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HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JULY, 1844.

ART. I.—SHIPS AND SHIP-BUILDING OF THE ANCIENTS.

If we allow the correctness of that historical theory, which supposes, that the true principles of science were best understood in the earliest ages of the world; that, before the deluge, the laws of nature, and the most recondite properties of matter, were comprehended in a far clearer light than they have been since; and that all our science is but an attempt at the re-discovery of certain facts and principles, a knowledge of which has been lost, during intervening degenerate ages, nothing can be more absurd than the inquiries and disputes, concerning the invention and origin of navigation, which have occupied so much of the time of our older antiquaries. This theory, to which we allude, has many and able advocates. Setting it aside, however, and supposing that the antediluvians lived in the infancy of science, as well as of society, there is still no ground for maintaining, as some have, that the art of navigation was entirely unknown to the inhabitants of the world before the flood. From the very nature of things they must have made some progress in it. There were then, as now, rivers to cross, transmarine countries to visit; and the relations between water, and substances capable of floating, must have been as apparent as in the present day. An inference may also be drawn in favor of this view from the fact, that, in the account of the construction of the greatest vessel ever built—the ark—no circumstance is mentioned which would indicate it to have been the first of its kind. It was novel in its size, perhaps in its model, and certainly in its object, but no new principle seems to have been developed; and it was probably looked upon by the wondering and curious antediluvians as something extraordinary in marine architecture, but not as the first experiment in a new art. A tradition has even been preserved, that the antediluvians had boats previous to the deluge, but that they were insufficient to weather the waves and gales that then swept the earth, and were lost, with their unlucky owners, in that mighty commotion of the elements. To this ef-

fect, Plato* has been cited; and Ovid,† in his account of the flood. The question, however, is of so little interest or importance, that it would be an idle waste of words to consider it at any length.

The first vessel of which we have any authentic account—the first, not only in point of time, but in size, and the purpose for which it was intended, is the ark. The more we consider the dimensions, proportions and arrangement, of this wonderful vessel, as given in the simple, but comprehensive directions for its construction, recorded by Moses, the more are we struck with admiration of it, as a work of art, and as a very perfect adaptation of a means to an end. It has been objected, that, large as it was, it could not have contained all the animals that were directed to be gathered into it. The utility of this objection has been fully exposed, by numerous distinguished commentators upon Holy Writ. Taking the cubit at eighteen inches, the ark must have been four hundred and fifty feet in length, or more than twice the length of our heaviest line-of-battle ships; seventy-five feet in breadth, or from twenty-five to thirty feet wider than any two-decker; and forty-five feet in depth. Her tonnage, as estimated by Dr. Hales, amounted to 42,413 tons, equal to about eighteen ships of the line. That she was “broad at both ends, like a chest, and perfectly flat on the bottom,” is, of course, a mere conjecture of our biblical commentators, but one, which, as she was not intended for sailing, may not be far from the truth. In such case, it is evident, that her capacity for stowage would be much increased in proportion to her tonnage, and that the number of tons would not indicate the real burden that she could carry. Two hundred and fifty pairs of quadrupeds, it has been estimated, were all that was necessary to perpetuate every known species; these, with the other animals, and their food for a twelvemonth, could not have overtaken the powers of such a ship. Internally, she was divided into three stories or decks; her timbers and planking were of gopher wood, thought to be cypress; and she was pitched within and without with a kind of bitumen, which now, as then, abounds in the country where she is supposed to have been built. It will be observed, that the ratio of the length to the breadth, is greater than generally obtains in modern times, except in some of our American vessels. The depth of hold, however, is considerably less. Long, but low, with a flat floor, no top-hamper, and requiring no ballast, the ark must have floated, during that awful tempest of divine wrath, a sea-boat, that, for safety and comfort, could not, most probably, have been improved, in any particular, by the boasted skill of the present day.

Notwithstanding, however, that the recollection, at least, of this splendid specimen of naval architecture, must have been preserved for some time, by the descendants of Noah, the people of the earth, soon after the deluge, appear to have lost nearly all knowledge of the art, and a host of names are mentioned by ancient writers to whom is attributed the honor of its invention or re-discovery: Neptune, Minerva, Danaus, Atlas, Hercules, Jason, Erythræus and others, the mythic representatives of real persons, who each, at different times, and in different countries, contributed to the improvement of the rude modes and materials of navigation in use among their countrymen. It has been, of course, impossible to ascertain, from conflicting testimony and imperfect accounts, the merit or

* Liber III., de legit.

† Metam., Lib. I., fol. 7.

the exact state of the art at the times in which they lived. Certain it is, however, that, for many centuries, its principles were but little understood and its practice but little attended to, and that the progress of no art has been characterized by slower and more numerous steps.

Usous, a Phœnician, the brother of Hypsauranius, is represented to have been the first who ventured to sea in a canoe hollowed from the trunk of a tree by fire. Before his day, however, a much more rude and inartificial kind of vessel had been for some time in use. It consisted merely of a float, or raft of logs, lashed together by ropes, of skin or bark, and moved by both sail and oar. In its most simple form, a single log only was used, on which the adventurous voyager sat astride, and propelled himself by his paddle. These vessels were denominated *rates*, and corresponded precisely to the *catamarans** that are now used in the East Indies, on the coast of South America and in other parts of the world. We are told by Strabo† and Pliny,‡ that these *rates* were the first kind of vessels invented by the ancients. Father Montfaucon§ quotes Isidore to the same effect, and the statement is so probable, that we can readily give it credit. On these rude, but, when properly constructed, safe vessels, there is reason for believing that the ancients, particularly the Phœnicians, made voyages of considerable length.

The invention of Usous, who is thought by some learned men|| to have been identical with Esau, the brother of Jacob, is an improvement, so obvious, that the only wonder is, that it should have been left for him to make. The idea of hollowing the trunks of trees must, at any rate, have been at once adopted, as we have abundance of evidence that such vessels were in common use at a very early date. These first log boats, corresponding precisely to our well known "dug-outs," were termed *monoxyla* by the Greeks, and soon came to be of all sizes, from the small canoe, carrying but a single person, up to the large piratical craft, containing thirty men. These last are mentioned by Pliny, and his account is quoted by Montfaucon, with expressions of surprise. The learned father, was probably unacquainted with the still larger war canoes of the aborigines of this country, and of the islands of the Pacific. The cotton-wood tree of the West Indies, will sometimes make a canoe that will carry a hundred men. The term *alvei*, was also sometimes used for the same kind of boats by the Romans. It was an *alveus*, according to Ovid, in which Romulus and Remus were exposed. They were also known by the name of *traburia*, as being constructed of one piece of timber or beam, and were in general use throughout all the countries of the Mediterranean, and in Portugal and Spain.

A variety of small craft were soon invented, adapted to the wants and means of different nations. To the *rates*, were added bulwarks of osier twigs, of which kind was the vessel of Ulysses.¶ The *monoxyla* were

* The catamaran, consists simply of a few logs lashed together, and so arranged, that the middle ones project further ahead than those at the outside. In the centre one, is stepped the mast, to which is attached a shoulder-of-mutton sail. With a slight framework for a seat, and a basket, securely lashed, to hold his prey, the South American fisherman ventures far out of sight of land, and safely braves the roughest waves. These kind of craft hold their wind well and sail very fast.

† Lib. XVI.

‡ Lib. VII., chap 56.

§ Antiquitatæ Expliquee, Lib. VII. Rates primum et antiquissimum genus navigii e rudibus lignis asseribusque consertum.

|| Scheffer.

¶ Odyssey, Lib. V.

doubled, upon the plan of the double canoes, used by the aborigines* of some parts of the continent. The East Indians, constructed boats of canes, called *canna*, from which, it has been suggested, that the word canoe has been derived. The hollow cane* was split in two, of a sufficient length; a bow and stern fitted to the bamboo trough, thus made, of cloth, covered with wax and gum, and sometimes, probably, as is now practiced, by the application of pieces of the same cane, the section of which is made obliquely to the axis, and, when fitted and secured, presents a bow and stern rising at an angle of about forty-five degrees. These boats were frequently constructed of several canes, and in such a manner, that they could readily be taken to pieces and put together again, as Scheffer gathers from the assertions of Diodorus, and the agreement with them of the words of Quintius Curtius, who says: "He (Alexander) gave orders to advance to the Indus, and to construct vessels to carry his army over to the other side. Those who were intrusted with the execution of this order, knowing that several rivers would be encountered, built their boats in such a way that they could be transported by being taken to pieces, and afterwards put together again when occasion required."

Another kind of boats, was the *sabœan*, made of hides. Cæsar found them among the ancient Britons, where they were constructed with a light keel of wood and a framework of reeds, over which the hides were stretched. They were also used in other countries, and corresponded nearly to the skin skiffs of the present Kamschatkians, and other inhabitants of the frigid zone, with the exception, that the latter have frequently ribs of whalebone, and are furnished with a kind of diaphragm, or skin midriff, which, when drawn closely about the person of the boatman, decks in his skiff from the waves. This kind of boat, made of willow and skin, are mentioned by Lucan:

"The bending willow into barks they twine,
Then line the work with skins of slaughtered kine;
Such are the floats Venetian fishers know,
Where, in dull marshes, stands the settling Po;
Or such, to neighboring Gaul, allured by gain,
The nobler Britons cross the swelling main;
Like these, when fruitful Egypt lies afloat,
The Memphian artist builds his reedy boat."

Row's LUCAN.

A peculiar kind of hide boat, were the *plicatiles*, so called, because they could be folded up. They were used by the Ethiopians, or inhabitants of Nubia and Abyssinia, who, when they visited Egypt, came in their *plicatiles* as far as the cataracts of the Nile, when they folded them up, carried them round upon their shoulders and again launched them upon the surface of the stream. These boats are sometimes made of leather, or india-rubber cloth, for particular purposes in the present day. A boat,

* "Diodorus takes notice of these boats, but does not altogether agree with other authors. He says, in India there is a great quantity of canes, so thick, that a man can hardly embrace one of them with both arms. Of these, they make boats which are never attacked by the worms, and last a long time. But when this author says that a man can scarce clasp one with both arms, he seems far from intimating that one was large enough to make two boats, but rather, that several were employed to make one boat."—MONTFAUCON. The learned antiquary, whose words are here quoted, probably little knew how small a craft could be used. Pliny says, these boats were able to carry three men. Now a canoe, made from a cane of a sufficient length, and six feet in circumference, would be abundantly able to do that.

somewhat after this fashion, is described by Herodotus.* He says, that, "the most curious thing that he saw in Babylonia, next to the great city itself, were the boats which came down the Euphrates bearing the produce of Armenia. They were constructed with willows, and on the outside covered with skin. Their form was round, in the shape of a shield, and without any distinction of bow or stern. They were rowed by two men, one pushing, the other pulling. Probably, they were indebted more to the current, than to their own exertions, and needed the oars only to steer clear of the rocks and shoals. Some of these boats were of a very large size, and capable of carrying a very valuable freight, of which, the principal article was generally palm-wine in casks. Into each boat was placed an ass, and into the largest ones, two or three; and upon arriving at Babylon everything was sold, even to the ribs of the boat, excepting the outside covering of hide, which was folded up, placed upon the asses and carried back, by land, to Armenia. There, a new frame was made for it, when it again descended the Euphrates."

The Egyptians used boats made of the papyrus. The broad leaves of this plant were sewn together, attached to a light keel, and gathered together at the two ends and tied. They were then coated with pitch. Montfaucon says, that this material continued to be used down to the ninth or tenth century, and that it was exported to different parts of the world: "Hence, it was, that the tyrant Firmus, boasted that he had enough of it to subsist his whole army; which passage, some have interpreted, as if the papyrus were something edible, whereas, it means, as Casaubon says, no more than that he had enough, when sold, to furnish him with money for the subsistence of his army." It may be doubted, from this, whether Montfaucon intends to intimate that the papyrus was used so late in the construction of boats, and still more, that it was exported to other countries for that purpose. At any rate, its consumption in that way must have been small, in comparison with its more important use in the manufacture of paper. Plutarch relates, that the crocodiles of the Nile made the navigation of that stream, in other kinds of small craft, exceedingly dangerous, but that they never troubled the boats made of papyrus; the reason of which was, according to the traditions of the Egyptians, that the goddess Isis had used them in some of her voyagings, and had thus rendered them sacred in the eyes of those scrupulous monsters.

Strabo, Diodorus and Pliny, all speak of boats made from the shells of tortoises. They are authors of undoubted veracity, and we must credit the fact, although we are not furnished with any very definite idea of the manner in which they were built. The sea-turtle is sometimes found of a sufficient size to make a small boat from his single shell, but the Egyptians could have known nothing of such monsters. They must have used the land-tortoise, and, most probably, had the art of welding together pieces of shell by means of heat.

Boats were also made of baked clay. These were attributed to the Agathyrsi, a people of Egypt, who are described as rowing their earthen vessels with painted oars. Pontanus, as quoted by Scheffer, mentions boats made of bark. They were used by the Pitzorienses, a people of India, and were, it is probable, similar in their construction to the birchen canoes of our aborigines.

* Clio, paragraph 94.

Thus, many different kinds of boats, composed of a great variety of materials, were known to the earliest nations of antiquity. Most of them, probably, were invented long before the art of building a boat entirely of pieces of wood was understood. This, however, must have been discovered at a very early date, and have rapidly developed itself, in both rowing and sailing vessels of a large size. The framed wooden boats, must also have soon superseded all other kinds, except where the nature of other materials was best adapted to the exigencies of the navigation, or where the timber or skill was wanting to construct them, as in the plectiles of the Ethiopians, the Sabæan boats of the Venetian fishermen, or the canna of the East Indies. They were also used in the construction of bridges, both permanent and temporary. Every one is familiar with the account of the celebrated bridge of Xerxes, across the Hellespont. The Romans had floating, or boat bridges, over the streams in some parts of their numerous provinces; and an important part of the material of their armies was a train of wagons, bearing boats, with which a temporary bridge could be rapidly formed. This invention, which seems for a good many centuries to have been lost or neglected, was justly deemed, upon its revival, as one of the most useful improvements in military art.

For boats, or undecked vessels, of a small size, the ancients had a variety of names. The *cymba*, a small boat invented by the Phœnicians; the *celox*, of the Rhodians; the *lembus* and the *myaparo*.

Those small boats which were rowed with oars, were termed *celoces*; while those in which sculls, pulled by one man, were used, were named *ampheres*. Of such, was Charon's boat, the ferryman of the Styx. Boats were also named frequently from the number of oars, as, for instance, the boats of two oars, were sometimes called *biremes*; of three, *triremes*; a fact, which must be recollected, to avoid the confounding of these small boats with those large ships, which afterwards, and more generally, derived the same names from the number of ranks or banks of oars with which they were furnished.

The origin of ships or large vessels, constructed by framing together pieces of timber and planks, is involved in almost as much uncertainty as that of the smaller craft of which we have been speaking. The reasonable supposition is, that several nations invented, at a very early date, independently of each other, ships, differing merely in some particulars as to model, size, &c., and that hence has arisen the discrepancy in the accounts of ancient writers. Some say, that Semiramis was the first to use galleys in her invasion of India. The circumstances of the invasion, supposing the accounts of it to be authentic in other particulars, show, however, that the vessels that she employed were nothing but boats, and differed very much from the vessels afterwards in use. By the Egyptians, the invention of the galley was attributed to Sesostris; by some, it is ascribed to Atlas; by others, to Jason; and, by others, with still greater probability, to the Phœnicians.

The first general division of the ships of the ancients, was into *naves onerariæ*, and *naves longæ*; the one for carrying merchandise, the other for the purposes of war. The *naves onerariæ*, being intended only as ships of burden, had a much greater breadth of beam, in proportion to their length, and a much rounder bottom, with, consequently, an increased capacity for stowage. Their crews were, of course, smaller, and they depended generally upon their sails. A proportion of such ships, formed

a very essential part of the ancient fleets, which they invariably accompanied upon any distant expedition as storeships, bearing provisions, instruments and munitions of war. They were frequently called round ships, from their shape. They are so called in Athenæus, from whom Montfaucon quotes a witticism of a certain joker named Stratonicus, who, when asked which ships, the long or round, he thought the safest, replied "those which come safe to land."

The *naves longæ* were, at first, a kind of galley, of a single bank or row of oars. Such was the Argo, the ship in which Jason and his companions performed their expedition in search of the golden fleece. It is said that this vessel took her name from the Phœnician word *Arco*, signifying long, which was generally applied by that maritime nation to their *naves longæ*, in contradistinction to the *Gaulus* or round vessel.* Jason's ship, was thus called Arco or Arco Navis, from being the first ship of the kind in use among the Greeks. She was at least sixty-five feet in length, and manned by fifty-four Argonautæ, all of whom are supposed to have been rowers. The poet, Serenus, laughs at Hercules, and calls him *semiremex*, half oarsman or "lubber," for his awkward manner of handling his oars; and we know that there were as many oars as men, or even more, if the allusion of Theocritus to thirty *scalmi* or tholepins, on a side, is correct. Generally, the Argo is styled, by ancient writers, a *pentecontorus*, or vessel of fifty oars.

