the 1st day of February, 1845, and for every two years thereafter; and, in case of death or resignation of any of said tobacco inspectors during the recess of the legislature, the governor shall make temporary appointments, which shall expire at the end of the next session thereafter.

Sec. 7. That the two inspectors appointed for the city of Lafayette shall be subject to the same duties and penalties, and receive the same compensations that are established and provided in this act for the inspectors of the city of New Orleans.

Sec. 8. That from and after the 1st day of October next, all hogheads or casks of tobacco, which shall be offered for sale in the city and port of New Orleans, shall be made of well-seasoned timber.

TARIFF OF DUTIES AT ST. JOHNS.

Statement of Duties now payable on Imports, by Land or Inland Navigation, at the Port of St. Johns, Canada East, furnished for publication in this Magazine, by Jason C. Peirce & Son, Forwarding, Custom-House, and Commission Merchants, Railroad and Steamboat Wharves, St. Johns, C. E.

ARTICLES PROHIBITED.		
	Imperial Duties.	Provincial Duties.
Arms, ammunition, or utensils of war,.....	Prohib.	Prohib.
Base or counterfeit coin, books of which copyright has been secured, and now in force in the United Kingdom,.....	Prohib.	Prohib.
ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY.		
Fish, (fresh,) garden seeds,.....	Free.	Free.
ARTICLES PAYING 4 PER CENT.		
Seeds of all kinds, except garden seeds,.....	4 per ct.	Free.
ARTICLES PAYING 5 PER CENT.		
Biscuit or bread, cotton wool, drugs, fruit, (fresh,) gums and resins, hemp, flax, tow, hides, (raw,) rice, tallow, wood and lumber, tortoise-shell,.....	Free.	5 per ct.
ARTICLES PAYING DIFFERENT DUTIES.		
Blubber, fins and skins of the sea, spermaceti,.....	15 per ct.	5 per ct.
Glass manufactures, silk do.,.....	15 per ct.	5 per ct.
Oils, (fish of all kinds,).....	15 per ct.	Free.
Cotton manufactures, clocks and watches, corks, cordage and oakum, candles, (except spermaceti,) hardware, of all descriptions, linen manufactures, leather, woollen, paper, and soap manufactures,.....	7 per ct.	5 per ct.
Butter,.....	8s.	2s.
Beef and pork, salted and cured,.....	3s.	2s.
Bacon and hams, ".....	3s.	5s.
Meat of all other kinds, salted or cured,.....	3s.	2s.
Meat, (fresh,) of all kinds,.....	..	4s.
Cheese,.....	5s.	2s. 6d.
Lard,.....	4 per ct.	6s. cwt.
Hops,.....	4 per ct.	3d. lb.
Potatoes,.....per bushel	3d.

TARIFF OF DUTIES AT ST. JOHNS—Continued.

Statement of Duties now payable on Imports, by Land or Inland Navigation, at the Port of St. Johns, Canada East—Continued.

ARTICLES PAYING DIFFERENT DUTIES.

	Imperial Duties.	Provincial Duties.		
Horses, mares, and geldings,.....each	30s.		
Colts and foals,.....2 years old, each	15s.		
Neat cattle,.....4 “ “	20s.		
“under 4 “ “	10s.		
Sheep,.....“	2s.		
Lambs,.....“	1s.		
Swine and hogs,.....“	5s.		
Barley, rye, peas, beans, Indian corn, buckwheat, per qr. 8 bush.	3s.		
Oats,.....“	2s.		
Barley, buckwheat, oat, rye, and Indian corn meal, per 196 lbs.	2s.		
Wheat flour,.....per bbl. of 196 lbs.	2s.		
Wheat,.....per qr. of 8 bush.	3s.		
Coffee, green,.....	5s. cwt.	2d. lb.		
“ ground,.....	5s. cwt.	4d. lb.		
“ roasted,.....	5s. cwt.	5 per ct.		
Cocoa,.....	1s. cwt.	5 per ct.		
Fish, salted or dried,.....	2s. cwt.		
Fish, pickled or salted,.....per bbl.	4s.		
Molasses,.....per 112 lbs.	3s.	1s. 6d.		
Sugar, refined,.....	20 per ct.	2d. lb.		
“ unrefined,.....	5s. cwt.	1d. lb.		
Tobacco, manufactured, all kinds,.....	7 per ct.	2d. lb.		
“ leaf,.....	4 per ct.	1d. lb.		
Tea,.....	1d. lb.	3d. lb.		
Wine, Madeira,.....	7 per ct.	1s. gal.		
“ all others,.....	7 per ct.	6d. gal.		
Spirits, } Brandy, } Gin, } Whiskey, } Cordials, }	Not sweetened, per gallon, proof,..... Over proof, in proportion.	1s. 6d. 6d.		
Do. do. sweetened,.....per gallon			1s. 6d.	1s. 7d.
Rum,.....per gallon, proof,			1s.	6d.
Syrups,.....			4 per ct.	1s. 6d. cwt.
Alabaster, almonds, allspice, arrow root, ashes, baskets, beaver, beeswax, blacking, bone, brick, bristles, brooms, brushes, burr stones, cabinetware, calf-skins, capers, carriages, cement, chalk, chairs, Chinaware, chocolate, chromes, cider, clay, camphine oil, cloves, coal, cocoa-nuts, combs, crockery, currants, dye-woods, earthenware, ebony, essences, feathers, figs, filberts, furs, furniture, (new or old,) ginger, glue, hair, hats, (beaver,) honey, India-rubber and indigo, lard oil, leather, lemon syrup, macaroni, marble, medicines, musical instruments, nuts of all kinds, oil, (olive,) palm-leaf manufactures, paints, pepper, pickles, pipes, pitch, preserves, quills, raisins, spices, sponge, starch, stone, spirits turpentine, tar, vinegar, whetstones, and all other articles not enumerated,.			4 per ct.	5 per ct.

Goods imported may be bonded for warehousing either at Montreal or Quebec.

Bonds may be given for all provincial duties when amounting to £50 currency, with conditions for payment at six months from date, if the same shall be dated on or before the 1st day of September; and if dated after the 1st of September, then they become due on the 1st April next ensuing.

Ten per cent is added to all invoices paying imperial per centage duties, and duty is paid at currency rate.

Provincial per centage duties are also paid in currency rate.

All specific duties are paid in sterling.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS OF COTTON, BREADSTUFFS, ETC., FROM THE U. STATES.

COTTON EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1841 AND 1842.