The *naves longæ*, with one rank of oars, were generally constructed without any deck, or, at most, with only small stages in the bow and stern, upon which the soldiers were stationed in battle. These vessels were called from this circumstance, *aphractæ* by the Greeks, and *apertæ* by the Romans, to distinguish them from the *cataphractæ* or closely decked ships. For a long time, the *aphractæ* were the only ship in use, as the *cataphractæ* were not invented until some time afterwards. These last, however, superseded the *apertæ* for the purposes of war, and the latter were devoted almost entirely to piracy, or as sentinels, couriers and tenders of the fleets. One class of them were called *actuariæ*, and a smaller size, *actuariolæ*. These varied in size, from twenty to forty oars, and were seldom or never furnished with *rostra* or beaks.

Some time later, a revolution seems to have taken place in the construction and adaptation of vessels for military purposes, somewhat similar to that which has occurred in modern times. From the time that the Atlantic became the scene of strife between contending powers, in the commencement of the fifteenth century, the object of the marine architects, was, to increase the size of their ships to the utmost possible extent, until it was proved, by repeated and severe experiments, that there was a limit, beyond which, it was useless and dangerous to venture. The huge three and four-deckers, with their high towering stern and forecastles, of the Spanish navy, were found unable to cope with the smaller, lighter and more manageable vessels of the English. In like manner, the *cataphractæ* of the ancients, which gradually grew to an enormous size, were, at length, found to have exceeded their proper limits. They were successfully encountered by a smaller class, as at the battle of Actæum; and the *cataphractæ* of five, six and seven ranks of oars, were, at length, almost entirely displaced by the *liburnæ*, of only one. The term *liburnæ*,

* Bochart's Geog., Lib. II., chap. 2.

is differently applied by different writers. By some it is given to a small boat used by the Liburni, a people of Illyria, and rowed with only two oars. It is evident, that this craft could be of no very great service in a naval fight.* It is probable that the Liburnian galleys, that did Augustus such good service, were mostly half-decked, of considerable size, and furnished with rostra, with which, by reason of their lightness, and superior manageability, they were more than a match for the heavy and unwieldy triremes and quadriremes of Antony and Cleopatra. When first adopted by the Romans, as vessels of war, their size seldom exceeded that of a single bank of oars;† but soon they began to make them of two, and even three ranks, and the term *liburnæ* was generally used for all men of war that did not exceed these rates. The huge vessels were, however, as we have said, generally laid aside. Even the triremes were but very seldom used; and, except for the purposes of show and ostentation, the *liburnæ*, of one and two banks, or *ordines*, were found to be the most desirable, and the only ones with which, in later days, the line-of-battle could be advantageously formed. They seem, by all accounts, to have been, not only smaller, but more compact, stronger and swifter, than the old vessels, and of nearly the same mould as the galleys of the Venetians, Genoese, French and other nations of the Mediterranean.

Before this revolution in the construction of ships of war, by which the *liburnæ* came into general use, the ancients rated and named their ships according to the number of ordines or banks of oars. There was the *majoris* and *minoris formæ*, or first and second class. In the second class or form, were included the *uniremes*, of one bank, the *biremes*, *triremes* and *quadriremes*, of two, three and four banks, or *ordines remorum*. In the first class, were the higher ordines, as the *quinquiremes*, &c.‡ Among the Greeks, the number of ordines were, at last, increased to an almost incredible extent. They had ships of ten, fifteen, twenty, and, in some instances, even thirty and forty banks of oars. Alexander built one of twelve, Ptolemy Soter, one of fifteen; and Plutarch, in his life of Demetrius, describes one built by that prince of thirty banks. Ptolemy Philadelphus extended the number to forty; and Ptolemy Philopater is said to have built a huge unwieldy craft of fifty rows of oars.

The *biremes*, it is asserted by Pliny, were first invented about three hundred years after the Trojan war by the Erythræ. The *triremes* were invented, according to Thucydides, by Amenocles, a ship-builder of Corinth, who built four of that class of vessels for the Samians. To Arisotle, of Carthage, and Nesichton, of Salamis, is attributed the honor of constructing the first *quadriremes* and *quinquiremes*. The Athenians, afterwards so powerful at sea, were, for a long time, far behind several other states in naval affairs. It was not, says Thucydides, until later times, when they had a war with the *Æginetæ*, and were also expecting an attack from the Persians, that, persuaded by Themistocles, they built those ships with which they so successfully opposed the barbarians.

In those vessels of more than one bank of oars, the rowers were divi-

* They were used, however, as scout-boats, and for the purpose of communicating between the vessels of the fleet. Augustus went through his fleet in one of these skiffs, before the battle of Acteum commenced, exhorting and encouraging his men.

† Vegetus, cited by Montfaucon.

‡ By the Greeks, these vessels were called *moneres*, or one bank; *dieres*, *trieres*, *penteres*, *hepteres*, &c., two, three, five, or seven banks, &c.

ded into classes. The lowest, or those that sat next to the water, and rowed with the shortest oars, were called *Thalamites*, the middle rank were termed *Zygites*, and those upon the upper deck *Thranites*. These last received higher pay, in consequence of the greater labor required in moving the longer and heavier oars of the highest bank; and hence has been deduced a strong argument in favor of the opinion, that, in the ancient vessels, only one man was stationed at an oar: for, if several men were stationed at each of the upper oars, in proportion to its weight, their labor could not have been considered harder than that of the *Thalamites*, who, we know, had each one his oar, and who would, therefore, have been deserving of equal pay. This is one of the arguments of Scheffer, who, in conjunction with Scaliger and some other learned antiquaries, maintained this opinion. The opposite side of the question, seems, however, to have been successfully espoused by Fabreti, who shows the absurdity of supposing that an oar of fifty feet in length could be managed by a single man. We must not forget, however, the expedient, that we know, in some instances, was resorted to, of running lead into the handles of the oars, whereby they might have been better and more easily balanced; but even allowing them such an aid, the objection of Fabreti has no little force. He shows, too, that a quotation from Silius Italicus, upon which Scheffer relies, has no application to the question; and he might, says Montfaucon, have gone still further, and have shown that the very words of Silius convey the idea that there were more men than oars. Fabreti, also, produces a very conclusive passage from the *Tactics* of Leo, to the effect, that, in a vessel of two banks, there ought to be fifty men at the lower row, and one hundred and fifty men at the upper, all armed for fighting. Montfaucon, after enumerating Scheffer's and Fabreti's arguments, takes a middle ground, which is, most probably, nearest the truth. He says: "As to my opinion, I believe, that, in the biremes and triremes, in the higher and lower ranks, there was but one man to an oar; but as to the quadriremes and quinquiremes, I do not dare to say whether there was more than one man to an oar or not. But this much, we must allow, it is hard to conceive how one man, in the higher ranks of the largest vessels, could move one of those big oars by himself." It is not at all improbable that a great diversity of practice, in this particular, obtained among the ancients, not only as respected different classes of ships, but also in vessels of the same rate, that, while in the largest ships the *Thranitæ* were generally superior, in numbers, to the *Thalamitæ*, in vessels of an inferior class they were sometimes superior and sometimes equal.

Another question,* equally obscure, and which has been debated at still greater length, is, as to the arrangement of the different banks of oars, especially in vessels of the highest class. Some maintain, that the oars were all in one tier or deck. These found their opinion upon the apparent impossibility of managing the higher oars, if the ordines are supposed

* It might be supposed that many obscure questions, in relation to ancient shipping, would be solved by the images of vessels which have been left to us. But the difficulty is, that most of the plates that the antiquarians have given us, are from the reliefs of coins and triumphal monuments—as the column of Trajan, at Rome, where all the material parts are sacrificed to the personal. Not the slightest attention is paid to proportion. The men on board of a ship, are sometimes, apparently, as large as the ship itself; and are represented as rowing with oars half as long as their arms.

to be one over the other, and also upon the assertion of an old commentator upon Aristophanes, who says that the *Thranitæ*, are those who row in the stern; the *Zygitæ*, in the middle; and the *Thalamitæ*, in the prow. To these are opposed Scaliger, Scheffer, Palmerius, Fabreti and others, who show that this commentator could have known nothing of the subject, inasmuch as he must have lived at a time when the old ships of several banks had been completely superseded by the *liburnæ*. Zosimus, the historian of the Greek emperors, expressly says, that, in his day, the beginning of the fifth century, no triremes had been seen for a long time; and the Scoliastis, supposed to have written at a still later date. Besides, his testimony is refuted by the assertion of a much earlier commentator upon the same poet, who clearly arranges the rowers in three ranks from below upward. But it needs no words to expose the ignorance of the latter writer, not only of the ancient vessels, but even of those of his own time. No vessel ever had oars placed directly in the bow and stern; and writers have accumulated abundance of testimony to the fact, that the ordines were arranged one above the other. Two passages, from the number that have been collected, will be sufficiently conclusive.

Silius Italicus speaks of a vessel that took fire upon the upper deck, where it raged for some time, driving the men away from their oars, before the *Thalamitæ*, or rowers of the lower rank, were informed of it.

On the other hand, Appian describes a case, in which one ship was run into by the rostra of another, and broken down to the keel; when, the water rushing in, drowned the *Thalamitæ*, while the *Thranitæ* saved themselves by swimming. In the one instance, the upper rowers desert their oars while the lower ranks are yet ignorant of the fire; and, in the other, the lower rowers are drowned before they can get on deck, while those in the higher ranks escape. These, and numerous other clear and distinct passages, clearly establish, although they are very far from explaining the fact, that the ancients had ships in which the rowers were divided into numerous banks, one higher than the other.

The question, then, occurs, what was the relative position of the men composing the ordines? To this, no perfectly satisfactory answer has as yet been given. It has been maintained, that the rowers were placed directly over each other; but such an arrangement is evidently impossible. We cannot suppose, at the least, less than three feet and a half of space between each man, which would elevate the highest oars of a vessel, of sixteen banks, more than fifty-six feet above the surface of the water; and, in the huge craft of Ptolemy Philopater, more than one hundred and seventy feet. That arrangement, is also contrary to the images of triremes and biremes, which have been preserved, where the oars are clearly placed obliquely or checkerwise. This last, was, undoubtedly, the general arrangement; but it is nevertheless attended with many, and almost insuperable objections, when applied to some of the larger ships. It has been supposed that, in such cases, there were but few men in the lower bank, leaving a large interval or space between each rower; and that, between them, and almost on the same level, came the second bank, the oars increasing in number, the higher the bank. It is impossible to conceive any advantage in this arrangement, as it is well understood, that the lower the oar, the more effectually is its power applied; and the only reason we can suppose for it, is a foolish emulation as to the number of banks. That such monstrous craft were intended more for show than

use, we have the evidence of Plutarch, who says, that Ptolemy's great ship could not be moved without great difficulty and danger, and was nearly as stationary as a structure on land. Hiero's great ship, of twenty oars, was towed to Alexandria, where she was publicly moored as a spectacle; and a large ship of sixteen banks, built by Philip, of Macedon, is said, by Livy, to have been nearly useless and unmanageable from her bulk.

The learned Vossius, who wrote a dissertation upon the construction of the triremes and liburnæ, has given a very different, and certainly a very ingenious solution of this difficulty. He says, that there never were any ships of more than seven banks, or ordines remorum; and, in order to make this out, he goes into a long and minute calculation of the proportions and parts of Ptolemy's ship. He says, it is evident, that the men must have been placed in oblique parallelograms; that, in the lowest rank or ordo, there was but one man to an oar; but that, as they increased in height, that part of the oar within board, measuring from the *scalmus* or tholepin, increased in length, and to it was stationed a greater number of rowers. The second ordo, had two men; the third, four; the fourth, six; the fifth, eight; the sixth, ten. These men were disposed upon *juga* or benches, to which the term *ordines*, Vossius contends, has reference, and not to the number of tiers or banks. These *juga* ascended with a double obliquity, both lengthwise and in-board, towards what was called the *forum* of the ship. Having thus disposed of thirty-one ordines, upon six benches, Vossius places ten more men to each oar of another row, the *scalmi*, which were no higher than those of the sixth, but were placed further out upon the *traustra* or beams that ran across the vessel and projected from the sides. Forty-one ordines are thus accounted for, to every seven oars, counting from below upward. Now, we know, that, in each row, reckoning lengthwise, there were fifty oars, which, multiplied by seven, gives three hundred and fifty a side, or seven hundred in all; and, if to every seven oars, there were forty-one men, the whole number required four thousand one hundred, which corresponds to the number as stated by Athenæus.

After all, however, the question may be considered of but very little interest or importance, inasmuch as it relates only to those huge products of despotic fancy, called by the ancients, Cyclades, from the resemblance to islands, and which were evidently neither adapted or intended for service at sea. In the vessels in ordinary use, we have sufficient evidence to warrant the belief, that their oars were always arranged obliquely or checkerwise—the rowers of the second rank, sitting a little above, and between the rowers of the first; and that, in the uniremes and biremes, there was but one man to an oar; in the triremes, sometimes two; and, in the higher banks of the quadriremes, quinquiremes, &c., always two or more.

The materials used by the ancients in ship-building, were, in general, nearly similar to those employed in the present day. Of the woods, the *Ilex*, a species of oak; the *ornus*, or ash; the wood of Dodona, by some, supposed to be the beech, and by others, with more probability, a kind of oak; the pinus, the alnus and the cedar, were in most repute. Tree-nails, or pegs of wood, were used for fastening on the planks, mixed with a due proportion of iron, or, what was esteemed preferable, brazen bolts. The express testimony of Vegetius, in favor of brass over iron, has been

frequently cited; and we are informed that Hiero, of Syracuse, built a ship of the largest size, which was brass-fastened throughout. For caulking, *stuppa* or tow was commonly employed, but sometimes a kind of rush called *Spartum*;* the seams were then payed with wax, and sometimes with rosin and pitch. This wax was frequently applied in a heated state to the whole surface; and when ornamental painting was employed, the colors were mixed with wax, and after being burnt in, (a mode of painting, called by the Greeks *encaustic*,) were varnished and polished, and rendered capable of withstanding the effects of air and moisture for a long time. The sails were made sometimes of matting, like the sails of the modern Chinese junks. This kind of sail was, however, most probably confined to the Egyptian and Venetian vessels in the Red sea and Indian ocean. In the Mediterranean, the sails were made sometimes of linen, and sometimes of silk, and, in some instances of leather and hides.

We know from the words of Ezekiel, that luxury and prodigality in the construction and fitting up of ships had made great progress at a very early date. "Take up a lamentation for Tyrus," said the Lord to his prophet, "and say unto that merchant of the people for many isles, thy builders have perfected thy beauty. They have made all thy ship-boards (deck-planks) of fir-trees of Senir: they have taken cedars from Lebanon to make masts for thee. Of the oaks of Bashan have they made thine oars; the company of the Ashurites have made thy benches of ivory, brought out of the isle of Chittim. Fine linen with brodered work from Egypt was that which thou spreadest forth to be thy sail; blue and purple from the isles of Elishah was that which covered thee. The inhabitants of Zidon and Arvad were thy mariners: thy wise men, oh Tyrus, that were in thee, were thy pilots. The ancients of Gebal and the wise men thereof were in thee thy caulkers: all the ships of the sea with their mariners were in thee to occupy thy merchandise."

The fir-trees of Senir must have answered very well for the decks, but it may be questioned whether the oaks of Bashan were the most appropriate for oars. The oak, it is hardly probable, was the tree intended by the prophet. The benches of ivory, Newcome supposes to have been seats in the cabins of the royal galleys. Lowth, however, much more reasonably maintains, that they were the benches upon which were seated the rowers; and this interpretation gives a much better idea of Tyrian extravagance, and is fully warranted by what we know of other instances of similar prodigality. The celebrated visit of Cleopatra to Antony, is familiar to all. In a galley gilt all over, beneath purple sails, and a canopy of cloth of gold, the voluptuous queen, with her attendant beauties of both sexes, reclined, enjoying the fragrance of the most precious incense which threw its perfume far over the sea, and listening to the strains of the softest music re-echoing from the neighboring hills, and blending, in the sweetest harmony, with the splashing of her silver oars.

Her predecessor, however, Ptolemy Philopater, seems to have far excelled all other potentates, with the exception, perhaps, of Hiero, king of Syracuse, in the ostentation of ship-building. The dimensions of his great ship, as given by Athenæus, are truly astonishing.* In breadth,

* This is the Spanish broom, which still grows so extensively in the province of Murcia. The plains around Carthage, were formerly called *Campus Spartarius*, from this production.

† Montfaucon.

she was fifty-seven feet, or about the size of our largest ships of war; in length, she was four hundred and twenty feet, or full twice as long as the heaviest two-decker; and seventy-nine feet in height, from the water to the top of the *acrostolecon* or highest ornament of the stern. Four thousand men propelled this huge mass by means of oars, the longest of which was fifty-seven feet in length; and which, notwithstanding their size and weight, were, it is said, rendered manageable by lead run into the handles. These oars were beautifully ornamented with paintings, and the most elaborate carvings of vine and ivy leaves. Two prows, seven rostra or beaks, and colossal figures of animals, at the head and stern, aided in exciting the admiration of the spectators. Besides her rowers, she carried four hundred sailors and two thousand eight hundred and fifty soldiers. The ordinary way of launching vessels, which was to drag and push them by main strength into the water, would not answer in her case, and they had to construct a machine for the purpose, in which was employed as much timber as would build fifty large ships. By the help of this, she was forced into the stream, amid the flourish of trumpets and the acclamations of the people, and to the great delight, no doubt, of the royal parricide, matricide, fratricide and debauchee.

Not content with this specimen of useless extravagance, the same Ptolemy resolved to build another vessel of nearly equal size for the Nile. Of this ship, Montfaucon and other antiquaries, give us, from Athenæus, a particular, although not always a very clear account. She was called *Thalamegus*, from being provided with bed-rooms, and was, in length, one hundred and twenty-five paces; in breadth, forty-five feet; and, in height, including a kind of tent constructed upon deck, sixty feet. She had a double prow and double stern, and was surrounded on the inside by a gallery of two stories, the lower, supported by pillars like a peristyle, the upper enclosed, and furnished with windows on both sides. Communicating with this gallery, in the bow, was a kind of porch beautifully ornamented with ivory and precious woods. Connected with this porch, was a covered ante-chamber, with windows opening to the left and right, and a passage opening into the great hall. In this apartment was exhibited the height of luxury. The columns surrounding the room, were of cypress wood, with Corinthian capitals of ivory and gold. The architrave was all gold, and the frieze elaborately ornamented with numerous figures in ivory. The doors, twenty in number, were richly inlaid with precious woods and metals, and also adorned with sculptures in ivory, which were not, however, so much remarkable for their elegance as for their number. Upon the ceiling, composed of panels of cypress, were profusely displayed sculptures, covered with gold. Adjoining this hall was a bed-chamber, with seven beds; and beyond that, separated by a narrow passage, was an apartment, equally rich with the first, for the women. Here was a dining-room capable of holding nine couches, ornamented in the most costly style, and communicating with another bed-chamber for five beds. All these rooms, passages and galleries, were upon the lower deck. From this, a flight of stairs led up to the second gallery, where there were other and still more sumptuous apartments. The first was a dining-room, with five tables, adjoining which, was a magnificent arched temple of Venus, in which stood a marble statue of that goddess. Opposite this, was another saloon adorned with columns of Indian stone. Farther towards the bow, was a noble hall dedicated to Bacchus. Symbolical

sculptures and paintings loaded the entablature, which rested upon the gilded capitals of Corinthian columns. To the right, there was a cave filled with Mosaic work, and the images of the Ptolemy family sculptured in a kind of stone called *lychnites*. Above the principal room of this story, there was another dining saloon, covered by a kind of tent held together by cords, and near to which was a large open space for air and exercise. From this place, a winding flight of stairs went up to a covered gallery, and to a dining-room of nine tables. Round this, were placed fluted columns, the flutings being alternately white and black, with capitals, adorned with roses and the flowers of the lotus and palm. Numerous other rich and convenient apartments, served to accommodate the crowd with which she was peopled.

The same authority, gives account of a wonderful vessel built by Hiero, king of Syracuse, which, as we have had occasion several times to allude to it, we will here shortly describe. Ambitious of renown, Hiero resolved to build a ship which should far eclipse the fame of the machine of Diocledes, the funeral pile of Timæus, the lamp of Polycletus, or the chariot of Hieronymus. For this purpose, he gave orders to collect materials and men, and appointed Archias, of Corinth, as master-builder. Three hundred ship-carpenters, besides other artificers, were employed. From Mount *Ætna* was obtained timber, sufficient to have built sixty large triremes, and from Italy and Sicily, was collected a vast quantity of wood for decks, tree-nails, &c. The masts were rather more difficult to obtain, particularly the mainmast; but at last, however, a tree was found in the mountains of Bruttiorun, in the south of Italy, large enough for the purpose. The ship was sufficiently finished in six months for launching, which was effected by means of a machine invented by the celebrated Archimedes. She was completely copper-fastened throughout. Many of her bolts, weighing ten pounds and upwards, were inserted in holes bored by *trebræ* or augurs, and prevented from slipping or drawing by wrapping them in waxed cloth and fastening them with lead. Three grand galleries or saloons, ran fore and aft the ship, from which branched off numberless apartments. In the lower, was the hatchway that led to the hold; in the middle, branching off at right and left, were thirty rooms, in each of which were four beds; in the upper story, there was a gymnasium, and places for walking and exercise. There were also extensive gardens, watered by leaden tubes, and shaded by arbors of ivy and vine. The ceilings, windows and doors, of all the rooms, were ornamented with the most exquisite and elaborate art. One saloon was dedicated to Venus. It was furnished with three beds, and paved with agate and the most costly stones that could be found in Sicily. In fact, all the apartments were paved in Mosaic, and among the subjects represented in this manner, were a complete series of scenes from the *Iliad* of Homer. Next to the temple of Venus, came a room called the *scholastericon*, in which was an extensive and valuable library. The walls and windows of this room, were made of carved box-wood. The bathing-room contained three beds, three large-kettles of brass, and a bathing-tub of one single tauromentian stone. Besides all these, and the innumerable rooms for the accommodation of the sailors and soldiers, there were on each side of the ship ten stables, with places for the provision of the horses and for the accommodation of the horsemen and grooms. In the bow, there was an immense reservoir of water, and near it a large fish-tank made of planks and sheets

of lead. On the outside of the ship, supported by timbers projecting from the side, were placed piles of wood, ovens, mills for grinding corn and other conveniences, and all round the bulwarks were placed, at equal distances, huge statues of Atlas, by which was supported the upper deck. Innumerable paintings adorned every part, aided by the richest sculpture and gilding. Eight lofty towers, with battlements, from which missiles could be thrown at an enemy, added to the imposing, but, according to our notions, not very ship-shape appearance of this floating city. Various machines, one of which, invented by Archimedes, could throw a stone weighing three hundred pounds a distance of two hundred and fifty paces, protected the bulwarks, while long timbers, suspended in chains of brass, heavy iron crows to grapple the enemy and machines in the tops, loaded with stones and balls of lead, completed her terrible defences. Twelve hundred soldiers manned the sides, besides an equal number stationed in-board, around the masts and in the tops, and the sailors and rowers who moved the oars of her twenty banks. From the great depth of hold, it was necessary to invent a new machine for drawing off the water. This was effected by Archimedes, by means of an apparatus which, most probably, was the *cochlion*, commonly called Archimedes screw, and generally attributed to that illustrious engineer.

When completed, Hiero found that there was no port in Sicily where she could lie in security, and he resolved to make a present of her to Ptolemy. She was accordingly towed to Alexandria, accompanied by a whole fleet of vessels laden with corn and fish, and moored in that port, from whence, it is supposed, that she was never afterwards removed. But, although useless to her royal constructor, or to the Egyptian king, she proved of no little service to an Athenian poet named Archimelus, who composed some verses in honor of the ship and her builder. Hiero sent him in return six thousand *sextarii* of grain.

A very important part of an ancient ship of war, was the *rostrum*, which, it is said, was invented by Aristo, a Corinthian, but which, it is most probable, he merely shortened and placed lower down. Acting upon his advice, the Syracusians were enabled to gain a signal advantage over the Athenians. Some ships were furnished with more than one rostrum. Ptolemy's big ship, we are informed, had seven. Generally, however, there was but one, and it consisted of a stout timber or timbers, projecting directly from the bow, upon a level with the surface of the water or a little below. It was always well fortified with iron or brass, and was esteemed one of the most essential and powerful means of offence. One of the chief objects in all naval battles, was to pierce, with these beaks, the sides of the enemy's vessel. One blow, fairly and fortunately given, frequently sank a vessel instantaneously, as in the instance we have mentioned, where the water rushed in with so much rapidity that many of the rowers were drowned; or, as in the celebrated battle of Salamis, when, as Herodotus relates, Queen Artemisia, who fought on the side of the Persians, finding herself pursued by a Grecian ship, resorted to a curious stratagem to escape. Suddenly tacking ship, she rushed upon one of the Persian galleys,* and sunk it with one blow. The Athenians supposed

* The ship she destroyed was a Calyndian, and had on board Damasithymus, a Calyndian prince.

from this, that her ship was either a Grecian vessel, or one that had deserted from the Persians.*

Another powerful means of offence, were the towers, of which, as we have seen in the case of Hiero's big ship, there were as many as eight. Generally, however, there were either two or four. As they took up a good deal of room, and interfered much with the ordinary working of the vessel, they were in general only temporary, and were so constructed as to be taken to pieces and put together again as occasion required. From these towers, were projected missiles of all kinds—stones, darts, balls of lead and burning arrows, covered with tow, and smeared with pitch, oil and other combustible substances.

As our space will not permit us to go very minutely into this branch of the subject, we will merely mention one other offensive weapon—the *asser*—which was considered particularly effective. It was, according to the Vegetius, a beam, armed with iron at both ends, and slung like a yard in the middle to the mast, and when whirled about, swept the enemy from their decks, and sometimes even stove in the ship. How such a machine could be conveniently used, and without about as much danger to friends as foes, it is hard to conceive; and we suspect, that, despite the opinions of the ancients, it was but a clumsy affair. A variety of inflammable compositions were made use of with considerable effect. They were projected from tubes to a considerable distance, but whether by their own expansion or by an extraneous force does not so clearly appear.

Of the terms applied to the spars, rigging, &c., it would be easy to collect a long list, especially from the *Antiquiti Romanorum*, *Rossini*; but in general their meaning is so uncertain that it would not be worth the space. *Funes*, was the common term for all the ropes; and of these, the *rudentes* appear to have been the lifts, the *pedes* the sheets, the *cerunchus* a brace, and the *protones* the shrouds, which ran up and were secured just below the *corbes* or tops. The *anchoralia* were cables, to which were fastened the anchors of stone or wood, with lead run into them, or baskets filled with pebbles, and later, of iron, with one and two flukes, and of a shape nearly resembling those in use at the present day. It is a little curious, that, what is justly considered one of the greatest improvements in ground-tackle, the introduction of chain cables, should be as old as the times of Cæsar, who takes notice of them among the Venetians.† But thus it is with many of our most important improvements in science. A full history of ancient art would probably show that what we call inventions, are frequently but rediscoveries of what was well known to the artists and mechanics of Greece and Rome. How much might we, perhaps, learn, as to the application of the mechanical powers, if we knew precisely the construction of the machines which raised to their lofty sites the massive stones of the pyramids, or of that wonderful combination of machinery, invented by Archimedes, by which, one man was able to project into her proper element the largest ship with safety and ease.

* "Artemisia, thus, not only saved herself, but won great favor from Xerxes: for, as she was bearing down for the shock, the attention of Xerxes was attracted to her prowess. He inquired if that was her ship; and was assured, by those who knew her figure-head, that it was; at the same time, he and all around him supposed that the Calyndian vessel was a Grecian. The latter was sunk so quickly, that not one of her crew survived to contradict the belief. Upon this occasion, Xerxes is said to have observed—'The men conduct themselves like women, the women like men.'—Herod., Lib. VIII., *Urania*, cap. 88.

† Fostroke, *Encyclopedia of Antiquities*.

ART. II.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

NUMBER III.

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

MR. BENTON next obtained the floor, and the subject was laid on the table to be called up at his request when ready to proceed. Owing, however, to the accident on board the Princeton, from the effects of which Mr. Benton was confined some weeks, the question did not again come under discussion till Monday, the 25th of March, when, and on the two succeeding days, he addressed the Senate, occupying altogether its attention for about five hours. As Mr. Benton takes a middle ground, and consequently presents new views of the subject, a digest of his speech, somewhat in detail, is deemed necessary, and will probably be highly acceptable to moderate men who feel opposed to the extremes of the protective and free trade doctrines.

He sets out with a contrast of the two systems of duties—that of duties imposed wholly for revenue, and that of duties imposed for the mixed objects of protection and revenue. In this contrast, he divides the half century during which our government has existed, into two periods of twenty-five years each; the tariff laws of the first period, having revenue for the object, protection being the incident; and those of the second period, having protection for the object, revenue being the incident. A striking difference, he points out in those two systems; first, in the amount of duty imposed, and next, in the mode of assessing or computing it. Before the late war, the rate of duty, whether ad valorem or specific, was always moderate, never prohibitory, and uniformly laid on with a view to the production of revenue. Since the war, duties have often been exorbitant or prohibitory, and rendered still more exorbitant by the mode of computing them on the assumption of fictitious values.

During the first of these periods, harmony and happiness prevailed among the industrial classes; the career of labor, in all its branches, was progressively prosperous; the word *tariff*, was never heard of; the incidental protection, afforded by the absolute wants of the government, was quietly and silently encouraging the growth of manufactures as fast and as steadily as could be justified by the wants of the community; and the great mass of the people was in the happy condition of Moliere's country gentleman, who had talked prose all his life time without knowing it. To those good old times, Mr. Benton wished to return; to the object and structure of those good old laws, and to the enjoyment of their happy consequences. He disapproves of the horizontal principle of the compromise act, and is not, therefore, in favor of recreating that law; he avows himself in favor of discriminating between articles of luxury and necessity, making luxuries pay highest; he is for discriminating between articles made at home, and those not made at home, putting the highest duties on the foreign rivals of our own products; but he insists on some limitation, in effect, that no duty, whether ad valorem or specific, shall exceed 30 or 32½ per cent. This discrimination and incidental protection he had always advocated. It was admitted by good free trade authorities, as was

* Debate continued from the Merchants' Magazine for May, 1844, Vol. X., No. 5, p. 421, and June, Vol. X., No. 6, p. 536.

proved by the South Carolina legislative report of 1828, by the Philadelphia free trade address of 1831, and by the Virginia democratic address of 1839. In a word, he was for returning to the system which had worked so well anterior to the late war, when the specific duties rarely exceeded a fourth, or at most a third of the value, and when the ad valorem duties ranged only from 5 to 15 per cent. The specific duty of $33\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, to which he is willing to go for protection, is, in effect, he argues, 50 per cent: for, the expenses of importation being $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, and the importing merchant's profits and charges $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, these sums, besides the $33\frac{1}{2}$ per cent duty, have to be added to the first cost abroad, before the imported article can come into our market in competition with the home-made article. Gentlemen who preceded him in debate, had pointed out the enormous and prohibitory duties imposed by the act of 1842. Here, then, the two systems stood contrasted, the old against the new; and on this issue, he and his friends are willing to go to trial before the country. Besides a good cause and good arguments, it was necessary to have the right issues, and they could not be made on the compromise act, which disregarded the necessary distinction between luxuries and necessities, and between articles competing and not competing with home industry; but the true issue was, between the old system of duties for revenue affording incidental protection, and duties for protection affording incidental revenue. "We are not," observes Mr. Benton, "to make war upon manufacturers. They were once as popular in the south as in the north, and may become so again. The abuses of the high protective system have destroyed their popularity in the south; eradicate the abuse, and they will again be popular in every part of the Union. Manufactures are among, not only the useful and ornamental, but the noblest arts of the country. Every statesman will cherish them, and honor the skill and industry which perfects them, if left free to follow his own inclination. Abuse only (the conduct of politicians and millionaire capitalists) have made them enemies. Separate the real manufacturers from these two classes, be content with ample incidental protection, and universal good-will will again attend them, greatly enlarging the extent of their market and the list of their customers."

In making the issue of the old system against the new, Mr. Benton takes three propositions as indisputable: first, that the income from customs was larger, population considered, and more free from fluctuation, under the low duty system before the war, than under the high duty since; second, the superiority of low duties over high ones, in relation to their effect upon agriculture and foreign commerce; third, the prosperity of manufactures before the late war and before protection was invented.

In arguing upon these propositions, Mr. Benton proceeds, first, in relation to revenue, to analyse the income of the treasury from customs, commencing with 1789 and coming down to 1808, when the British orders in council, the decrees of the French emperor and our own embargo, broke up our commerce and destroyed and deranged our income from that source. He leaves out the time of the embargo and of the war with Great Britain, as belonging to neither system. From 1789 to 1808, the revenue from customs shows a progressive range of from \$4,500,000 to \$16,500,000; our population keeping pace, from 4,000,000 to 7,000,000. The revenue, then, commenced with \$1,000,000 to 1,000,000 of people; and rose gradually to near \$2,500,000 for every 1,000,000 of people.