To	1841.		1842.	
	Lbs.	Value.	Lbs.	Value.
Russia,	986,168	\$114,578	2,833,757	\$237,314
Prussia,	61,233	5,655
Sweden and Norway,.....	1,832,020	197,958	891,847	73,527
Denmark,	17,928	1,891	44,722	3,078
Holland and dependencies,.....	2,635,158	273,531	8,391,587	645,595
The Hanse Towns,.....	6,495,721	672,673	9,701,368	800,157
Belgium,.....	9,816,030	1,033,633	8,227,699	637,058
England and her dependencies, *348,804,077	35,687,347	3,799,065,182	30,135,412	
France and her dependencies, ... †139,424,568	14,348,567	1,558,212,260	13,393,044	
Spain and her dependencies, ... ‡9,955,534	982,380	7,108,682	665,236	
Portugal and her dependencies, ... §25,922	2,553	46,241	4,965	
Italy,.....	1,865,317	185,472	3,878,191	290,970
Sicily,.....	3,510	395	136,019	10,398
Sardinia,	394,439	36,191
Trieste, and other Austrian p'ts,	8,131,237	803,404	7,093,306	585,770
Turkey, the Levant, &c.,.....	204,684	24,231	16,682	1,399
China,.....	1,004,802	67,695
Venezuela,.....	6,226	1,728
Total,.....	530,204,100	\$54,330,341	584,717,017	\$47,593,464

BREADSTUFFS EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1842.

To	1842.				
	Flour and wheat.	Indian corn.	Rye and corn meal.	Biscuit.	Total.
Sweden and Swe. W. Indies,	\$64,345	\$1,322	\$21,926	\$1,379	\$88,972
Denmark and Dan. W. Indies,	233,299	3,761	151,273	9,738	398,071
Hanse Towns,.....	4,110	15	4,125
Holland and dependencies,...	95,958	3,210	18,772	7,776	125,716
Belgium,.....	150	194	344
England and dependencies,...	5,618,855	275,282	517,066	220,933	6,632,136
France and dependencies,...	51,119	6,978	704	783	59,584
Spain and dependencies,.....	338,515	6,484	28,879	26,518	400,396
Portugal and dependencies,...	7,165	27,263	145	2,981	37,554
Italy, Sicily, and Trieste,.....	7	7
Turkey, Levant, &c.,.....	72	233	305
Hayti,.....	147,991	114	3,120	151,225
Texas,.....	19,059	2,064	97	1,534	22,754
Mexico,.....	115,388	12,253	1,430	129,071
South America,.....	1,567,242	4,721	3,194	30,561	1,605,718
West Indies, generally,.....	5,289	1,721	646	7,656
Asia, generally,.....	3,247	392	3,639
China,.....	1,612	5,154	6,766
Africa, generally,.....	15,508	43	5,302	20,853
South Seas and Pacific ocean,	3,048	76	5,078	8,202
Total,.....	\$8,291,972	\$345,150	\$742,213	\$323,759	\$9,703,094

* Of this, 4,631,247 lbs. were sea island cotton.

† " 5,708,698 " " "

‡ " 1,606,177 " " "

§ " 1,545,401 " " "

PROVISIONS EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES IN THE YEARS RESPECTIVELY ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1841, AND SEPTEMBER 30, 1842.

To	1841,	1842,
Swedish West Indies,.....	\$31,578	\$23,093
Danish West Indies,.....	79,195	76,020
Hanse Towns,.....	25,890	31,141
Holland and dependencies,.....	46,725	52,110
Belgium,.....	2,363	8,104
England and dependencies,.....	2,160,306	2,048,073
France and dependencies,.....	183,079	988,544
Spain and dependencies,.....	1,063,566	684,842
Portugal and dependencies,.....	8,204	8,463
Italy,.....	2,305
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,.....	1,296	390
Turkey, and the Levant,.....	1,629	1,956
Hayti,.....	231,359	156,527
Texas,.....	33,984	20,436
Mexico,.....	20,242	20,757
South America,.....	161,378	177,827
West Indies, generally,.....	14,129	7,699
China,.....	9,504	4,942
Asia, generally,.....	7,287	3,652
Africa, generally,.....	22,392	19,682
South Seas and Sandwich islands,.....	39,962	11,752
Total,.....	\$4,144,068	\$4,348,315
Beef, tallow, hides, and live horned cattle,.....	\$1,212,638	
Pork, hams, bacon, lard, and hogs,.....	2,629,403	
Butter and cheese,.....	388,185	
Potatoes,.....	85,844	
Apples,.....	32,245	
Total,.....	\$4,348,315—exports of 1842.	

NOTE.—The above account includes the exports of beef and horned cattle; pork, hams, bacon, lard, and live hogs; butter, cheese, potatoes, and apples. The return for tallow and hides is also included, as the official documents do not furnish a separate statement.

LEATHER, AND MANUFACTURES OF LEATHER, EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1841 AND 1842, RESPECTIVELY.

To	1841,			1842.		
	Prs. boots and shoes.	Lbs. of leather.	Value.	Prs. boots and shoes.	Lbs. of leather.	Value.
Danish West Indies,.....	1,882	4,200	\$2,720	965	3,494	\$1,855
Dutch West Indies,.....	5,472	1,026	350	4,449	1,011
England and dependencies,.....	17,057	353,232	98,803	23,545	310,178	95,231
Cuba, and Span. dependencies,.....	445	15,120	3,728	2,121	6,792	3,732
French West Indies,.....	12	21	96	1,174	390
Hayti,.....	1,060	453	1,080	1,202	884
Spain on the Mediterranean,....	500	485
Texas,.....	53,533	3,858	62,566	28,159	2,797	28,395
Portugal and dependencies,.....	1,018	729	1,690	1,266
Mexico,.....	611	579	5,182	1,526	5,261
South America,.....	14,474	7,249	14,670	24,281	14,700	22,119
Asia, generally,.....	966	682	1,074	615	1,237
Africa, generally,.....	3,623	540	3,368	2,652	1,860
South Seas and Pacific,.....	3,286	531	3,126	2,663	75	2,699
Sweden and Norway,.....	160	17,893	2,985
Total,.....	98,472	390,655	\$193,583	94,140	363,693	\$168,925

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The statements from the treasury, required by law to be made periodically, of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States, were transmitted to Congress on Tuesday, April 2, 1844. They comprise the period of nine months, ending June 30, 1843, and are, as usual, full of interest for all persons engaged in mercantile pursuits. The following is an abstract of them :—

The exports during the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843, amounted to \$84,346,480; of which \$77,793,783 were of domestic, and \$6,552,697 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, \$60,107,819 were exported in American vessels, and \$17,685,964 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$4,945,817 were exported in American vessels, and \$1,606,880 in foreign vessels.