So much for the first period—now for the second: beginning with 1817, the first year under the operation of the new system, and the revenue, commencing with \$26,000,000, falls to \$10,000,000; rises again to \$30,000,000, falls to \$12,000,000, \$13,000,000, and, last year, to \$17,500,000 for a population of 18,000,000. At the present time, the ratio of revenue for population is only the same as it was, fifty years ago, while duties average more than 50 per cent, though the duties in Washington's time averaged only a fourth of that sum. The ratio is now two-fifths of what it was in Mr. Jefferson's administration, when the average of duties was only a third of what it is now. The wars of the French revolution had no influence on our revenue; they increased importations but not consumption, and duties were only paid on what remained after re-exportation. In support of his assertions, with regard to the comparative revenue of the two periods, Mr. Benton submitted the following tables:—

TABLE I.—*Low Revenue Duties, from 1791 to 1808.*

Years.	Population.	Income.	Years.	Population.	Income.
1791,.....	4,000,000	\$4,309,473	1800,.....	5,300,000	\$9,080,932
1792,.....	3,443,070	1801,.....	10,750,778
1793,.....	4,225,306	1802,.....	12,438,235
1794,.....	4,801,065	1803,.....	10,479,417
1795,.....	5,588,461	1804,.....	11,098,505
1796,.....	6,567,987	1805,.....	12,936,487
1797,.....	7,549,640	1806,.....	16,667,698
1798,.....	7,106,061	1807,.....	15,845,522
1799,.....	6,610,449	1808,.....	7,000,000	16,363,550

TABLE III.—*Showing what ought to have been received from Customs, under the Protective System, to have been equal to the receipt under the Revenue System.*TABLE II.—*High Protective Duties, from 1817 to 1843.*

Years.	Population.	Income.	Population.	Actual receipts.	Should have been
1817,.....	9,000,000	\$26,283,348	9,000,000	\$26,283,348	\$22,500,000
1818,.....	17,176,385	17,176,385
1819,.....	20,283,608	20,283,608
1820,.....	9,638,000	15,005,612	9,638,000	15,005,612	24,000,000
1821,.....	13,004,447	13,004,447	25,000,000
1822,.....	17,559,761	17,559,761
1823,.....	19,088,433	19,088,433
1824,.....	17,878,325	17,878,325
1825,.....	20,098,713	11,000,000	20,098,713	27,000,000
1826,.....	23,341,331	23,341,331
1827,.....	19,712,283	19,712,283
1828,.....	23,205,523	23,205,523
1829,.....	22,681,965	22,681,965
1830,.....	12,866,000	21,922,391	12,866,000	21,922,391	31,500,000
1831,.....	24,224,441	24,224,441
1832,.....	28,405,237	28,405,237
1833,.....	21,488,753	21,488,753
1834,.....	14,797,782	14,797,782
1835,.....	13,458,111	15,000,000	13,458,111	37,500,000
1836,.....	21,552,272	21,552,272
1837,.....	26,325,839	26,325,839
1838,.....	13,315,129	13,315,129
1839,.....	15,373,238	15,373,238
1840,.....	17,000,000	20,560,439	17,000,000	20,660,439	42,500,000
1841,.....	10,159,339	10,159,339	43,000,000
1842,.....	15,789,173	15,789,173
1843,.....	18,500,000	17,500,000	18,500,000	17,500,000	46,250,000

The third table shows that the same ratio of revenue for population which existed in Mr. Jefferson's time, would, in the present day, yield an income for the treasury of \$46,250,000. Mr. Benton says: "These tables speak a language which cannot be misunderstood, and they place in the strongest contrast the working of the two systems during the two periods; the beauty and advantages of one, and the deformities of the other, standing out in the boldest relief. In the first period, amplitude of amount, steadiness of the product and regularity of the increase, strike every beholder. In the second period, all this is reversed; confusion and madness seem to reign in our treasury. Sometimes, millions too much—then not half enough. Sometimes, surpluses to be distributed—then deficits to be supplied. Giving away, one day—begging or borrowing, the next. Always a feast, or a famine—never the right thing. Our poor treasury become a balloon—sometimes soaring above the clouds—then dragging in the mud—now bursting with distension—now collapsing from depletion."

Again, after quoting Mr. Jefferson's last annual message to Congress, showing the prosperous condition of the treasury at that time, Mr. Benton says: "Such was the working of the low duty system—ample and steady revenue—no loans, no taxes, no paper-money—\$33,500,000 of public debt paid in eight years—a surplus of \$14,000,000 left in the treasury—the result, not of lands exchanged for paper, but the regular result of steady revenue, strict economy and hard money. How different from the state of things under the high duties of the present day! Instead of paying above \$30,000,000 of public debt in eight years, we have created near \$30,000,000 in four years; instead of a surplus in the treasury, there is a deficit; loans and taxes are the order of the day; and, to crown all, we have an illegal and fraudulent issue of federal paper-money currency, issued by executive power, and sustained by bank alliances. Such is the difference between the working of the two systems after twenty-five years trial of each!"

With regard to the second proposition, that of the superiority of low duties over high duties, in relation to their effect upon agriculture and commerce, Mr. Benton takes the ground, that these two interests go together, the state of the one being an index to the other. The exports make the imports, and agriculture is at the bottom of the whole. He contrasts the exports of the two periods—that before the late war, and that succeeding the war—with a view of showing that, in consequence of the high duty system, with a population of 18,000,000, in 1842, we exported less than we did in 1807, with a population of 7,000,000, under the low duty system. In support of this, he adduces the following tables:—

TABLE OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1791 TO 1807.

Years.	Exports.	Population.	Years.	Exports.	Population.
1791,.....	\$19,012,041	4,000,000	1800,.....	\$70,971,780	5,300,000
1792,.....	20,753,096	1801,.....	94,115,925
1793,.....	26,109,572	1802,.....	72,483,160
1794,.....	33,026,233	1803,.....	55,800,033
1795,.....	47,080,472	1804,.....	77,699,074
1796,.....	67,064,097	1805,.....	95,566,021
1797,.....	56,850,206	1806,.....	101,536,963
1798,.....	61,527,097	1807,.....	108,343,150	7,000,000
1799,.....	78,665,522	1808,.....	Embargo.

TABLE OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1817 TO 1843.

Years.	Exports.	Population.	Years.	Exports.	Population.
1817,.....	\$87,671,569	9,000,000	1831,.....	\$81,310,583
1818,.....	93,281,133	1832,.....	87,176,943
1819,.....	70,142,521	1833,.....	90,140,433
1820,.....	69,691,669	3,638,000	1834,.....	104,336,973
1821,.....	64,974,382	1835,.....	121,693,577
1822,.....	72,160,281	1836,.....	128,663,040
1823,.....	74,699,030	1837,.....	117,419,373
1824,.....	75,886,657	1838,.....	108,486,616
1825,.....	99,535,388	1839,.....	121,028,416
1826,.....	77,595,322	1840,.....	133,685,946	17,000,000
1827,.....	82,324,829	1841,.....	121,851,803
1828,.....	72,264,680	1842,.....	104,691,534
1829,.....	72,358,671	1843,.....	18,500,000
1830,.....	73,840,508	12,866,000			

As there is, in making out tables of this kind, an apparent intricacy, so far as regards re-exports, it is proper to give Mr. Benton's explanation, that, in comparing the two periods, it makes no difference whether the re-exports are included or not. He says: "I fully understand the nature of our neutral position during the wars of the French revolution, and the effect which that neutrality had in promoting imports for re-exportation. We re-exported much from 1791 to 1807, and have re-exported exactly as much from 1817 to 1844! Mexico, South America and the West Indies, have opened new markets for our re-exportations; and it is a fact, proved by the custom-house returns to be the same. \$520,000,000 are, as near as I can ascertain from the most careful research, the amount of re-exportations for each period; so that, in a comparison of the foreign trade in each period, they may either be both omitted or both included, as the speaker pleases. Finding them included in the tables, I choose to use them in that way. The table of revenue has already settled the question in favor of the large amount of foreign goods which remained in the country for consumption. Duties were only paid on the amount so remaining; and a revenue of \$16,000,000 or \$17,000,000 from customs, with the low duties then paid, show that the importations for home consumption were greater then than now."

Assuming the average exports of the present day to be \$100,000,000, Mr. Benton says, take from this sum the article of cotton, now forming two-thirds of our exports, and contrast the balance with that of the exports of 1807, when cotton formed an inconsiderable item, and an immense falling off will be apparent in our exports of agricultural products. Had our exports not been checked by the high duty system, affecting imports, and had they been allowed to increase, in the ratio of the increase of population, to that increase would have been superadded the item of cotton; so that, when all this is considered, Mr. Benton says, "the decline of agriculture, and of the foreign commerce founded upon it, becomes appalling. Leaving out cotton, and the agricultural exports are less now than they were in 1808. They then amounted to \$48,000,000; they only amount to about \$100,000,000 now, of which, cotton is near two-thirds."

In relation to imports, Mr. Benton says: "After this exposition of our exports under the protective system, it is hardly necessary to trouble the Senate with any detailed view of our imports during the same period. They are obliged to partake of the same character, and such is the fact.

They have risen as high as \$190,000,000; they have fallen as low as \$64,000,000; and they have plunged and floundered backwards and forwards at all amounts between these two wide extremes. They are now at about \$100,000,000, which is less than they were at thirty years ago."

Mr. Benton next proceeds to his third proposition—that manufacturers were flourishing and prosperous before the late war; and would, under the old system of duties, have so continued. To show their standing at the close of his first period of twenty-five years, he refers to the census of 1810; in which, however, he states, many imperfections occur, which induced Congress to pass a joint resolution on the 19th of March, 1812, directing the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Gallatin, to have the returns digested and perfected. For this purpose, Mr. Gallatin employed Mr. Tench Coxe, of Philadelphia, an eminent advocate of manufactures and a writer of twenty-seven years standing. He took two years to verify his statements, and after great labor and care presented them. From his report, Mr. Benton read several passages, in which it appears that the manufactures of the United States, in 1813, with a population of 8,000,000, amounted to \$200,000,000, advancing at the rate of 20 per cent per annum. Here, says Mr. Benton, are two striking facts: that manufactures had been advancing at the rate of 20 per cent, and that they amounted to \$200,000,000 in a population of 8,000,000. Population was only advancing at the rate of 3 per cent per annum; foreign commerce was only increasing at a moderate rate; agriculture was steadily but moderately advancing; but manufactures were going ahead of all other interests, advancing 20 per cent per annum, before protection was invented and before politicians had taken it into their heads to become their patrons. Mr. Coxe, too, in his report, compares the condition of manufactures, at that time, with their condition in England at the nearest approximate period of time in which its population was at the same standard; and the result is, that England proper, in 1787, having a population of 8,500,000, had manufactures, after taking five hundred years to bring them to the perfection they then had attained, amounting to \$266,000,000. Here was a striking fact: that manufactures in the United States, under low duties, affording but incidental protection, within thirty years after the country had achieved its independence, had nearly overtaken England which required five hundred years to reach the same goal. Mr. Coxe's work further proves that cotton factories were well established and able to stand alone, in 1810, in Rhode Island, Connecticut and Massachusetts; so it was with regard to all other branches of manufactures, with respect to which, the statistical details gleaned by Mr. Coxe are most abundant. From his report, Mr. Benton quotes very copiously in support of his general proposition. Two passages, italicised, Mr. Benton thinks deserves marked attention. They are as follows:—

"The facility of retaining and steadily extending this valuable branch (the manufacturing) of the national industry, is manifested by its very early and spontaneous commencement in every county and township, and by its nearly spontaneous and costless growth, with such aids only as have not occasioned any material expense or sacrifice to agriculture or commerce, since they were chiefly incidental to necessary revenue, or resulted from our distance from the foreign consumers of our productions and manufactures of our supplies."—Page 50. *"Such are the principal facts, which occur to recollection at this time, evincing the benefits, to owners and cultivators of*

the soil, from the manufactures which have arisen unforced in the United States. Their principal protection by duties, is incidental. Those duties were imposed to raise the necessary revenue, but greatly favored the manufactures."—Page 29, Introduction.

"Such," exclaims Mr. Benton, "were the causes of the growth of manufactures among us. They grew up of themselves, without the knowledge of politicians, and without any aid from federal legislation, except the incidental assistance from the imposition of revenue duties. Their growth was natural—without injury to commerce or agriculture—without injury to revenue; and, what is not to be forgotten, not only without a word of discontent or dissatisfaction in any part of the Union, but with the absolute approbation of all." Mr. Benton then dwells upon the fact, that Mr. Coxe, looking to the future, says not one word about a tariff; the word *tariff*, is not once mentioned in his book. He speaks only of a *safe, cheap, benevolent and infallible* method of *promoting manufactures*, by the diffusion of skill, multiplication of machinery, adoption of new improvements, the application of steam-power, the education of the operatives and the cultivation of good feelings in every part of the Union; "but not a word," adds Mr. Benton, "about protective duties and minimums—not a word about the tariff."

Mr. Benton next adverts to the present condition of manufactures, taking the census of 1840 for reference. He adduces the statistics of products, contrasted with the capital invested in each branch of manufactures, with a view of showing that they are in various instances from 100 to 300 per cent—enormously beyond the yield of products from capital invested in agriculture or other pursuits. He adverts to the large semi-annual dividends, acknowledged by manufacturers under the protective system, and supposes these are not half the reality, if the reserved surpluses were brought to light. He argues, that manufacturers are in no need of such enormous protection as the act of 1842 gives them; and that, to persist longer in requiring more than 30 or 33½ per cent for a maximum, must be suicidal to themselves, as they will rouse the indignation of the mass of the people, who are already aware that they have been "most magnificently humbugged and bamboozled." Under the good old system, which he recommends a return to, the manufacturers would thrive as they did in 1810, harmony would prevail, and, above all things, *stability* would be secured to them.

Mr. Simmons, of Rhode Island, next obtained the floor, and on the 27th and 28th of March, addressed the Senate, occupying its attention for about four hours.

ART. III.—COMMERCE OF RIO JANEIRO.

RIO DE JANEIRO, the capital of Brazil, contained in 1830, according to M'Culloch, a population of about 160,000,* and is beautifully situated on the western side of a small bay, forming one of the most magnificent natural harbors in the world, both as respects capaciousness and security, for all sorts of vessels. The entrance to the harbor is marked by a remarkable hill in the form of a sugar-loaf, nine hundred feet high, close to

* It probably contains now about 200,000 inhabitants.

its west side. The city lies about four miles from the entrance to the bay. To the right, on entering, is the fort of Santa Cruz, within hail of which, all vessels going into the harbor are required to pass, in order to answer any question that may be put to them.

Vessels bound for Rio, coming from the north, should, after rounding Cape Frio, steer due west, keeping about three leagues from the coast, until they come within five or six miles of the Ilha Raza, or Flat Island, lying almost due south from the mouth of the harbor, at the distance of about three leagues. A light-house, the lantern of which is said to be elevated nearly three hundred feet above the level of the sea, was erected on this island in 1829. The light is a revolving one, finishing its revolution in three minutes, and exhibiting alternately a red and a white light. There is also a light-house in the fort of Santa Cruz, the light of which is fixed, and elevated about fifty feet above the level of the sea.* Having reached within five or six miles of the Ilha Raza, ships may enter, by day or night, the dotted line in the cut, marking the fair-way into the harbor. There are no pilots to be met with; and as there are no hidden dangers of any kind, their services are unnecessary. After answering any questions that may be put to them from Fort Santa Cruz, they proceed to Fort Vilganhon, below, or opposite to which, they must bring-to, or come to anchor, allowing no boats to come alongside, but those of the government, until they have received *pratique*, when they will be permitted to proceed to the usual place of anchorage for the merchant shipping.

The trade of Rio is extensive, and has increased rapidly of late years. It is the seat of more than one-half of the foreign commerce of Brazil; and it has, likewise, a very extensive inland trade, particularly with the provinces of Minas Geraes, Goyaz and Matto Grosso. It is the key to the mining districts, furnishing all their supplies, and receiving all their produce for shipment or other disposal. Until 1830, slaves formed one of the principal articles of import into Rio and other Brazilian ports; so many as 45,000 having been imported in one year, of which, according to M^cCulloch, Rio received the greater proportion. But according to a convention entered into with Great Britain, this inhuman, infamous traffic, should have ceased in February, 1830.

It appears by a statement made by Stockmeyer, Gracie & Co., dated Rio de Janeiro, 4th of January, 1833, who state that they derived the details from the manuscripts of the vessels clearing the custom-house, that the following quantity of coffee, sugar and hides, were exported from Rio during the six years ending with December, 1832:—

Years.	Coffee. Bags.	Sugar. Cases.	Hides. Number.	Years.	Coffee. Bags.	Sugar. Cases.	Hides. Number.
1827,	350,900	19,644	329,320	1830,	391,785	22,488	266,719
1828,	369,147	19,035	207,268	1831,	448,249	22,004	342,385
1829,	375,107	18,864	351,893	1832,	478,950	16,645	263,657

The value of foreign goods imported into Rio, in 1836, according to a statement given in the Journal de Commercio, was £3,839,379; of which, from Great Britain, £2,005,543; France, £581,571; Portugal and her possessions, £281,885; United States, £225,353; Hanseatic States, £239,384; Uruguay, £96,857; Belgium, £73,789; Spain, £61,270; Sardinia, £56,223; Argentine republic, £44,284; Holland and her colonies, £37,046; Sicily, £33,219; Sweden, £31,589; Chili, £26,135;

* Coulier sur les Phares, 2d edition.

Austria, £14,067; sundries, £31,164. These imports are exclusive of negroes, of whom, according to Waterston, vast numbers continue to be brought from Africa to Rio or the neighboring coast.

The following table, from official sources, indicates the description of articles, with their several quantities, imported to Rio for two years, with the relative proportion of each, drawn from the United States and from Great Britain in the year. 1842:—

IMPORTS OF THE LEADING ARTICLES INTO RIO JANEIRO, IN 1841 AND 1842, WITH QUANTITIES FROM GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES IN 1842.

Articles.	1841.	1842.	G. Britain.	U. States.
Ale and porter,.....casks	17,382	24,600	23,835	40
Arms,.....packages	1,277	1,880	320
Brandy,.....pipes	1,548	962	38	20
Butter,.....firkins	23,352	24,566	17,558	192
Candles, tallow,.....boxes	16,239	10,553	125
“ comp. and sp.,.....	6,838	7,119	150	4,637
Cheese,.....	4,683	2,932	643
Coals,.....tons	9,525	19,245	17,127
Codfish,.....casks, &c.	36,530	33,641	32,222	202
Copper,.....cases	678	497	463	29
“bottoms	2,030	1,528	1,385	143
“kegs	54	116	76	40
“sheets, &c.	432	220	159	67
Cordage, Coir,.....coils	2,930	3,765	4,491	281
“ Russian, &c.,.....	3,372	3,472		
Deals,.....dozen	13,456	14,876
Drugs,.....packages	4,020	5,841	1,539	447
Flour,.....bbls.	231,989	149,118
Gin,.....pipes	28	17½	5	12½
“doz jugs	16,376	7,270
“demijohns	10,000	650
“cases	2,818	1,971	600
Hams,.....casks	680	529	62	35
“loose	11,685	10,323	400	8,985
Hardware, &c.,.....packages	5,814	7,040	5,481
Hats,.....cases	1,095	966	141
Iron,.....tons	1,061	1,490	1,490
“bars	76,999	32,013	4,509
“bundles	3,797	3,631	2,059
“ hoops,.....tons	76	67	67
“ “bundles	2,847	2,707	2,601
Lead, bar,.....bars	2,600	5,405	1,216	1,771
“ sheet,.....rolls	320	80	46
Leather, curried,.....packages	1,081	762	198
“ wrought,.....	1,436	1,376	453
Linseed oil,.....pipes	178	272	232
“jugs, &c.	286	883	171
Manufactures:—				
Cotton,.....packages	36,667	22,482	14,059	5,337
Linen,.....	3,798	2,040	1,663	59
Linen and cotton,.....	593	134	96
Silk,.....	1,505	1,181	315	74
Silk and cotton,.....	15	173	27
Silk and worsted,.....	68	57		
Woollen,.....	5,601	4,972	4,490	6
Woollen and cotton,.....	190	236	192
Mess beef and pork,.....bbls.	1,277	2,312	180	1,154
Nails,.....packages	5,914	8,471	4,983	397
Olive oil,.....pipes	1,047	1,354	78
“boxes, &c.	3,898	4,699
Paints and colors,.....packages	4,066	8,025	7,818

IMPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES INTO RIO JANEIRO, IN 1841 AND 1842, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1841.	1842.	G. Britain.	U. States.
Paper,.....packages	5,646	13,341	149	18
Parasols and umbrellas,.....	368	345	134
Pepper, black,.....bags	749	1,159	446	690
Pitch,.....bbls.	1,897	507	110	35
Raisins, &c.,.....boxes	28,270	28,362	3,119
Raven's duck,.....pieces	3,893	2,513	1,092	500
Rosin,.....bbls.	7,456	6,183	40	6,893
Sail-cloth,.....pieces	3,747	2,689	1,043	1,006
Salt,.....alqueires	717,040	384,177	1,288
Saltpetre,.....kegs, &c.	2,044	3,355	2,705	640
Shot,.....	2,922	4,708	3,564
Soap,.....boxes	42,898	49,955	47,188	499
Steel,.....	1,528	352	218
Tar,.....bbls.	2,910	2,808	290
Tea,.....packages	2,602	2,922	301	1,929
Tin plates,.....boxes	2,137	2,020	1,895
Tobacco,.....packages	1,128	840	48	769
Turpentine,.....bbls.	79	148	47	100
Vermicelli,.....boxes	8,690	7,996
Vinegar,.....pipes	1,599	1,049
Wheat,.....sacks	8,554	21,777
White lead,.....packages	1,307	826	427
Window glass,.....boxes	7,413	3,037	20
Wine, Portugal,.....pipes	9,593	3,877
“ Mediterranean, &c.,.....	15,077	9,322	29
“ Bordeaux,.....hhds.	3,519	1,830

This return is for the current year, ending 31st December, and does not agree with the United States return, ending 30th September, the quantities being less. The number of bbls. of flour exported from the United States to Brazil, was 198,317, while the above return shows a gross import of 149,118. It is observable, however, that the proportion of cotton goods received from the United States, in 1842, greatly exceeded that of former years. A revolution will probably be effected in the trade of the Brazils, in the adjustment of the new tariff, and the adoption of a new treaty in place of the one with England, which expires in November next.

The flour trade of Rio, with the United States, is on the increase. The stock at Rio, on the 1st of January, 1844, amounted to 48,536 bbls.; of which, 26,319 were in first hands.

The quantity imported, exceeded that of 1842, 49,530 bbls.; and, in the months of November and December alone, were received upwards of 71,000 bbls., independently of 3,000 bbls., in wheat, in December.

The annexed tables, will show the monthly position of the market, and the first, last and extreme prices of each description during the year:—

MOVEMENT OF THE FLOUR MARKET IN 1843.

Months.	BARRELS.			Sales monthly, of each kind.		
	Imported.	Sold.	Exported.	Richm'nd.	Balt., &c.	South'n.
January,.....	12,034	22,977	2,338	16,204	6,773
February,.....	8,166	14,556	2,332	10,887	3,669
March,.....	18,060	11,542	4,223	2,497	4,749	4,296
April,.....	6,584½	17,838	7,623	14,218	3,540
May,.....	14,010	10,880	10,616	4,804	5,054
June,.....	12,355	17,128	2,086	6,530	8,148	150
July,.....	18,542	14,038½	5,407	2,296½	10,710	113

MOVEMENT OF THE FLOUR MARKET IN 1843—Continued.

Months.	BARRELS.			Sales monthly, of each kind.		
	Imported.	Sold.	Exported.	BARRELS.		
August,.....	19,231½	10,955	11,117½	Richm'd. 995	Balt. &c. 6,402	South'n. 2,270
September,.....	20,567	11,795½	4,009	1,405	5,086½	5,252
October,.....	15,442	18,351	3,931	6,345	10,796	210
November,.....	34,831½	14,578	2,678	6,206	6,617	1,305
December,.....	36,193½	35,217	16,540½	15,715½	15,983	2,700½
Total, 1843,.....	216,017	199,856	72,900	88,103	87,527½	16,293½
“ 1842,.....	156,487	160,308	63,048	67,725	84,270	3,150
“ 1841,.....	242,377	190,492	82,103	45,113	111,606	13,203

RANGE OF PRICES IN 1843.

Quality.	First.	Highest.	Lowest.	Last.
Gallego,.....	16\$250	19\$500	16\$000	16\$500
Haxall,.....	16\$250	19\$250	15\$500	16\$500
Richmond City,.....	17\$000 ^a	18\$000	16\$250	16\$250
Baltimore,.....	15\$000	17\$400	12\$000 ^b	13\$000
“ super,.....	17\$000	18\$000	16\$000	17\$000
Philadelphia,.....	14\$600	17\$500	13\$250	13\$250
Southern, &c.,.....	14\$800	18\$250	13\$250	14\$000
European, 1st quality,.....	18\$000	21\$250	17\$000	17\$000
“ 2d “.....	16\$500	16\$500	12\$500 ^a	13\$500
Chilian,.....	14\$500	14\$500	12\$200	12\$200

The market opened with some animation, in January, and the stock in first hands became reduced to the extent of 10,000 bbls. A moderate importation, until July, aided by a steady demand for consumption and re-export, caused prices gradually to advance about 2\$500 per bbl., the highest, \$19, having been paid from June to August for about 10,000 bbls. Richmond, and 19\$500 for small lots, whilst one cargo Baltimore, for export, sold in May, at a price equal to 17\$400 for consumption, a cargo at 17\$100 and 16\$000 to 17\$000 having, until August, been the current quotations for regular brands.

In September, the supplies were abundant, new Richmond was received, exportation was limited, the market began to be less buoyant, and dealers declined to purchase largely in the expectation of a considerable decline.

New, both Richmond and Baltimore, were general in October, when prices gave way, and old Gallego was sold at \$17, new, at 18\$500, Baltimore old, at \$14, new, at \$15. 23,000 bbls. were received from 16th to 20th November, and during the month, 35,000, when prices declined materially. Gallego, sold early in the month at 18\$500; later, Haxall, at 17\$500 to \$16, with a correspondent decline in Baltimore.

Early in December, several cargoes arrived, and about 7,000 bbls. Baltimore and southern were taken for export; but the market did not revive, and nearly 8,000 bbls. of Richmond and Baltimore were taken at the lowest quotations of the year. The receipts continued excessive from the United States, the stock was further increased by the arrival of 4,700 sacks, principally in wheat, from Valparaiso, and prices became nominal. No disposition to purchase, was shown, except at a reduction in prices; but holders were firm, and a tone was given to the market, on the 23d, by the purchase of 2,000 bbls. Gallego, at 16\$300, and towards

^a Cash. ^b Inferior.

the close of the year several parcels Richmond changed hands, at 16\$500. Baltimore, influenced by the Chili wheat, realized only \$13, and 13\$500 for small parcels.

With so extraordinary an importation during two successive months, together, upwards of 74,000 bbls., the market was well sustained at the close of the year, when the unsold stock consisted of 10,230 bbls. Gallego, 4,052 Haxall, 642 Rutherford, 16,553 Baltimore, 300 Richmond country, 2,930 Southern, 200 Brandywine; in all, 34,907 bbls.

MEDIUM PRICES.					
	January to June.	July to Dec.		January to June.	July to Dec.
Richmond,.....	17\$245	17\$223	Southern,.....	14\$954	15\$029
Baltimore,.....	15\$729	14\$818	European, 1st qual.,...	17\$731	19\$140
Philadelphia,.....	15\$649	15\$936	“ 2d “ ...	16\$500	14\$454

SUMMARY OF THE TRANSACTIONS IN 1843.

Stock in all hands, 1st January, 1843,.....		Barrels.
Imported direct,.....	214,940	48,536
“ coastwise,.....	1,077	216,017
		<hr/> 264,553
Shipped coastwise,.....	32,943½	
Re-exported,.....	39,956½	
		<hr/> 72,900
Imported in wheat,.....		194,653
		<hr/> 4,732
		199,385
Stock in first hands, 30th Dec., 1843,.....	34,907	
“ second “ “ 1843,.....	33,728	
		<hr/> 68,635
Consumption in 1843,.....		127,750

ART. IV.—CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES.

INCREASE OF CITIES AND TOWNS OF FIVE THOUSAND, AND LESS THAN TEN THOUSAND INHABITANTS.

In the number of the Merchants' Magazine, for May, 1844, I gave some account of the increase of the thirty-six principal cities and towns in the United States, containing each, 10,000 inhabitants and upwards, according to the censuses of 1830 and 1840. In Table III., 1840, in the 7th column, should be 1830; and under the caption, proportion of population of cities and towns to that of the states, per cent, insert 1830 in the 11th column, and 1840 in the 12th column. Inadvertently, in that article, the population of Louisville, Kentucky, in 1830, was stated at 12,564, while it should have been 10,341; and its increase in ten years should have been 10,869, instead of 8,646, and 105·10, instead of 68·81 per cent, making it the fourth city in the order of increase. In consequence of this error, the following corrections should be made in the lines, as indicated by the captions of the columns:—

	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Louisville, Ky., (Table I.).....	10,341	10,869	105.10
Total in 15 cities, ".....	737,967	396,961	53.79
Total in 16 cities, ".....	768,256	375,933	51.53
Total in 16 cities, (Table II.).....	768,256	375,933	51.53
Total in 36 cities and towns, (Tab. II.)	932,279	491,442	52.71
Total U. S., exc. 36 cit. & t'ns, ".....	11,933,741	3,711,991	31.94	15,645,732
Total population of U. States, ".....	4,203,433	17,069,453

	Census of cities and towns in 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Incr. pr. cent.	Cens. of cit. & tn's cit. and to that of 1840.	p. ct., 1830.
15 states, and D. of Col., (Tab. III.)	901,990	492,470	54.59	9.49
16 states, and D. of Col., ".....	932,279	491,442	52.71	9.24
Total, of the U. States, ".....	932,279	491,442	52.71	7.24

In the present number, it is proposed to extend the tables so as to embrace all the towns containing 5,000 inhabitants. The first table contains all the cities and towns, with from 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants, in 1840, together with the census of 1830, and the increase in the ten preceding years.

TABLE V.—CITIES AND TOWNS.

	Cen. of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. ct.	Cen. of 1840.
MAINE.				
Bangor,.....	2,867	5,760	200.91	8,627
Bath,.....	3,773	1,368	36.25	5,141
Thomaston,.....	4,214	2,013	47.76	6,227
Augusta,.....	3,980	1,334	33.51	5,314
Gardiner,.....	3,709	1,333	35.93	5,042
NEW HAMPSHIRE.				
Portsmouth,.....	8,026	Loss, 139	1.73	7,887
Dover,.....	5,449	1,009	18.51	6,458
Nashua,.....	2,414	3,640	150.78	6,054
MASSACHUSETTS.				
Cambridge,.....	6,072	2,337	38.48	8,409
Roxbury,.....	5,247	3,842	73.22	9,089
Lynn,.....	6,138	3,229	52.60	9,367
Marblehead,.....	5,149	426	8.27	5,575
Danvers,.....	4,228	792	18.73	5,020
Andover,.....	4,530	677	14.94	5,207
Gloucester,.....	7,510	1,490	19.84	6,350
Rockport,.....				2,650
Taunton,.....	6,042	1,603	26.53	7,645
Middleborough,.....	5,008	77	1.53	5,085
Newburyport,.....	6,375	786	12.32	7,161
Worcester,.....	4,173	3,324	79.65	7,497
Plymouth,.....	4,758	523	10.99	5,281
Fall River,.....	4,158	2,580	62.04	6,738
Nantucket,.....	7,202	1,810	25.13	9,012
RHODE ISLAND.				
Smithfield,.....	6,857	2,677	39.04	9,534
Cumberland,.....	3,675	1,550	42.17	5,225
Newport,.....	8,010	323	4.03	8,333
Warwick,.....	5,529	1,197	21.64	6,726
CONNECTICUT.				
Hartford city,.....	7,074	2,394	33.84	9,468
New London city,.....	4,335	1,184	27.31	5,519
Saybrook,.....	5,018	555	11.06	3,417
Chester,.....				974
Westbrook,.....				1,182
NEW YORK.				
Bethlehem,.....	6,082	68	1.11	3,238
New Scotland,.....				2,912
Chenango,.....	3,730	1,735	46.51	5,465

TABLE V.—Continued.

NEW YORK—Continued.		Cen. of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. ct.	Cen. of 1840.
Auburn,.....		4,486	1,140	25.41	5,626
<i>Sempronius</i> ,.....	}	5,705	Loss, 157	2.75	1,304
<i>Monrovia</i> ,.....					2,010
Niles,.....	}	4,913	1,505	30.59	2,234
Plattsburg,.....					6,416
Johnstown,.....	}	7,700	1,167	15.15	5,409
<i>Bleecker</i> ,.....					346
<i>Mohawk</i> ,.....					3,112
Sparta,.....		3,777	2,064	54.64	5,841
Lenox,.....		5,039	401	7.95	5,440
Lyme,.....		2,873	2,599	90.46	5,472
Watertown,.....		4,768	259	5.43	5,027
Ellisburg,.....		5,292	57	1.07	5,349
Canajoharie,.....		4,347	799	18.38	5,146
Florida,.....		2,851	2,363	82.82	5,214
Amsterdam,.....	}	3,356	2,714	80.87	5,333
<i>Perth</i> ,.....					737
Lockport,.....		3,823	5,302	138.68	9,125
Rome,.....		4,360	1,320	30.27	5,680
Whitestown,.....		4,410	746	16.91	5,156
Boonville,.....		2,746	2,773	100.98	5,519
Onondaga,.....		5,668	Loss, 10	.17	5,658
Manlius,.....	}	7,375	936	12.69	5,509
<i>Dewitt</i> ,.....					2,802
Canandaigua,.....		5,162	490	9.47	5,652
Phelps,.....		4,876	687	14.08	5,563
Seneca,.....		6,207	866	13.95	7,073
Barre,.....		4,768	771	16.17	5,539
Schenectady,.....		4,268	2,516	58.95	6,784
Schoharie,.....		5,157	377	7.50	5,534
Oswegatchie,.....		3,993	1,726	43.22	5,719
Owego,.....		3,076	2,264	73.60	5,340
Ithaca,.....		5,270	380	7.21	5,650
Hector,.....		5,212	440	8.44	5,652
Dryden,.....		5,206	240	4.61	5,446
Catskill,.....		4,861	478	9.83	5,339
Kingston,.....		4,170	1,654	39.66	5,824
Saugerties,.....		3,747	2,469	65.89	6,216
New Paltz,.....		4,973	435	8.74	5,408
Hudson city,.....		5,392	280	5.19	5,672
Mount Pleasant,.....		4,932	2,375	48.15	7,307
Cortlandt,.....		3,840	1,752	45.62	5,592
Southampton,.....		4,850	1,355	27.93	6,205
Huntington,.....		5,582	980	17.55	6,562
Brookhaven,.....		6,095	955	15.66	7,050
Williamsburg,.....	}	1,620	4,769	294.38	5,094
<i>Bushwick</i> ,.....					1,295
Hempstead,.....		6,215	1,394	22.42	7,609
Oyster Bay,.....		5,348	517	9.66	5,865
Newtown,.....		2,610	2,444	93.63	5,054
Newbury,.....		6,424	2,509	39.05	8,933
Minisink,.....		4,979	114	2.28	5,093
Warwick,.....		5,009	104	2.07	5,113
NEW JERSEY.					
Bergen,.....		4,651	604	12.98	5,255
Paterson,.....	}	7,710	2,369	30.72	7,596
<i>Aquackonk</i> ,.....					2,483
Pequanock,.....		4,551	639	14.04	5,190
North Brunswick,.....		5,274	592	11.22	5,866
Answell,.....	}	7,385	501	6.78	3,071
<i>Delaware</i> ,.....					2,305
<i>Raritan</i> ,.....					2,510

TABLE V.—Continued.