The imports during the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843, have amounted to \$64,753,799; of which there was imported in American vessels \$49,971,875; and in foreign vessels \$14,781,924.

Of the \$77,973,783 of exports, the growth and produce of the United States, there were from the—

Fisheries,.....		\$2,112,548
Forest,.....		3,351,909
Agriculture—Animals,.....	\$3,963,694	
“ Vegetable food,.....	6,955,908	
		<hr/> 10,919,602
Tobacco,.....		4,650,979
Cotton,.....		49,119,806
Manufactures,.....		3,223,550

Of the domestic produce, \$37,720,951, or about half the entire amount, was exported to England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Of the foreign goods imported, there were—

Free of duty,.....	\$35,574,584
Ad valorem duties,.....	16,684,875
Specific duties,.....	12,494,340
Total,.....	<hr/> \$64,753,799

1,144,523 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,286,083 tons cleared from the ports of the United States. 534,752 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 523,949 tons cleared, during the same period.

The number of vessels, American and foreign, arriving at all the ports of the United States, was—

AMERICAN.		FOREIGN.	
Boston,.....	455	Boston,.....	488
New York,.....	875	New York,.....	276
New Orleans,.....	833	New Orleans,.....	233
Total,.....	<hr/> 4,872	Total,.....	<hr/> 2,889
TOTAL.			
Boston,.....			943
New York,.....			1,151
New Orleans,.....			1,066
Total,.....			<hr/> 7,761

Of the 534,752 of foreign tonnage, 453,894 was British.

The tonnage of the United States, June 30, 1843, was as follows:—

The registered tonnage,.....	1,009,305.01
Enrolled and licensed tonnage,.....	1,076,155.59
Fishing vessels,.....	73,142.33
Total,.....	<hr/> 2,158,602.93

Of registered and enrolled tonnage, there were employed in the whale fisheries,..... 453,375.86

Of the tonnage, there belonged to the ports of—

Registered.		Enrolled.	
Boston,.....	165,482.67	Boston,.....	37,116.44
New York,.....	237,240.26	New York,.....	259,725.27
New Orleans,.....	49,957.60	New Orleans,.....	99,452.06
Philadelphia,.....	39,445.84	Philadelphia,.....	64,894.59
New Bedford,.....	83,056.69	New Bedford,.....	17,024.74
Total,.....	1,009,305.01	Total,.....	1,149,297.92
Aggregate.		Aggregate.	
Boston,.....	202,599.18	New Bedford,.....	100,081.48
New York,.....	496,965.56	Total,.....	2,158,602.93
New Orleans,.....	149,409.66		
Philadelphia,.....	104,340.48		

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the nine months ending June 30, 1843, was—

Registered,.....	27,275.32
Enrolled,.....	36,342.45
Total,.....	63,617.77

ROCHESTER FLOURING MILLS.*

The following table shows the amount of flour manufactured, and wheat consumed, in each of the mills at Rochester, N. Y., in 1843. It is derived from Elwood & Dewey's Rochester City Directory, for 1844; and, as it was prepared on the spot, may be relied on as correct:—

	Run of stones.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.*
Aqueduct Mills, E. S. Beach,.....	10	36,241	163,085
Red Mills, James Chappel,.....	3	13,700	61,650
New York Mills, E. & H. Lyon,.....	6	5,500	24,750
“ James Chappel,.....	“	12,303	55,364
City Mills, W. F. Holmes,.....	5	16,273	73,229
Ætna Mills, Thomas Barnard,.....	4	9,505	42,773
Crescent Mills, L. Cook,.....	6	4,500	20,250
“ W. Y. Andrews,.....	“	15,000	67,500
Ely's Mills, Elisha D. Ely,.....	9	30,152	135,634
White Mills, William C. Foster,.....	3	13,513	60,809
Carthage Mills, M. B. Seward,.....	4	10,914	49,133
Union Mills, Holmes & Goodman,.....	4	6,212	29,304
Farmers' Custom Mills, S. Gorsline,....	3	1,000	4,500
Field's Mills, Joseph Field,.....	5	28,544	128,448
Smith's mills, (N. half.) F. A. Spalding,.	4	7,950	35,775
Smith's mills, (S. half.) H. Slater,	4	4,500	20,250
Shawmut Mills, Smith & Allcott,.....	6	26,450	119,025
Whitney Mills, John Williams,.....	5	24,300	109,350
Frankfort Mills, G. W. Burbank & Co.,	3	31,749	142,871
Frankfort Custom Mills, Isaac F. Mack,	3	7,000	31,500
Hart's Mills, W. G. Oatman, Agent,.....	10	28,288	127,296
Hoyt's Mills, Joseph Putnam,.....	4	13,500	60,750
Genesee Falls Mills, T. Parsons,.....	3	18,000	81,000
Phœnix Mills, J. Hallowell,	4	15,288	68,796
Total,.....	108	380,682	1,713,072

Assuming that the average cost of each barrel of flour was \$4, the millers actually paid out in cash, for wheat, &c., during the last season, \$1,521,128.

* Four and a half bushels of wheat to one barrel of flour.

NAVIGATION OF THE DANISH SOUND.

In the Merchants' Magazine for March, 1844, we published an original translation made from the Danish of Schlegel, giving the origin and history of the Danish Sound and Belt-Tolls. The following statistics of the Sound show the operations of the corn trade on the English shipping. The nature of a "sliding scale" requiring that when corn is to be shipped in a foreign port, not a moment is to be lost, the foreign ship-owner obtains the freight, not because he is able to accept it on lower terms than his British competitor, but because his vessel is on the spot, and the English one is not. The number of vessels which passed the Sound last year, it will be seen by the subjoined table, was 1,262 less than in 1839; of which falling off the British ship-owners have sustained the enormous proportion of three-fourths, the number of British vessels being 4,509; whereas, in 1843, it had slidden down to 3,518.