NEW JERSEY—Continued.	Cen. of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. c.	Cen. of 1840.
Nottingham,.....	3,900	1,209	31.00	5,109
Middletown,.....	5,128	935	18.23	6,063
Upper Freehold,.....	4,826	200	4.14	5,026
Shrewsbury,.....	4,700	1,217	25.89	5,917
Freehold,.....	5,481	822	14.99	6,303
Northampton,.....	5,516	1,302	23.60	6,818
Evesham,.....	4,239	821	19.36	5,060
PENNSYLVANIA.				
Borough of Reading,.....	5,856	2,554	43.61	8,410
Harrisburg,.....	4,312	1,668	38.68	5,980
Earl,.....	6,058	Loss, 353	5.82	3,982
West Earl,.....				
Lancaster city,.....	7,704	713	9.25	8,417
Pitt,.....	3,924	2,078	52.95	6,002
DELAWARE.				
Wilmington city,.....	6,628	1,739	25.84	8,367
MARYLAND.				
Fredericktown,.....	4,427	755	17.05	5,182
VIRGINIA.				
Wheeling city,.....	5,221	2,664	51.02	7,885
Lynchburg,.....	4,630	1,765	38.12	6,395
GEORGIA.				
Augusta city,.....	6,696	Loss, 293	4.37	6,403
TENNESSEE.				
Nashville,.....	5,566	1,363	24.48	6,929
KENTUCKY.				
Lexington,.....	6,026	971	16.04	6,997
OHIO.				
Cleveland city,.....	1,076	4,995	464.21	6,071
Columbus city,.....	2,435	3,613	148.37	6,048
Mill Creek,.....	3,356	2,893	86.20	6,249
Steubenville,.....	2,937	2,266	77.15	5,203
Dayton,.....	2,950	3,117	105.66	6,067
MICHIGAN.				
City of Detroit,.....	2,222	6,880	309.63	9,102
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.				
Georgetown,.....	8,441	Loss, 1,129	13.37	7,312
Alexandria city,.....	8,241	218	2.64	8,459
.....	164,583
.....	Loss, 2,081
109 cities and towns,.....	540,730	162,503	30.05	703,232

The town of *Dunstable*, New Hampshire, in 1830, has since been changed to that of *Nashua*.

In order to show the increase of the population in ten years, I have put down in the first column, not only the names of the towns such as they stood in 1830, but also those of the towns which have been set off from them, during this period, as far as I could ascertain them. *Rockport*, in Massachusetts, was set off from Gloucester, July 27, 1840. *Chester*, Connecticut, was set off from Saybrook, in May, 1836; and *Westbrook* is a parish in Saybrook, and its population, in 1830, included in that of Saybrook. *New Scotland*, New York, was set off as a separate town from Bethlehem, April 25, 1832. *Morovia* and *Niles* were set off from Sempronius, March 20, 1833. *Bleeker* was set off, April 4, 1831, and *Mohawk*, April 4, 1837, from Johnstown. *Perth* was set off from Amsterdam, April 18, 1838. Part of Onondaga was annexed to *Camillus*, May 1, 1834, but what portion, I have no means of ascertaining. *Dewitt* was set off from Manlius, March 12, 1835.

In the census of 1830, Williamsburgh and Bushwick are put together, and in 1840, they are separate, Williamsburgh having been set off from *Bushwick*, and incorporated March 20, 1840. Paterson, New Jersey, was set off from *Aquackanonck*, and incorporated January 27, 1831; the aggregate of these two towns was 10,079, in 1840. *Delaware* and *Rariton* were set off from Amwell, and incorporated February 23, 1838. Earl, in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, is presumed to have embraced *West Earl*, in 1830.

In the census of 1830, Middletown and city are put together, with a population of 6,892, of which, 2,965 belonged to the city, and 3,927 to the town; and, in that of 1840, the city contained 3,511, and the town 3,699. They are omitted in the above table.

The population of Wilmington, Delaware, of Savannah and Augusta, Georgia, and St. Louis, Missouri, is not specified in the census of 1830, and the number is derived from other sources.

St. Louis township, in St. Louis county, Missouri, is not specified in the census of 1830, and in 1840, contained a population of 8,116, and is not included in the above table.

The city of Natchez, Mississippi, with a population of 2,789, in 1830, is not specified in the census of 1840, but in the *Compend*, its population was 4,800, in 1840.

In the census of 1840, Hagerstown, Maryland is not specified, but in the *Compend*, it is put down among the principal towns, with 7,179 inhabitants; which is 3,808 more than 3,371, in the census of 1830, and 226 more than the increase of the whole of Washington county, in which it is situated. It is omitted in our list. Also, Portsmouth, Virginia, with a population of 6,477, is put down in the census of 1840, as a county, while it should have joined to Norfolk county, to which it belongs, as in the *Compend*, where it is placed among the principal towns; but it is not found in the census of 1830, and, therefore, is not inserted in our list.

The five towns, namely, Saybrook, Connecticut, Bethlehem and Sempronius, New York, Amwell, New Jersey, and Earl, Pennsylvania, contained over 5,000 inhabitants each, in the census of 1830, but in 1840, they had less than 5,000, though they were included in the above table; so that, instead of 109 towns of this class, there were only 104, to which we may add St. Louis township, in St. Louis county, Missouri, Hagerstown, Maryland, and Portsmouth, Virginia, making 107 towns of this class.

The number of cities and towns with over 20,000 inhabitants, in 1830, was 8, and 16, in 1840; the number, with between 10,000 and 20,000, was 11, in 1830, and 20, in 1840; and the number, with between 5,000 and 10,000, was 66, in 1830, and 107, in 1840; total, 85, in 1830, and 143, in 1840. After deducting the 5 towns which had less than 5,000 inhabitants, in 1840, the difference between the remaining 80 and 143, will be 63 towns, which have risen in the ten years to the rank of having 5,000 inhabitants.

The increase of the number of the cities and towns of over 20,000 inhabitants, in 1840, in the table, in the ten years, was 100 per cent; of those between 10,000 and 20,000, 81·81 per cent; of those between 5,000 and 10,000, 65·15 per cent; and of the whole number, 70·58 per cent.

The next table shows the increase of the population of the three classes of cities and towns, during the ten years, and their aggregate, together with the proportion, per cent, which their aggregate bears to that of the states respectively, and the difference, marked —, when there has been a loss.

TABLE VI.

STATES.	Census of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. per ct.	Census of 1840.	No. of cities.	Pop. of cit. in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. per ct.	Pop. of cit. in 1840.	No. of cities and towns.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. per ct.
Maine,.....	399,455	102,338	25.61	501,793	1	12,598	2,620	20.79
New Hampshire,.....	269,328	15,246	5.66	284,574
Massachusetts,.....	610,408	127,291	20.85	737,699	2	67,866	46,313	68.24	114,179	4	37,054	12,584	33.96
Rhode Island,.....	97,199	11,631	11.96	108,830	1	16,833	6,338	37.65	23,171
Connecticut,.....	297,675	12,303	4.13	309,978	1	10,180	2,780	27.30
New York,.....	1,918,608	510,313	26.59	2,428,921	4	251,399	151,456	60.24	402,855	7	55,952	35,974	64.29
New Jersey,.....	320,823	52,483	16.35	373,306	1	10,953	6,337	57.85
Pennsylvania,.....	1,348,233	375,800	27.87	1,724,033	2	201,365	77,787	38.61	279,152	1	2,801	7,288	260.19
Delaware,.....	76,748	1,337	1.74	78,085
Maryland,.....	447,040	22,979	5.14	470,019	1	80,620	21,693	26.90	102,313
Virginia,.....	1,211,405	28,392	2.34	1,239,797	1	16,060	4,093	25.48	20,153	2	18,136	3,920	21.61
Georgia,.....	516,823	174,569	33.77	691,392	1	7,303	3,911	53.55
Alabama,.....	309,527	281,229	90.85	590,756	1	3,194	9,478	296.74
Louisiana,.....	215,739	136,672	63.35	352,411	1	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193
Tennessee,.....	681,904	147,306	21.60	829,210
Kentucky,.....	687,917	91,911	13.36	779,828	1	10,341	10,869	105.10	21,210
Ohio,.....	937,903	581,564	62.00	1,519,467	1	24,831	21,507	86.61	46,338
Missouri,.....	140,455	243,247	173.18	383,702	1	5,852	10,617	181.42
Michigan,.....	31,639	180,628	570.90	212,267
District of Columbia,	39,834	3,878	9.73	43,712	1	18,826	4,533	24.10	23,364
	10,558,663	3,101,117	29.46	13,659,780	15	737,967	396,961	53.79	1,134,928	20
South Carolina,.....	581,185	13,213	2.27	594,398	1	30,289	Loss, 1,028	3.39	29,261
	11,139,848	3,114,330	27.95	14,254,178	16	768,256	395,933	51.53	1,164,189	20	164,023	95,509	58.22

Cities and Towns in the United States.

TABLE VI.—Continued.

STATES.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1840.	No. of cit. and t'ns.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. pr. ct.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1840.	Total No. of cities and t'ns.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. cent.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1840.	Prop. p. c. of this pop. of cit. and t'ns to that of the states, in		Differ- ence.
												1839.	1840.	
Maine,.....	15,218	5	18,543	11,808	63.67	30,351	6	31,141	14,428	46.33	45,569	7.79	9.08	1.29
New Hampshire,.....	3	3	15,889	4,510	28.38	20,399	3	15,889	4,510	28.33	20,399	5.89	7.16	1.27
Massachusetts,.....	49,638	14	76,590	23,496	30.67	100,086	20	181,510	82,393	45.39	263,903	29.73	35.67	5.94
Rhode Island,.....	4	4	24,071	5,747	23.87	29,818	5	40,904	12,085	29.54	52,989	42.08	48.69	6.61
Connecticut,.....	12,960	3	16,427	4,133	25.15	20,560	4	26,607	6,913	25.98	33,520	8.93	10.81	1.88
New York,.....	91,926	48	227,143	63,120	27.78	290,263	59	534,494	250,550	46.87	785,044	27.85	32.32	4.47
New Jersey,.....	17,290	12	63,361	11,211	17.69	74,572	13	74,314	17,548	23.61	91,862	23.16	24.60	1.44
Pennsylvania,.....	10,089	5	27,854	6,660	23.91	34,514	8	232,020	91,735	39.53	323,755	17.20	18.79	1.59
Delaware,.....	1	1	6,628	1,739	25.84	8,367	1	6,628	1,739	25.84	8,367	8.63	10.71	2.08
Maryland,.....	1	1	4,427	755	17.05	5,182	2	85,047	22,448	26.39	107,495	19.02	23.08	4.06
Virginia,.....	22,056	2	9,851	4,429	44.96	14,280	5	44,047	12,442	28.24	56,489	3.63	4.55	.92
Georgia,.....	11,214	1	6,696	Loss, 293	4.37	6,403	2	13,999	3,618	25.84	17,617	2.70	2.54	—16
Alabama,.....	12,672	1	3,194	9,478	296.74	12,672	1.03	2.14	1.11
Louisiana,.....	1	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193	23.09	23.99	5.90
Tennessee,.....	1	5,566	1,363	24.48	6,929	1	5,566	1,363	24.48	6,929	.81	1.01	.20
Kentucky,.....	1	6,026	971	16.04	6,997	2	16,367	11,840	72.34	28,207	2.37	3.61	1.34
Ohio,.....	5	12,754	16,884	132.37	29,638	6	37,585	38,391	102.14	75,976	4.00	5.00	1.00
Missouri,.....	16,469	1	5,852	10,617	181.42	16,469	4.16	4.29	.13
Michigan,.....	1	2,222	6,880	309.63	9,102	1	2,222	6,880	309.63	9,102	7.02	4.28	—2.74
District of Columbia,	2	16,682	Loss, 911	5.46	15,771	3	35,508	3,627	10.21	39,135	89.13	89.53	.40
South Carolina,.....	144	1,442,720	654,972	45.39	2,097,692	13.66	15.35	1.69
.....	1	30,289	Loss, 1,028	3.39	29,261	5.21	4.92	—29
.....	259,532	109	540,730	162,502	30.05	703,232	145	1,473,009	653,944	44.39	2,126,953	13.22	14.92	1.70
Population of other places in the United States,.....	11,387,693	3,548,707	31.16	14,936,400
Total,.....	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353
Naval service,.....	5,318	782	14.70	6,100
Total population of the United States,.....	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453	11.44	12.46	1.02

The next table is added, in order to show, separately, the increase of the population of those states and territories which are not included in Table VI.

TABLE VII.

States and Territories.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Vermont,.....	280,652	11,296	4.02	291,948
North Carolina,.....	737,987	15,432	2.09	753,419
Mississippi,.....	136,621	239,030	174.95	375,651
Indiana,.....	343,031	342,835	99.94	685,866
Illinois,.....	157,445	318,738	202.44	476,183
Arkansas,.....	30,388	67,186	221.09	97,574
Florida Territory,.....	34,730	19,747	56.85	54,477
Wisconsin ".....	30,945	30,945
Iowa ".....	43,112	43,112
9 states and territories,.....	1,720,854	1,088,321	63.24	2,809,175
20 states, and Dist. of Columbia,	11,139,848	3,114,330	27.95	14,254,178
30 states and territories,.....	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353
Naval service,.....	5,318	782	14.70	6,100
Total pop. of the United States,...	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453

If we deduct from the population of these nine states and territories, that of Vermont and North Carolina, whose increase was small, we shall find that the average increase of the seven remaining ones, was over 151 per cent, as follows:—

	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 years.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
9 states and territories,.....	1,720,854	1,088,321	63.24	2,809,175
Vermont and North Carolina,....	1,018,639	26,728	2.62	1,045,367
7 states and territories,.....	702,215	1,061,593	151.17	1,763,808

It will be perceived that there was a difference in the increase, not only of the several states and territories, but also of the several cities and towns, of 5,000 inhabitants and upwards, during the ten years from 1830 to 1840. In respect to the states, while the increase of Delaware was less than 2 per cent, that of Michigan was over 57 per cent. Generally, the increase was much larger in the new, than in the old states. A few of the cities and towns lost inhabitants, and some of these by an actual decrease of population, their limits remaining the same; as Charleston, South Carolina, and Georgetown, District of Columbia, while the rest lost, it is presumed, generally, in consequence of setting off portions of their territory as separate towns, or by annexing them to other towns.

It will be perceived that, in 1840, considerably more than half (54.73 per cent) of the population of these cities and towns, belonged to those of the first class, containing over 200,000 inhabitants each; and that only about one-eighth (12.20 per cent) to those of the second class, while a little less than one-third (33.06 per cent) belonged to the third class. The increase of the first two classes of cities and towns, was nearly twice that of the third class, while the average increase of their aggregate, was about one and a half times that of the aggregate of the states to which they belong, making their proportional increase 1.70 per cent greater than during the ten years.

There is also a marked difference in the proportional increase of the aggregate of the population of the cities and towns in the several states.

It varies from 309 per cent, in Michigan, to 10 per cent, in the District of Columbia, while there is a *loss* of 3·39 per cent, in South Carolina, or over 1 per cent more than the increase of the population in the state.

As we look upon the proportion per cent, of the population of the cities and towns, to that of the several states, we see that the proportion is very various in these states, both in 1830 and in 1840. In the District of Columbia, which is very peculiarly situated, consisting of the three cities mentioned in the table, and the country part of Washington and Alexandria, the cities contained over 89 per cent of the whole population of the district, while the proportion in Tennessee was less than 1 per cent, in 1830, and they were but little changed in 1840.

In looking over the differences, in the proportion, in the several states, in 1830 and in 1840, it will be perceived that there has been an increase per cent, in all, except Georgia, Michigan and South Carolina. As to Georgia, whose increase was more than the average of that of the United States, and in which, while one of the cities (Savannah) was among the first in point of increase, among these cities and towns, and Augusta city lost population, it is not surprising that the proportion in this agricultural state should be less in 1840, than in 1830. As there was only one city of 5,000 inhabitants, in Michigan, in 1840, and as the increase of that state was so enormous in consequence of emigrants settling the country, we need expect anything but a decrease of the proportion of this class in these ten years. But in South Carolina, whose whole increase was only 2·27 per cent, and exclusive of its capital, only 2·58 per cent: and whose population are, to a great degree, agricultural, there being only one city (Charleston) with 5,000 inhabitants, and that city having lost 1,028 of its population in the ten years, the proportion must, of course, be less, in 1840, than in 1830.

The population of nearly all of the 145 cities and towns (only a few of them being generally engaged in agricultural pursuits) are engaged in commerce and manufactures, in other words, commerce and manufactures are what mainly have built up, sustained and increased these cities and towns. This is the case, particularly with the 36 cities and towns of over 10,000 inhabitants, in which the increase was 52·71 per cent, and nearly twice that of the aggregate of the states to which they belong.

It seems as a general inference to be drawn from the above tables, that, with the exception of the District of Columbia, perhaps, the proportion of the population who are directly and indirectly employed in, and dependent upon, for a living, in the twenty-one states, and in all the states and territories, manufactures and commerce, may be considered as represented by the proportion, per cent, of the population of the cities and towns to that of the states, respectively and collectively, in 1830 and 1840; and also its increase and decrease, by the differences during the ten years, from 1830 to 1840, as shown in the last three columns of Table VI. Thus, over and above the increase of the aggregate population of the twenty-one states, that of these classes was about 1·70 per cent; and over and above that of the whole population of the thirty states and territories, that of these classes was about 1 per cent, during these ten years. Thus, also, in the last column, supposed to represent the increase of these classes over that of the whole population, the increase has been the greatest in

Rhode Island, next in Massachusetts, next in Alabama, next in Maryland, &c., while there has been a decrease in only three out of the twenty-one states, and this decrease may be accounted for by the suggestions above respecting these three states.

J. C.

ART. V.—THE COMMERCIAL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE commerce of the country, we hardly require to be told, at the present time, has grown to enormous magnitude. The ports of the sea-coast and the rivers of the west, from the mouth of the Penobscot to the harbor of Charleston, and from Chicago to New Orleans, are crowded with its hulks and cordage; and its sails every where dot the ocean and the lakes. It is the design of the present article to unfold, in a condensed form, those general laws which have been established by the government, bearing upon the shipping continually entering and departing from the United States.

It is obvious, that, in order to ensure the safety of the persons and property ever afloat upon the sea, in merchant ships, as well as to provide adequate revenue to the government, there must be established certain laws for the prosecution of commerce. The policy of every civilized government has uniformly enacted commercial regulations for the protection of its own shipping and seamen; and we shall first point out the mode in which our own government ascertains the precise character of its vessels, as well as those which enter its ports from abroad.

During the first administration of President Washington, in 1792, the policy of protecting our own commerce, was adopted, by the passing of acts regulating those vessels which are employed in the foreign trade, the coasting trade and the fisheries of the country. These have continued down to the present time, with but few important modifications. Under those acts, the various vessels engaged in our commerce, are divided into five different classes. The first, embraces those of our own ships that are employed in foreign trade, which are entitled to be *registered*. The second, ships of the United States that are employed in the coasting trade, or fisheries, which are entitled to be *enrolled and licensed*. The third, ships built out of the United States, but owned by citizens, which are entitled to a *certificate of ownership*. The fourth, ships built in the United States, but owned, wholly or partly, by foreigners, which are entitled to be *recorded*. The fifth, ships built out of the United States and owned by foreigners, which are deemed *alien vessels*. Each of these different classes of vessels we shall consider in their proper order.

The vessels which are registered, and also those duly qualified to carry on the coasting trade and the fisheries, are alone deemed *vessels of the United States*, entitled to all the privileges granted to such vessels; those privileges, continuing only as long as such vessels are wholly owned by citizens, and commanded by a citizen or citizens of the country. Those ships which are entitled to be enrolled, are vessels of twenty tons or upwards, possessing the same qualifications as are required for registered ships, namely: that they be built within the United States and be wholly owned by citizens; and if under twenty tons they are entitled to a *license*.

It has been remarked, that ships built within the United States, and belonging wholly or in part to foreigners, are entitled to be *recorded*, for the encouragement of ship-building; and ships built out of the United States, but owned by citizens, are entitled to a *certificate of ownership*; while vessels built out of the United States and owned by foreigners, are deemed *alien vessels*. The place of registry, is the collector's district where the vessel belongs at the time of the registry, which is deemed the place, or nearest to the place, where the actual owner or the acting owner usually resides; and the registry must be made out by the collector of the district. By a law of the United States, all vessels, either registered, enrolled or licensed, must have their names, and the ports to which they belong, painted upon their sterns.

Our own commercial system, it is, perhaps, well known, is based upon a reciprocal policy. The first navigation act of the United States, which may be regarded as the foundation of the navigation laws subsequently established, tenders reciprocity to all nations, and retaliation to those powers that are disposed to enact illiberal commercial regulations regarding us. The design of our navigation laws, like those of every other country, doubtless, has been to protect our own shipping and our own seamen; but, where a liberal intercourse has been established with us, by other nations, we have ever been disposed to put our own commercial laws upon the same footing.* For the purpose of protecting commerce, the first act to which we have alluded, prohibits foreign vessels from importing into the United States, under penalty of forfeiture of the vessel and cargo, any merchandise, except of the growth, production or manufacture, of the country where such vessel belongs—extending the act, however, to those nations that have a similar regulation. So, also, foreign vessels are prohibited from transporting merchandise from one port to another of our own country, although they are permitted to carry, from one port to another, the cargoes originally imported into the country, provided that they have not been unladen. In our various treaties with the principal commercial nations, to which our commerce is extended, a reciprocal policy has been uniformly recognized.

The most useful and important agencies in the superintendence of the commerce of the country, are the custom-houses that are established at the principal ports of the seacoast, as well as those of the lakes. With a view to the organization of the custom-houses, the seacoast of the United States is divided into three great coasting districts. These are divided into smaller collection districts, in each of which a collector is appointed for the purpose of enforcing the execution of the revenue laws. By the act of 1799, that may be considered the basis of the revenue system, it is provided, that collectors, naval officers and surveyors, shall be appointed in the various collection districts of the country. Naval officers and surveyors are required in the larger districts, to aid the collector in the execution of his duties. So also appraisers, weighers, measurers and guagers, are appointed to perform certain prescribed duties, but

* We here subjoin a list of the documents which are necessary for American vessels, on leaving the ports of the United States. 1. The Passport. 2. The Sea Letter, (in some cases.) 3. The Register, or proof of property. 4. The List of Crew. 5. The Charter Party, (when given.) 6. The Bill of Lading. 7. The Invoices. 8. The Log Book. 9. The Bill of Health. 10. The General Clearance. 11. The Clearing Manifest.

On entering. 1. Manifest. 2. List of Passengers.

they are all subordinate to the collector. Returns must be made by the collector, every three months, to the treasury department, as well as to the secretary of state. To the register of the treasury, he makes quarterly returns of the state of commerce between our own and foreign countries, of the amount of the tonnage in his district, and the certificates granted by him under the acts for the enrolling and the registering of vessels. To the secretary of state, he transmits lists of seamen registered within his district, and an account of any impressments made from American vessels that are reported to him. From the various returns transmitted to him, by the custom-houses of the country, the annual reports are issued from the office of the secretary of the treasury. The duties of the separate officers of the custom-houses, are clearly prescribed by law. The design of the establishment of these several custom-houses, is, to execute the laws regulating the commerce of the country, and to collect the revenues accruing from its commercial regulations.

We have remarked, that our own vessels enjoy certain privileges under the navigation laws of the United States. Among those privileges, are the exemption from the payment of "light-money," a duty of fifty cents per ton upon every foreign vessel not possessing the privilege of a vessel of the United States. Those American vessels that have three-fourths of the crew Americans, and officered by Americans, pay no tonnage duty; nor do foreign vessels, entitled to the privileges of American vessels; but all other vessels pay fifty cents per ton, which, in addition to the "light-money," likewise of fifty cents per ton, required to be paid by foreign vessels, makes one dollar per ton.

The increase of navigation upon the western waters, renders it a subject of interest to the people. British vessels, rafts and other vehicles of commerce, upon the lakes between the United States and Canada, pay, in our ports, the same custom-house charges and duties as are levied upon American vessels in the Canadian ports. So, also, no duty is levied on the importation of peltries, nor on the goods of Indians passing the boundary line of the United States, unless these goods be in bales, or large packages unusual among Indians, which are not exempted from duty, being deemed articles of commerce. By an act, passed in March, 1799, British subjects, as well as Indians, were permitted to pass, either by land or inland navigation, both into and from the territories of the United States, and navigate all its lakes, rivers and waters; but British vessels, from the sea, are not admitted into the rivers of the United States beyond the highest ports of entry for foreign vessels.*

The fisheries, are another subject that has received the attention of Congress. The enterprise that has been directed to this important branch of commercial industry, has long rendered it a source of considerable profit to those who are engaged in it, as well as to the prosperity of the nation. In order to encourage the prosecution of this enterprise, a bounty has been granted on all pickled fish of the fisheries of the Uni-

* A law formerly existing, permitted a credit upon those duties, to be paid by importers on the following terms. Upon all goods, excepting woollens, the credit commenced at the time the vessel made her entry at the custom-house, and one-half was required to be paid in three, and the other half in six months. The duties on goods, in the whole or in part of wool, when not exceeding \$200, were required to be paid in cash, upon the terms we have stated. According to Mr. Clay's compromise bill, all duties were required to be paid in cash, after June 30th, 1842.

ted States, exported from the country, of twenty cents a barrel, provided the fish thus exported, is cured with foreign salt. So, also, a bounty is granted to the owner or agent of every vessel, which is employed four months of the fishing season, in the bank or cod fishery. These bounties are paid by the collector of the district, from which the fish are exported, or to which the vessel belongs. The bounties are, however, restricted to vessels, whose officers, and at least three-fourths of whose crews, are proved to be citizens of the United States.

By an act of Congress, that was passed during the session of 1797, certain vessels, termed *revenue cutters*, were authorized to be built, as aids to the collectors of the ports in the execution of the revenue laws. The officers of these vessels, are appointed by the president of the United States; and, being deemed officers of the customs, they are subject to the direction of the collectors of the revenue within the several districts. It is their duty to board all vessels that arrive within the United States, or within four leagues of the coast, if they are bound for the United States, to examine them, to receive the manifests, to secure them in a proper manner and to remain on board until they arrive at the place of destination. They are also required to make a weekly return, to the collector of the district in which they are placed, of all the vessels which they have boarded, and of all those facts proper to be known by the collector for the exercise of the duties of his office. They may also perform such other duties, for the collection of the revenue, as may be directed by the secretary of the treasury in conformity to the law. The revenue cutters, when ordered by the president of the United States, must co-operate with the navy; at which time they are under the direction of the secretary of the navy, their expenses being defrayed by the agents of the navy department. These vessels are known by a certain flag, composed of horizontal stripes, which, all whom they hail upon the sea, are bound to respect. In addition to the sailing vessels, which have heretofore been employed in the revenue service, there have been recently constructed a number of steamships for the same purpose.

The most important commercial agents of the United States, in foreign ports, are consuls; and, indeed, by the custom of all maritime nations, those officers are appointed for all the principal ports to which their commerce extends. Those which are appointed by the United States, are invested with certain privileges and duties, by virtue of their office, as they represent the commercial interests of their respective governments, in the places where they are stationed. They have the right to receive the protests and other declarations, of captains or other citizens of the United States, and of those foreigners as may choose to make them, relating to the personal interests of any citizens of the United States; and the copies of such acts, under the seal of the consulate, have the same authority as the originals would possess in a court of law. It is, moreover, their duty to take possession of the personal estate, left by any citizen of the United States, (excepting a seaman belonging to any vessel, who may die within their consulate, who leaves there no legal representative or person to take charge of his effects,) to adjust his affairs, and transmit the balance of his estate, if any be left, to the treasury of the United States for the benefit of the legal claimants. It is, moreover, the duty of the consul or vice consul, to notify the death of a citizen deceased, in one of the gazettes published in the consulate, and to give notice to

the secretary of state, in order that the fact may be notified in the state in which the deceased belongs, and to transmit to the secretary of state an inventory of the effects of the deceased. They must also take measures, for saving the vessels and cargoes stranded upon the coasts of their consulates, (if the master, owner or consignee, is not present,) and to deliver them to the owners. Persons owning goods, subject to an *ad valorem* duty, who live out of the United States, must make oath, before a consul, that the goods thus imported, are of the same price, at the place of manufacture, as they are charged in the invoice, and whether they are the manufacturers, in the whole or in part, or they cannot be entered at the custom-house. They must provide sustenance for the mariners of their own country, found destitute within their districts, and a passage home at the public expense; and when a seaman is discharged in a foreign port, the master must obtain the consent of the consul, in writing, under his official seal. The ship register, sea-letter and Mediterranean passport, must be deposited with an American consul, on an American vessel arriving in a foreign port, and they must be kept until the master produces a regular demand. There are also other duties devolving upon the consuls, growing out of their particular appointment or special treaty.*

We now direct our attention, to the consideration of those agents, who are usually employed in the commercial operations of our country. The principal agents of this sort, are factors, brokers, commercial agents, supercargoes and ship's husbands. A *factor*, is the individual residing abroad, who is usually employed in the purchase or sale of goods; while a *broker*, who unites in his person the office of a factor, is engaged most generally in the money transactions of merchants and masters of ships, relating to shipping. *Commercial agents*, are those whose duty it is made to settle the affairs of merchants or other persons, dying or failing, either at home or abroad; and their particular agency, for the faithful performance of which, they often give bonds, terminates, when the business has been performed. *Supercargoes* are persons employed, either by commercial companies or by private merchants, to take charge of the cargoes which they export to foreign countries, to sell them, and to purchase other cargoes, with which they return in the same ship. *Ship's husbands* are agents in our seaports, whose duty it is, to purchase ship stores for their voyages, to procure cargoes on freight, obtain insurance policies, receive the amount of freight, pay the captain or master what is his due, and make out accounts of these transactions for the owners of the ships, performing the same offices on land, as the steward of a ship while at sea. Each of these agents is bound to perform certain prescribed acts, and is invested with those obligations which lie within the province of their separate agencies.

In order to secure the safety of property, as well as the vessels that may be wrecked upon any part of our coast, there are certain statutory regulations, in the several states, providing for the custody of such wrecks or cargoes. These several statutory enactments, however, vary in the several states, but they all have one common object. A wise forecast has also been exercised, by the government of the several states, in the

* For a particular account of the custom-house laws, we would refer our readers to Blunt's Commercial Digest, to which we have been greatly indebted in preparing this article.

establishment of quarantine regulations. The liability of the numerous vessels, that are continually arriving in our own ports from various parts of the world, to introduce contagious or infectious disorders, has rendered it necessary to pass certain regulations requiring all ships to remain a prescribed period, at a distance from the port, until their condition can be ascertained and all causes of conveying disease removed. For that purpose, proper grounds are marked out, where all vessels subject to quarantine, are to remain anchored until they are permitted to enter the port.

In order to insure the safe navigation of ships into port, it is customary and necessary to employ pilots. The assistance of this valuable body of men, is frequently called in, where vessels are to be guided through intricate and unknown channels, near dangerous sand bars, or into roads or harbors. Under such circumstances, the masters of vessels, confiding in the skill and experience of individuals acquainted with such unknown passages, rather than in their own, entrust to them the guidance of their ships, until these intricate places have been passed. There are certain points where it is customary to employ pilots; and a failure to engage them, will, in case of damage of an insured ship, consequent upon this neglect, discharge the insurers from paying the amount of the damage. The duty of regulating the acts of pilots, and the circumstances of pilotage, falls within the province of Congress; but as the local details necessary to form a proper general pilot law, could not easily be known, that body has left the establishment of the pilot law, so far as the licensing of pilots and fixing the rates of pilotage are concerned, to the several states. Each of the states, therefore, now possesses its own pilot laws, those which have been passed since 1789, and before 1837, being recognized as valid. The regulations of the several states, respecting pilots and pilotage, however, prescribe the same general duties.

The welfare of that large body of men, who are from time to time, afloat upon the ocean, as passengers in vessels, has also been made the subject of national legislation. It is enacted by a law of Congress, passed on the 2d of March, 1819, that no master shall take on board his vessel, at any foreign port, or convey into the United States from any foreign port, or transport from the United States to any foreign port, more than two persons for every five tons of such vessel, under a penalty to the master, as well as to the owner, each, of the sum of one hundred and fifty dollars for each passenger thus taken on board; and if the number of such passengers exceed the said proportion by the number of twenty in the whole, every such vessel is forfeited to the United States. For the further security of those on shipboard, it is also provided, that every vessel bound from the United States to any port on the continent of Europe, must have on board sixty gallons of water, one hundred pounds of salted provisions, one gallon of vinegar and one hundred pounds of wholesome ship bread, for every passenger on board, over and above what each passenger has provided for himself, and in the same proportion for shorter voyages; and if the passengers on board a vessel, in which such provision has not been made, be put on short allowance, the master and owner of such vessel must pay to each passenger the sum of three dollars for every day that they have been kept on such short allowance. The master of every vessel, arriving in the United States from any foreign place, must also deliver to the collector, a list of the passengers on board his vessel, their names, sex and occupations, the countries to which they belong, and

those of which they design to become inhabitants. Returns of these must be made quarterly to the secretary of state, and statements of the same, are made by him to Congress during each session. There are also other laws, enacted by the states, requiring that reports be made to the municipal authorities, of all alien passengers entering the several ports, and also requiring security that these shall not be made a public charge; the last requisition, being, however, sometimes subject to commutation.