NUMBER OF VESSELS WHICH PASSED THE "SOUND" DURING THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

Nation.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
British,.....	4,509	4,071	3,788	3,520	3,518
Hanoverian,.....	815	768	823	766	842
Danish,.....	1,123	974	1,017	1,068	1,399
Swedish,.....	1,243	1,364	1,133	1,219	1,431
Norwegian,.....	1,656	2,025	1,687	1,860	1,625
Prussian,.....	3,057	2,996	2,864	2,811	2,480
Russian,.....	832	814	819	761	753
Dutch,.....	1,199	947	973	912	1,224
Hamburgh,.....	19	23	20	16	28
Bremen,.....	70	59	73	60	37
Belgian,.....	33	21	11	6	6
French,.....	240	239	217	240	180
Mecklenburg,.....	995	962	959	821	851
Lubeck,.....	108	96	88	79	75
American,.....	114	143	123	113	144
Oldenburg,.....	129	85	128	140	175
Italian,.....	44	52	15	59	69
Spanish,.....	20	18	14	4	8
Portuguese,.....	3	5	2	2	2
Total,.....	16,209	15,662	14,754	13,957	14,947

COMMERCE OF CLEVELAND, CINCINNATI, AND PORTSMOUTH.

Amount of Merchandise cleared from Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Portsmouth, from 1832 to 1843; and the estimated value placed upon the amount cleared from Cleveland during the period named.

1832,.....	5,260,000	\$300	\$1,578,000
1833,.....	9,896,000	"	2,968,800	6,124,000
1834,.....	10,128,000	"	3,038,400	5,568,000
1835,.....	14,839,000	"	4,451,700	7,217,000	6,868,000
1836,.....	13,384,000	"	4,015,200	6,065,000	7,220,000
1837,.....	10,757,000	"	3,227,100	6,020,000	3,487,000
1838,.....	18,875,000	"	5,662,500	6,887,000	3,763,000
1839,.....	19,126,000	"	5,737,800	8,664,009	7,086,000
1840,.....	10,784,000	"	3,235,200	6,566,000	6,740,000
1841,.....	15,064,000	"	4,549,200	4,359,000	5,774,000
1842,.....	10,092,000	"	3,007,600	3,849,000	5,111,000
1843,.....	14,823,000	"	3,846,900	3,651,000	5,812,000

Some trifling articles have been omitted in constructing this table. In estimating the value of merchandise, the amount has been fixed at \$300 on every 1,000 lbs.

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

BUSINESS OF THE GEORGIA CENTRAL RAILROAD.

Years.	No. Pass.	Passage money.	Bales cotton.	U. S. Mail.	Tot. receipts.
1842—November,.....	812	\$3,496 00	8,317	1,085 71	\$26,067
“ December,.....	776	3,163 50	5,475	1,085 71	17,453
1843—January,.....	803	2,545 25	7,551	1,085 71	19,294
“ February,.....	487	1,885 75	3,422	1,085 71	11,929
“ March,.....	532	2,092 50	1,127	1,085 71	7,486
“ April,.....	517	2,075 25	847	1,085 71	7,486
“ May,.....	887	3,413 50	742	1,214 25	10,107
“ June,.....	741	2,511 00	485	1,214 25	7,707
“ July,.....	715	2,192 25	48	1,715 00	8,080
“ August,.....	655	2,122 50	289	1,715 00	11,142
“ September,.....	677	2,732 00	1,985	1,715 00	21,447
“ October,.....	1,034	4,245 75	6,478	1,715 00	35,256
“ November,.....	1,425	4,854 12	10,367	1,715 00	42,612
Aggregate,.....	10,461	\$37,325 37	47,133	\$17,517 76	\$227,531
Expense same period,.....					134,341
Excess receipts,.....					\$93,100
1843—December,.....	1,534	5,270 19	9,493	1,715 00	31,252
1844—January,.....	1,527	5,671 48	10,731	1,715 00	29,758
“ February,.....	1,574	6,251 30	7,893	1,715 00	25,704
Total,.....	4,635	\$17,193 06	28,117	\$5,145 00	\$86,715
From the commencement of the cotton season, (say 1st of August to 1st of March,) the receipts have been.....					
					\$197,176 97
For the same period last year,.....					
					116,420 97
Gain in those 7 months,.....					
					\$80,756 00
Increase of bales cotton, 41 per cent; number of passengers, 90 per cent; passage money, 90 per cent; total receipts, 69 per cent.					

TARIFF OF FREIGHTS ON THE ERIE CANAL.

The forwarders along the line of the canal have entered into arrangements as to the rates of freight to Albany for the present season. We give below the prices, as agreed upon, on the principal articles from the leading western ports:—

Articles.	Buffalo.	Lockp't.	Roch'ter.	Pitts'd.	Bushnell's Basin.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
Flour,.....	75	70	56	55	54
Ashes, butter, cheese, lard, &c., per 100 lbs.,	40	38	34	33	31
Pork, beef, tallow, bacon, and whiskey, per 100 lbs.,.....	35	35	34	33	33
Dried fruit, seeds, and leather, per 100 lbs.,	50	47	40	39	39
Hops, tobacco, rags, hides, domestic goods, and furniture,.....	65	60	50	48	48
Wool, per 100 lbs.,.....	1 00	92	75	73	73
Mill feed, per 216 lbs.,.....	90	80	65	64	64
Grain, per 60 lbs.,.....	21	19	16	15	15
Staves, lumber, over toll, per ton,.....	3 00	2 75	2 25	2 15	2 10

On flour shipped at Rochester, 2 cents is charged for storage; making the whole cost at Albany 56 cents.

FREIGHTS ON PENNSYLVANIA CANAL.

We annex the following statement of the tolls on some important articles, which have been established by the companies engaged in transporting goods between Baltimore and Pittsburgh:—

The charge for coffee, between these two points, is now $37\frac{1}{2}$ cents per 100 lbs.; and within a few days this article has been received for, through from Baltimore to Louisville, including charges of every description, at 48 cents. The present rates from Baltimore to Pittsburgh are, for dry-goods, shoes, &c., 65 cents; brown muslins, hardware, and queensware, 60 cents; and groceries, generally, $62\frac{1}{2}$ cents per 100 lbs. Shad, \$1 25, and herrings \$1, per bbl. The charges to Wheeling are 10 cents per 100 lbs., additional to those named above. The freights on the Ohio river, from Pittsburgh to Louisville, upon merchandise, generally rule about 15 cents per 100 lbs. Heavy goods, such as tobacco, bacon, &c., are now paying 45 to 50 cents from Pittsburgh to Baltimore.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

FREAKS OF WEALTHY MERCHANTS.

It is stated in Chambers's *Continental Tour*, that the wealth which now exists in Amsterdam falls much short of what it was previous to the French revolution, or during the period of Dutch commercial pre-eminence. It is not long since strangers, in visiting Amsterdam, were shown the spacious house of a merchant, who, after lavishing much on furniture and painting, actually caused the floor of one of his apartments to be laid with Spanish dollars, set on edge. Whims equally ridiculous, for disposing of an overplus of wealth, appear to have been far from uncommon in former times in Holland. A gentleman of my acquaintance, passing through Arnheim a few days ago, had his attention directed to an old, fantastical-looking dwelling, concerning which, he gathered the following historical reminiscence:—The original owner was a Jew merchant, and he erected the house out of pure revenge. His coffers were so well replenished that he was at a loss how to employ his superfluous cash. At last he hit upon a fanciful expedient. He determined to make a pavement before his residence, of large massive plates of silver, and to surround it with an ornamental chain, of the same costly metal. Before carrying this plan into effect, it behoved him to obtain the sanction of the authorities. These worthies, however, void of sympathy, set their face against a proposition which might have compelled them to increase the strength of the town-guard. Enraged at their non-compliance, Moses determined to punish them. He ordered his dwelling, situated in the principal street, immediately to be pulled down, and on its site erected the one now standing. It is literally covered with diabolical figures, amounting, it is said, to three hundred and sixty-five.

IMITATION RUSSIA SHEET IRON.

A specimen of this successful imitation of a foreign article—the manufacture of which has heretofore been zealously kept secret by the Russian government—has been left at the counting-room of the Baltimore American. It is made in Pennsylvania, and purposely glazed only on one side. It is stated in that *Journal* that both sides can be glazed if required; but, as only one side shows when manufactured, it answers every purpose to glaze but one side, and the saving of three-fourths of a cent per lb. in cost. This iron, we learn, can be afforded at about 63 per cent, or \$107 40 per ton less than the lowest average price of the foreign full-glazed article, of the same thickness; to which, in appearance, it very nearly approaches. Being manufactured with great care, from the best of blooms, it will fully compare with the foreign in malleability and toughness. Stoves made of this iron have been in use for two years, and look as well as when first made up, and the manufacture has since been very much improved.

CIGAR MANUFACTURE AT MALAGA.

We find it stated, in Captain Scott's Excursions in Spain, that the manufactory of Malaga employs 700 persons, women, and children, in making cigars. A good pair of hands at the work may furnish 300 a day; but, (as the children cannot make half that number,) taking the average at 200, gives a daily supply of 140,000. The manufactory at Seville employs 1,000 men, and 1,600 women. These 2,600 persons may be calculated as furnishing, on an average, 250 each per diem; or, altogether, 650,000. Add to this number the 140,000 made at Malaga, and we have 790,000 as the "total of the whole" manufactured daily in Spain. The persons employed in the manufacture of cigars are paid at the rate of one real vellon for fifty, which enables even a first-rate maker to earn but fifteen pence a day. The best cigars are made entirely of Havana tobacco, and are sold at the factory at the rate of thirty real vellons a hundred, or about three farthings English each. The second quality, composed of mixed tobacco, (that is, the interior of Havana leaf, and the outside of Virginia,) cost eighteen real vellons per hundred, or something under a halfpenny each. It may be seen, from this statement of the cost of cigars of the royal manufactory, that smuggling cannot but prosper; since at the Havana the very best cigars are sold for twelve dollars a thousand, (or a trifle above a halfpenny each,) while those of inferior quality may be had for one-fourth that price.

FRAUDS IN TRADE AT LIVERPOOL.

The Liverpool Mercury furnishes the following list and particulars of frauds in trade, practised by dealers in that great market-town. Are not similar frauds practised in the United States?

Frauds in Butter.—In the Liverpool markets, three tricks are played by persons selling butter. In some instances, salt butter is moulded into the form of pounds of fresh butter, and cased over with fresh, so as to deceive the taster, who, however, soon discovers the cheat when the butter is cut at home. In other instances, salt butter is moulded into the shape of fresh, and not cased at all; but a pound of fresh is conspicuously placed to be tasted; but *that* pound is not sold—and in other instances salt butter, washed, is moulded, and sold as fresh. Purchasers, in all these cases, are supplied with salt butter only.

Frauds in Sugar.—Pounded rice, and other cheap materials, are mixed in sugar, and sold at full monopoly price. A chemical substance—the refuse of the soap manufactories—is also mixed with other substances, and sold as sugar.

Frauds in Coffee.—To avoid the mixture of chicory in good coffee, discreet housewives purchase coffee unground, and take the trouble of grinding it at home; but they are often cheated, nevertheless. Chicory, or some similarly cheap substance, is skilfully moulded into the form of the coffee berry, and is mixed with the bulk very liberally.

Frauds in Cocoa.—This article is extensively adulterated with fine brown earth, wrought up with mutton fat, so as to amalgamate with portions of the real article.

Frauds in Tea.—The leaves are mingled with sloe-leaves, and other abominations, to swindle the public. Used leaves are also re-dried, and re-colored on hot copper plates, and sold as tea.

Frauds in Tobacco.—Nasty things of all sorts, if cheap, are mixed with the weed in all its manufactured forms, and the whole is sold at less than the duty. Yellow ochre is a prime ingredient for "Bird's-Eye."

Frauds in Stockings.—They are purposely stretched, to look large, to fetch a large price. The moment they are washed, they shrink from men's size to women's, and from women's to children's, and soon come to pieces from the stretching they have suffered.

Frauds in Flannel.—It is purposely stretched to the utmost endurance of the fibre, to measure long and broad, and to command good prices; but a garment made of it is of little use after the first washing.

Forgery in Crockery.—Pretty ware is made; but, to screw an extra profit, the thinnest possible glaze is thrown over it, instead of a good substantial one, and a good price is obtained for it; but use it gently as you will, it soon cracks in all directions. It is almost worthless.

Frauds in General.—Pepper is adulterated with dust from husks, &c. Port wine is altogether *manufactured* by certain parties, it being notorious that more wine, so called, is drank in this country than is made in Portugal. Quart bottles only hold three half pints; pint bottles only hold three quarter pints. Cloth, twenty-eight or thirty inches wide, is called yard wide. Names mean nothing but to deceive.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Commercial Phraseology*. By C. F. & G. MEEDEN, Hamburg. New York: William Radde.

This work will prove eminently useful to natives of America, England, France, and Germany, devoting themselves to commercial pursuits; and who, therefore, must be interested in acquiring a facility of expression in the English, German, and French languages; as they will here find, in a well ordered combination, such an abundant choice of words, phrases, and sentences, actually in use, as greatly to facilitate their acquisition of this important subject. It will also be useful as a book of reference for practical merchants, who well know how inadequate are all dictionaries in matters of commercial style and terminology. The names of the leading articles of commerce, and commercial phrases, &c., are given in parallel columns. We have found it extremely useful in enumerating articles of commerce in the preparation of our statistical tables, as it contains terms not to be found in the ordinary dictionaries of foreign languages.

- 2.—*The Principles of Political Economy*. By HENRY VETHAKE, LL. D., one of the Professors in the University of Pennsylvania, etc. 8vo., pp. 414. Philadelphia: J. W. Moore.

The present treatise is a systematic exposition of the principles of political economy. Professor Vethake seems to have avoided almost all reference to other writers whose opinions differ from his own, or any direct notice of the controversies which have been agitated by the many distinguished men who have successively occupied the path of investigation in which he has followed them. The various subjects comprehended in the treatise are arranged in logical order, and in a manner well adapted for the instruction of the student. The author entertains liberal and enlightened views on most of the subjects embraced in his work; and it is with pleasure that we commend it to all inquirers after truth in this important but comparatively little understood science.

- 3.—*A Lecture on the Law of Representation in Marine Insurance. With Notes and Illustrations, and a Preliminary Lecture on the question whether Marine Insurance was known to the Ancients*. By JOHN DUER, LL. D. New York: F. S. Voorhies.

The main body of this work is occupied with a treatise on the doctrine of representations in marine insurance. The subject is treated with great legal ability, and fortified with the most approved authorities on the subject. The preliminary lecture, discussing the litigated question whether marine insurance was known to the ancients, was originally delivered as a lecture; and traces, with marked force and clearness, the rise and progress of marine insurance. It will be read with pleasure by those members of the profession who have cultivated an acquaintance with the civil law, and retain their love of classic learning.

- 4.—*Sermons*. By Rev. F. W. P. GREENWOOD, D. D., Minister of King's Chapel, Boston. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 340 and 390. Boston: Little & Brown.

As models of chaste and elegant composition, the sermons embraced in the present volume will not suffer by comparison with Addison, or the best English writers of our time. The pure and beautiful morality, and the calm and quiet piety inculcated in these discourses, and indeed in all the writings of the lamented author, will commend them to a large class of Christian readers. The sermons are introduced by a memoir of the life and character of the author, so rare in its happy combination of valuable endowments, that it will not soon pass from the memory of those who have known him; and ought not to be left without record for the benefit of all who can be improved by its example. The unrivalled typographical beauty of these volumes greatly enhance their value in our estimation.

- 5.—*A Practical Treatise on Midwifery.* By M. CHAILLY, M. D., and Ex-Chief of the Obstetric Clinique of the Faculty of Paris, Professor of Midwifery, etc., etc. Illustrated with 216 cuts. Translated from the French, and edited by GUNNING S. BEDFORD, A. M., M. D., Professor of Midwifery and the Diseases of Women and Children in the University of New York. Svo., pp. 530. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work comes out under the sanction and approval of the Royal Council of Public Instruction of France, and the use of it is authorized in the faculties, in the schools of medicine, and in the different courses instituted for the instruction of *sage-femmes*. It combines all that is new and valuable in obstetric science, and every topic is treated in detail, and bears the impress of the master's mind. The encomiums which have been passed upon this work by some of the best European Journals, and the high character of Paul Dubois, whose instructions and experience it embodies, will doubtless secure for it a favorable reception on this side of the Atlantic.

- 6.—*Mental and Moral Culture, and Popular Education.* By S. S. RANDALL, General Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of New York. 18mo., pp. 236. New York: Charles S. Francis.

This sensible, well-written little volume, discusses the whole subject of mental and moral culture with great ability. The attention of the young is here directed to considerations intimately connected with their physical, moral, and intellectual education, and the formation of their character. Mr. R. points out with precision the facilities, as well as the obstacles to mental culture, which are presented by the varying circumstances of their condition in life, by the institutions of society, and by public sentiment. The volume also includes a special report on Common School Libraries, prepared in pursuance of instructions of the Superintendent of Common Schools, by Mr. Henry S. Randall, County Superintendent of Cortland county.

- 7.—*A New Spirit of the Age.* Edited by R. H. HORNE, author of "Orion," "Gregory VII.," etc. 12mo., pp. 364. New York: J. C. Riker.

This attractive volume appears to be a continuation of Hewlett's "Spirit of the Age," published some twenty years since. It embraces anecdotes and criticisms of about forty of the most eminent literary characters of England; all of whom, with a single exception, are now living. In the biographical sketches, which are only occasional, the author has excluded all disagreeable personalities, and all unwarrantable anecdotes. The criticisms are entirely on abstract grounds. The critical opinions of the writer are never balanced and equivocal, or evasive of decision on the whole. The present edition is neatly bound, and embraces lithographic portraits of Thomas Carlye, Thomas Noon Talfourd, Harriet Martineau, &c.

- 8.—*Sweet Auburn and Mount Auburn, with other Poems.* By CAROLINE F. ORNE. 12mo., pp. 196. Cambridge: John Owen.

The subject of the two principal poems in this volume, "Sweet Auburn" and (the old name of) "Mount Auburn," are objects of interest, not merely to a few individuals, or even towns, but many thousand hearts are directly or indirectly concerned in whatever relates to this beautiful land of the departed, this city "of the silent." To all such, these beautiful and generally well sustained poems will be a most acceptable offering. The shorter pieces, which occupy about one-half the collection, have already appeared in various magazines and other periodicals, and are worthy of being preserved in the more permanent and really handsome dress of everything from the press of Mr. Owen, the publisher.

- 9.—*Marco Paul's Adventures in Pursuit of Knowledge. Forests of Maine.* By the author of "Rollo," "Jonas," and "Lucy" Books. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

The sixth of a series of books for children and youth, which we have no hesitation in pronouncing one of the best adapted to its design, of imparting amusement and instruction, ever published.

- 10.—*Records of the Heart*. By MRS. SARAH ANNA LEWIS. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The leading poem in this beautiful volume is founded on an Italian tradition, related to the author by a native of Florence. Several of the minor pieces, which have appeared within the last two or three years, in different periodicals and magazines, were favorably received; which, together with the "earnest solicitation of friends, on whose learning, taste, and judgment, the author could rely, induced her to present the present volume to the public." The author seems to possess in her nature the elements of poetry, and has succeeded in embodying the inspirations of her muse in a natural and graceful versification. Several of her shorter pieces are pretty, and the longer poems are generally well sustained throughout.

- 11.—*The Christian Instructed in the Ways of the Gospel and the Church. A Series of Discourses delivered in St. James' Church, Goshen, N. Y., during the years 1840-42*. By Rev. J. A. SPENCER, A. M., late Rector. 12mo., pp. 325. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the first volume of sermons, by an American divine, which has been published for some years. Their style is characterized by clearness, directness, and force. The doctrines of the Bible, as they are understood by the author, are here presented in a familiar and plain manner, as the Church Catholic has held them, and as they are held by the Reformed branches in England and America. The volume is prefaced with an introduction, and embraces a brief notice of what the Church is, how she is distinguished from the various surrounding denominations, &c.; of the value and advantage of the liturgy; and also a succinct account of the various festivals and fasts, and holy seasons. We hope all who feel interested in the religion of the Episcopal Church will extend to this volume their support, as the author is at present physically unable to discharge the active duties of the ministry, and as it will be a source of temporal comfort to a very worthy man.

- 12.—*Ridley, Latimer, Cranmer, and other English Martyrs*. By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. 12mo., pp. 300. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

The author of these memoirs of men who laid down their lives for their religious opinions, is a zealous Protestant, and views the "Popery" of the Roman Catholic Church of the past and present with the utmost horror. She holds the pen of a strong and ready writer, and her criticisms of the Church are marked with more severity than many liberal-minded reformers of our time conceive to be either just, or in accordance with that charity that "hopeth and believeth all things." Protestants should not forget, while dwelling upon the unchristian persecutions of the Catholics in time past, that they themselves were not without sin on this head.

- 13.—*Every Man his Own Cattle-Doctor; containing the Causes, Symptoms, and Treatment of all the Diseases incident to Oxen, Sheep, and Swine; and a Sketch of Neat Cattle*. By FRANCIS CLATTER. Edited, revised, and almost re-written, by WILLIAM YOUATT, author of "The Horse," etc. With Numerous Additions, embracing an Essay on the Use of Oxen, and the Improvement in the Breed of Sheep, &c. By JOHN S. SKINNER. With numerous cuts and illustrations. 12mo., pp. 250. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The copious title-page sufficiently indicates the design and character of this little manual; which, in its original form, passed through eight editions in England, and has been greatly improved and enlarged by the American editor.

- 14.—*The Traveller; or, Wonders of Art*. 18mo., pp. 147. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This little volume treats in an easy and familiar style the most important inventions of our time, connected with the existence, safety, and comfort of the race; the scientific inventions, and mining; and many of the wonders of art produced by the mind of man, gifted with that inspiration of the Divine Architect which has given him understanding.

- 15.—*The Poems—Sacred, Passionate, and Humorous—of Nathaniel Parker Willis.* 8vo., pp. 331. New York: Clark & Austin.

Mr. Willis's numerous admirers have reason to thank the publishers for this very handsome and complete edition of his poetical works. The sacred poems seem to flow from the inspiration of the author's highest moments, when all that is elevating in the religious sentiment is breathed forth in "thoughts that breathe, and words that burn." Mr. Willis, in the brief, modest, and pertinent preface, says that many of the poems in this volume would have been very different, could the popularity of the thought embodied in them have been foreseen, and time and pains given to make the whole more worthy of its freight. Mending them, he thought of; "but the mending of well known poetry with new verses, shows as ill as new pieces of mahogany on old furniture."

- 16.—*The Apostolical Primitive Church, Popular in its Government, and Simple in its Worship.* By LYMAN COLEMAN, author of "Antiquities of the Christian Church." With an Introductory Essay. By AUGUSTUS NEANDER, Professor of Theology in the University of Berlin. 12mo., pp. 432. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The object of the author of the present work is "to commend to the consideration of the reader the admirable simplicity of the government and worship of the primitive church, in opposition to the polity and ceremonials of the higher forms of prelacy." Mr. Coleman, the learned author, has evinced, in the preparation of his work, great research and industry; and his arguments are sustained by an accumulated array of authorities that it would seem difficult to refute or resist. Bearing on the controversy of the time, touching the claims of Episcopacy, it will doubtless receive, from all interested in the subject, the attention it deserves.

- 17.—*Advice to Mothers in the Management of their Offspring, during the Periods of Infancy, Childhood, and Youth.* By PYE HENRY CHAVASSE, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. 18mo., pp. 153. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In a former number of this Magazine we noticed, in terms of high commendation, a little work by the same author, entitled "Advice to Wives." Three editions of the present work were called for in England in twelve months, a proof that such a work was much needed. It is just such a book as should be placed in the hands of every mother in the country.

- 18.—*Heroes of the Revolution; comprising Lives of Officers who were distinguished in the War of Independence.* Edited by JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Pictorial History of the United States." New York: Saxton & Miles.

In this volume we have a series of interesting sketches of such men as George Washington, Nathaniel Greene, Daniel Morgan, John Stark, Hugh Mercer, Ethan Allen, John Cadwallader, John Conway, William R. Davis, Christophe Gadsden, Horatio Gates, Nathan Hale, Isaac Hayne, Charles Lee, Joseph Warren, John Laurens, and Thomas Mifflin; all of whom figured conspicuously in the struggle which resulted in securing the national independence of the American people.

- 19.—*The Poetry and History of Wyoming; containing Campbell's Gertrude, and the History of Wyoming, from its Discovery, to the beginning of the present Century.* By WILLIAM L. STONE, author of the "Life of Brant," etc. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1844.

The first edition of this work was published in 1840, and was speedily taken up. The present, the second edition, embraces all that was contained in the first, with an addition of about one hundred pages, including many additional facts of value, and some few corrections. The idea of illustrating the beautiful poem of Campbell with a history of the murderous assault upon Wyoming, was a happy one; and its execution is highly creditable to the industry and research of the accomplished author. Washington Irving has added to the interest of the volume by the contribution of a comprehensive biography of Campbell.

20.—*The Life of Benjamin Franklin; containing the Autobiography, with Notes and a Continuation.* By JARED SPARKS. 8vo., pp. 612. Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

This really splendid volume contains the autobiography of Dr. Franklin as far as he wrote it, with a continuation to the end of his life by Mr. Sparks, whose facilities for obtaining the materials were of such a character as to insure the utmost fidelity. Mr. S. was placed in possession of everything of a documentary character in existence, and also had free access to a larger part of the private correspondence of the distinguished individual whose life he appears to have recorded with so much care; following out the plan of the autobiography by confining himself strictly to a faithful and comprehensive narrative of the leading events and incidents in the life of Franklin, as far as these could be ascertained from his writings, his public acts, and the testimony of his contemporaries. The continuation occupies about one-half of the volume, and renders it the only perfect and complete life of Franklin ever published. The whole forms one beautiful royal octavo volume, printed after the model, and equalling the best specimens of British typography. We are happy to learn that the enterprising publishers, Tappan & Dennet, are about issuing, in duodecimo volumes, the life and writings of Washington and Franklin, under the general title of the "National School Library," at a price that will place them in the reach of every school district in the United States.

21.—*The Highlands of Ethiopia Described, during Eighteen Months' Residence of the British Embassy at the Christian Court of Shoa.* By Major W. C. HARRIS. With illustrations. 12mo., 4 parts. New York: J. Winchester.

The governor and council of Bombay were induced, from the high estimate formed of the talents and acquirements, and of the spirit of enterprise and decision exhibited in the travels of Major Harris, "through the territories of the chief Moselekatsé to the tropic of Capricorn," selected him to conduct the mission to the king of Shoa, in Southern Abyssinia. The present work is the result of this mission, and the author has succeeded in making it one of great interest.

22.—*Happy Hours; or, The Home Story-Book.* By MARY CHERWELL. With illustrations, from designs by Gilbert. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This little volume, with several very pretty pictorial illustrations, contains eleven attractive stories for boys and girls, each inculcating some useful lesson of goodness.

23.—*Lectures on Church Government; containing Objections to the Episcopal Scheme. Delivered in the Theological Seminary, Andover, August, 1843.* By LEONARD WOODS, D. D., Professor of Christian Theology. 12mo., pp. 198. New York: Turner & Hayden.

The present series of lectures are published in compliance with the request of those who heard them. The objections to Episcopacy are stated with great force and clearness, but in a liberal and Catholic spirit. We commend the work to all who take an interest in the merits of a question recently agitated, as some suppose for the last time, in the Christian world.

24.—*Shanty, the Blacksmith. A Tale of Other Times.* By Mrs. SHERWOOD. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

A neat reprint of one of Mrs. Sherwood's last and best tales.

25.—*The Story of Grace, the Little Sufferer, who died in New York, April 15, 1837.* New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This little sketch is published and sold for the benefit of the afflicted family of Grace, a fact that will induce every benevolent heart to purchase a copy, and thus contribute to the comfort of a worthy family.

26.—*The Lily of the Valley.* By the author of "Little Henry and his Bearer." Sixth edition. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

An interesting story, at once natural and instructive, and well calculated to impress upon the mind lessons of morality and religion.

27.—*Picture Gallery of the New and Old World.* New York: Office of the Republic.

The object of this new weekly Journal "is the diffusion of a taste for the arts and sciences, by the circulation of opinions upon the true value of the subject under criticism, and combining with them a series of American and foreign pictorial illustrations, in design and execution worthy the end proposed." The three numbers before us are beautifully printed, and splendidly illustrated with numerous engravings, of general interest. It is on the plan of the London pictorial papers, and equal, in every respect, to the best of them. The selections, and the original letter-press illustrations, evince discrimination and accomplished scholarship on the part of the editors.

28.—*Simmonds's Colonial Magazine, for April, 1844. Vol. I., No. IV.* London: Edited by P. L. SIMMONDS, Esq., F. S. S.

The present number of this excellent periodical is replete with articles of value and interest, not only to the colonists of Great Britain, but to all who desire recent and accurate information touching the geography, progress, and statistics of all parts of the world.

29.—*Destiny; or, The Chief's Daughter.* By the author of "Marriage," and "The Inheritance." 18mo., pp. 328. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This is the first of a series of novels to be published under the general title of "The Cabinet Series," to be issued from time to time, and embrace only such novels and romances as may be selected for their pure moral tone, and acknowledged excellence. The series commences with the present work of Mrs. Fenner, long out of print. Others of equal merit will follow; so that the series will form a standard library of novels and romances.

BOOKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

- 1.—*Memoirs of Madame D'Arbly, author of "Evelina," "Cecilia," etc. Compiled from her Voluminous Diaries and Letters, and from other sources.* By Mrs. HELEN BERKLEY, author of "The Fortune-Hunter," etc. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: James Mowatt.
- 2.—*Narrative and Recollections of Van Dieman's Land, during a Three Years' Captivity of Stephen S. Wright. Together with an Account of the Battle of Prescott.* By CALEB LYON, of Lyonsdale. 8vo., pp. 80. New York: J. Winchester.
- 3.—*A New Spirit of the Age.* Edited by R. H. HORNE, author of "Orion," "Gregory VII.," etc. 18mo., pp. 366. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 4.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 34. The Prairie-Bird.* By the Hon. CHARLES AUGUSTUS MURRAY, author of "Travels in America." 8vo., pp. 208. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 5.—*The Cruise of the Somers; illustrative of the Despotism of the Quarter-Deck, and the Unmanly conduct of Commodore Mackenzie.* 12mo., pp. 102. New York: J. Winchester.
- 6.—*Chatsworth; or, The Romance of a Week.* Edited by the author of "Tremaine," "De Vere," etc. 8vo., pp. 122. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 7.—*Travels in the Californias, and Scenes in the Pacific Ocean. In Four Parts. Part 3.* By THOMAS J. FARNHAM. 8vo. New York: Saxton & Miles.
- 8.—*Mysteries of London.* Translated from the French. By HENRY C. DEMING. Part 4. New York: J. Winchester.
- 9.—*Hayward's Gazetteer of Maine.* 8vo., pp. 92. Boston: B. B. Muzzy. [This is to be followed by Gazetteers of each of the states and territories, in separate parts.]
- 10.—*Manures. A Prize Essay.* By S. L. DANA. 12mo., pp. 47. New York: Wiley & Putnam.
- 11.—*The Literary Remains of the late Willis Gaylord Clark; including the Ollapodiana Papers, the Spirit of Life, and a Selection from his various Prose and Poetical Writings.* Edited by LEWIS GAYLORD CLARK. 8vo., Nos. 1 and 2. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.
- 12.—*Texas: its Geography, Natural History, and Topography.* By WILLIAM KENNEDY, Esq. 8vo., pp. 118. New York: Benjamin & Young.
- 13.—*The Hierarchical Despotism. Sophisms of the Apostolic Succession Examined and Refuted by the Word of God. Lecture 4.* By GEORGE B. CHEEVER. 12mo., pp. 120.
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- 15.—*An Address on Pauperism, its Extent, Causes, and the Best Means of Prevention. Delivered at the Church in Bowdoin Square, February 4, 1844.* By R. C. WATERSTON. 8vo., pp. 52. Boston: Little & Brown.