Besides these general laws for the protection of navigation, there are also certain particular commercial regulations that have been made in the principal seaports, regarding vessels entering their harbors. It is evident, that, from the large amount of shipping continually entering the ports of the United States, certain clearly defined and well established regulations have become necessary. It happens, accordingly, that those regulations have been enacted for the principal harbors of the country, and their direct influence has been, to promote security to lives and property, as well as safety to the shipping.

We have given a brief sketch of the commercial system of the United States, established for the protection of commerce in its various departments, designedly avoiding an exhibition of that vast body of complex rules, relating to insurance and the rights and duties of seamen, falling within the province of general maritime law. We have confined our remarks to the local and statutory law of the country, because that is the distinctive feature which marks our own policy as Americans. It may be remarked, that our commercial legislation has been, in the main, clear-sighted and judicious; yet it could hardly be expected, that a nation, whose commerce has grown up within a very recent period, should, at all times, possess the forecast and judgment of our own country, when its head shall have been frosted with the experience of a thousand years.

With the growth of our commerce, and a more accurate knowledge of the commercial systems of other nations, our own commercial policy will become more firmly fixed, and be established upon a more advantageous and solid basis. The intimate commercial relations that we have established with the principal nations of Europe, through the agency of steam-navigation, as well as the large body of our shipping ploughing every sea, render a liberal, yet fixed commercial policy, in every way desirable. The first step has already been taken by the government, in their causing to be embodied, the regulations of those nations with which we have intercourse, in an accessible form, and in the collation of statistical facts, regarding the agricultural, mineral and manufactured productions of the country, in order that we may know what products we require from abroad, and what surplus we produce for export to other countries. The commerce of the United States, has ever been a source of individual wealth, as well as of national revenue. It will, doubtless, in future time, as it has before done, call into action a considerable portion of our most vigorous enterprise, as well as the most upright and elevated character. To insure its successful prosecution, we require only equitable laws and an enlightened policy.

ART. VI.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH CHINA.*

THE new commercial relations, that seem to be opening between our own government and the empire of China, perhaps warrant us in devoting a brief space to the consideration of the progress of our commerce with that country. Whatever might have been the grounds of the recent attack, by the British, upon their frontiers, (and we certainly shall not here discuss the question,) the result, doubtless, has been to induce, on their part, a more amicable and liberal commercial intercourse with foreign nations, and it is reasonable to presume that our own will share a portion of these opening advantages.

The commerce of our country with China, although not of very long standing, has still been a source of great profit to individuals engaged in the China trade. That singular people, heretofore isolated in their habits as a nation, and opposing around their entire frontier an almost impassable barrier to the ingress of strangers, has, for a long period, it is well known, carried on a large amount of commerce with the principal commercial nations of Europe, especially with the British empire; but this trade has been restricted to the frontier, and has been prosecuted without the walls of cities. Much the larger amount of foreign tonnage has, indeed, at all times, been moored without the harbor of Canton, her principal seaport. Containing a most dense population, scattered over her territory, remarkable for their industrious habits, China has been enabled to export abroad a large amount of the products of its own labor, by which, broad streams of wealth have been poured into various portions of that empire.

The principal exports to China from our own country, within the last few years, it is, perhaps, well known, have consisted of white and printed cottons, the most prominent article of export, as well as ginseng, skins and furs, and various other commercial products of minor value. The import trade with the Chinese empire, has been comprized mainly, of silks, teas, Nankeens, Chinaware and other articles less in amount. The remarkable industry of the population of that empire, will doubtless increase the number of the various articles of the exports of the country, as well as their aggregate quantity.

Since the principal commercial depot of the empire of China, is the city of Canton, we would devote a brief space to the consideration of its commerce. Notwithstanding the recent attack of the British navy upon the empire, tending to interrupt its ordinary pursuits, it appears from documents before us, that, in 1843, the entries into the port of Canton were 430 ships, with 178,478 tons, and that the "sailings" were 364 ships, with 149,744 tons. The principal countries carrying on commerce with Canton, at that time, were Great Britain, which had 131 ships, with 56,943 tons, while other states in Europe, had in the port 14 ships, with 3,262 tons. There were at that time, 37 ships belonging to the United States, with an aggregate of 17,342 tons; and other states in America, had 15 ships, with an aggregate of 5,539 tons. There was also one ship from Africa, carrying on commerce with that country. In Asia, 366 ships, belonging to British India, were engaged in the Canton trade,

* For an elaborate account of the commerce of China, see *Merchants' Magazine* for December, 1840, Vol. III, No. 6, pp. 465 to 481.

which possessed an aggregate of 164,356 tons; Spanish India had 191 ships, with a tonnage of 34,600; Dutch India had 31 ships, with a tonnage of 9,434; and Portuguese India, 16 ships, with a tonnage of 2,361. There were 2 ships, belonging to Siam, in the Canton trade; 41, belonging to northern China; and 35 ships of Oceanica, New Zealand and the Sandwich Isles, with an aggregate of 13,216 tons. We have thus given a condensed statement, of the shipping engaged in the Canton trade, for the purpose of exhibiting the general character of the foreign commerce of China, from its most prominent port.

In order to exhibit the progress of the commerce of the United States with China, for a series of years, we subjoin the following tables showing the direct China trade, from the year 1821 to 1842, a period of twenty-one years:—

VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO CHINA DIRECT; AND IMPORTS FROM CHINA.

Years.	Dom. Produce, &c.	Foreign merchandise, &c.	Tot. Exports.	Imports.
1821,.....	\$388,535	\$3,902,025	\$4,290,560	\$3,111,951
1822,.....	439,230	5,506,138	5,935,368	5,212,536
1823,.....	288,375	4,347,686	4,636,061	5,511,425
1824,.....	330,466	4,970,705	5,301,171	5,568,502
1825,.....	160,059	5,410,456	5,575,515	7,533,115
1826,.....	242,451	2,324,093	2,466,644	7,422,186
1827,.....	290,962	3,573,543	3,864,405	3,617,183
1828,.....	230,385	1,252,417	1,482,802	5,339,108
1829,.....	260,759	1,094,103	1,354,862	4,680,847
1830,.....	156,290	585,903	742,193	3,878,141
1831,.....	244,790	1,048,045	1,290,835	3,083,205
1832,.....	336,162	924,360	1,580,522	5,344,907
1833,.....	537,774	895,985	1,433,759	7,541,570
1834,.....	255,756	754,727	1,010,483	7,892,327
1835,.....	335,368	1,532,712	1,868,580	5,987,187
1836,.....	341,563	852,701	1,194,264	7,324,816
1837,.....	318,973	311,618	600,594	8,965,337
1838,.....	655,581	961,021	1,516,602	4,764,536
1839,.....	430,464	1,103,137	1,533,601	3,678,509
1840,.....	409,186	540,780	1,006,966	6,640,829
1841,.....	715,322	485,494	1,200,816	3,095,388

The chief articles of import and export, in these years, were as follows:—

Years.	EXPORTS TO CHINA—COTTONS.			IMPORTS FROM CHINA.	
	Printed.	White.	Twist.	Nankeens.	Silks.
1821,.....	\$298,079	\$1,317,846
1822,.....	758,371	2,389,210
1823,.....	595,681	3,122,186
1824,.....	177,015	2,430,856
1825,.....	310,548	3,060,148
1826,.....	\$154	\$14,777	274,970	2,746,754
1827,.....	9,388	172,668	1,333,227
1828,.....	10,981	304,674	2,234,190
1829,.....	25,943	\$85	452,873	1,616,693
1830,.....	52,080	3,764	176,739	971,670
1831,.....	49,256	87,184	1,306,322
1832,.....	86,580	95,972	2,027,503
1833,.....	64,881	127,813	15,941	30,339	1,363,082
1834,.....	146,881	2,378	46,845	1,010,158
1835,.....	2,552	170,175	6,433	927,017
1836,.....	15,351	70,395	28,348	1,297,770
1837,.....	11,997	189,255	2,514	35,990	2,104,981
1838,.....	11,280	507,560	13,257	27,049	965,572
1839,.....	6,360	255,975	2,379	978,183
1840,.....	361,995	14,478	1,100	779,629
1841,.....	357,332	14,264	217	285,773

It is quite probable, that the new relations of the Chinese empire with foreign countries, may so change the habits of the people, as to call for an additional amount of importations, as well as an additional variety to the articles imported. That a very marked change will be produced, by the opening of the Chinese empire to foreign commerce, there is but little doubt. Heretofore, our exports have been restricted to those articles, required by a people, who have scarcely advanced beyond the first stages of civilization, and they have been inconsiderable in amount. Subjoined, is a table, showing the various subjects of export to China, from our own country, in 1842, as well as the imports during the same period:—

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES FROM CHINA, IN 1842.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Candles,.....	\$1,708	Cotton,.....	\$67,695
Masts and spars,.....	200	Furniture,.....	764
Naval stores,.....	272	Hats,.....	2,830
Skins and furs,.....	18,000	Saddlery,.....	260
Ginseng,.....	63,000	Porter, ale, and cider,.....	580
Beef,.....	2,847	Candles and soap,.....	4,476
Pork, bacon, &c.,.....	1,789	Lead,.....	163,642
Butter and cheese,.....	306	Iron,.....	524
Tobacco,.....	2,518	“ manufactured,.....	12,400
Turpentine,.....	283	Drugs,.....	596
Cordage,.....	882	Twist, yarn, &c.,.....	18,255
Copper,.....	2,730	Presses and types,.....	783
Cotton manufactures,.....	337,470	Gold and coin,.....	18,000
Fire engines,.....	1,179		
Books and maps,.....	589	Total value of exports for	
Other manufactures,.....	1,548	the year,.....	\$737,509
Flour,.....	1,612	In American vessels,.....	703,506
Ship bread,.....	5,154	In foreign vessels,.....	34,203

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM CHINA, IN 1842.

Articles.	Value.
Teas,.....	\$4,367,101
Coffee,.....	1,968
All other articles,.....	4,421,666
Total value of imports,.....	\$8,790,735

It will, perhaps, be somewhat interesting, to notice briefly, the relative importance of the British and American trade, at Canton, of late years. For this purpose, we subjoin a statement, exhibiting the imported and exported values, in British and American ships, which are cited from documents made up from the declarations of the “linguists.” We are induced to add this table, because it is calculated to show the relative importance of the trade of the two nations, that are destined to become the most prominent rivals in the Chinese ports, as well as the decrease of the trade during the late disturbances. The various amounts are calculated in pounds sterling. The aggregate value of imports and exports, at Canton, were, in round numbers sterling, in

1837, about.....	£17,600,000	1841, val. of Brit. exports,....	2,849,000
1841, only.....	9,200,000	1837, val. of Am. imp., about	1,612,000
1827, val. of Brit. imp., about	7,540,000	“ “ exp.,.....	1,734,000
“ “ exp.,.....	6,516,000	1841, “ imp.,.....	440,000
1841, “ imp.,.....	4,600,000	“ “ exp.,.....	1,210,000

We have it, moreover, from an authoritative source, that the British trade to China has, very recently, been much increased, and that eighty

vessels, with full cargoes, have left the London docks since the month of March last, for the port of Canton.

We have thus exhibited, in a brief form, the most prominent features of our commerce with China, which, from the recent transactions in that empire, are destined to present some of the most interesting relations from the peculiar circumstances of the nation. The character of that people is but partially known, and the influence of commerce will doubtless be effective in opening to light its internal condition. It is reasonable to suppose, that favorable treaties may be negotiated by our own government, with the empire of China, through the agency of the diplomatic representative of the United States who is now there resident. No difficulties have heretofore existed between us. There are valuable commercial staples of China, used to a considerable extent in our market; and, on our part, we produce a large amount of those very products, especially cotton goods, that are required by its dense population. The diplomatic agent of this government, Mr. Cushing, it is understood, has advanced to Pekin; and those who are more especially interested in the subject, are awaiting with anxiety the returns that he may make of a successful negotiation. It appears from tables reported for the public journals, that, in 1843, there were twenty-four arrivals in the more northern ports of the United States, from Canton, and thirty-two clearances during the same period. With the more firm establishment of our commercial relations with the Chinese empire, there is no doubt that the number will be greatly increased, and that a new and profitable channel of intercourse will be opened with that extraordinary people.

ART. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

MEMOIR OF JACOB LORILLARD.*

JACOB LORILLARD, who, on his father's side, was of French, and on his mother's, of German descent, was born in the city of New York, in 1774. He appears to have commenced life without the advantages even of an ordinary education, and to have been, in a great measure, self-taught and self-made; but at a very early period he exhibited that energy of character and firmness of purpose which marked every stage of his subsequent course, and struggled manfully with the difficulties which beset his path. At the usual age, he was indentured as an apprentice to the business in which the greater part of his life was spent. In a situation so unfavorable to the improvement of his mind, he nevertheless attempted it, and after the laborious occupations of the day, instead of seeking recreation and repose, he passed his evenings in the patient study of the very elements of knowledge which are usually learned in childhood. But when he had, in some degree, supplied the deficiencies of his imperfect education, and acquired what was essential for the practical purposes of his calling in life, he was not satisfied with this measure of improve-

* The present beautiful tribute to the memory of a good man, from the pen of the Rev. William Berrian, D. D. was originally published in the Churchman. It is now published, with a few slight alterations, as one of our series of mercantile biographies.—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

ment. He mastered, in the same way, the French language, as he afterwards did the German, endeared to him, perhaps, from the circumstance of his descent, and thus obtained a better acquaintance with the principles of his own. His active and aspiring mind still aimed at something higher, and the way in which he gratified his love of general reading, was at once a proof of his industry and ambition. At the close of his wearisome days, he would engage at night in a fresh occupation at the establishment of his brothers, for which he received a suitable, though trifling compensation; and when these hard-earned gains had sufficiently accumulated, they were uniformly spent in the purchase of books, which, procured with so much difficulty, were read with profit and delight. Many of these are still in the possession of the family, and, as memorials of his patient industry and enlarged and liberal views, may well be regarded with pleasure and pride.

The modesty of his nature, and the diffidence he felt in these private acquisitions, prevented even many of his friends from knowing the extent to which his reading was carried. But it is said to have been a passion with him, and that, after the labors of the day, or the fatigues of a journey, he was never so weary as not to find it a recreation and solace; and in order to indulge it with an entire freedom from interruption and care, it was one of his favorite plans to withdraw from business as soon as he should have obtained a moderate competency, and to pass the remainder of his days in rural retirement. But his relations with the world, which had branched out in so many directions, and the restless activity of his mind, prevented the accomplishment of this scheme till his life itself was drawing to a close, and even then this day-dream was dissolved: for perplexities and cares broke in upon his repose, and left him no prospect of rest but that which remaineth to the people of God.

He entered upon business with a capital of a thousand dollars, increased by a loan from his brothers of double that amount, and from the skill, the foresight and the diligence, with which it was conducted, and from some adventitious advantages, his own part of it was eventually multiplied more than a thousand-fold. The foundation of his prosperity, was undoubtedly laid in his moral worth. His untiring industry, his uniform caution and constant vigilance, his purity of mind, which influenced all his aversions and desires, his thoughts and actions, his incorruptible integrity, which was never impeached nor questioned through the whole course of his life, his firmness and perseverance in carrying through the schemes which he had prudently devised and carefully matured—all these things were calculated to inspire a general confidence in him, in the minds of men, and to further his welfare and success.

But there was one other cause of his wealth, to which he himself occasionally referred. It was a favorite remark of his, and well worthy of note, that his prosperity arose from not having made haste to be rich. Simple in all his tastes and habits, well regulated in his affections and appetites, free from vanity, ostentation and pride, he had no extravagant desires either to urge him on in the eager pursuit of wealth, or to make him squander, in prodigality, the fruits of iniquity and fraud. Instead, therefore, of unduly extending his business, and in haste to enrich himself, being careless about the interests and claims of others; instead of running out into wild and visionary schemes, which are so tempting to the cupidity of men, and staking the laborious acquisitions of a life upon the

chances of a day, he was contented to follow the prudent methods of better times, to avoid unnecessary anxiety for the morrow, to keep innocence, and take heed to the thing that is right in regard to his neighbor, and to insure himself peace at the last. Whenever, therefore, the profits of his business were not needed for the enlargement of his capital, he was in the habit of investing them in real estate, selected very often in obscure and retired places, which would be unattractive to the speculator, and with greater regard to the security of the property than the immediate prospect of gain. But, in most cases, this very moderation and prudence turned to a better account than the grasping calculations of avarice itself—his own possessions increasing in value, securely and steadily, while those of others were often swept away by their extravagance and folly.

The sagacity, foresight and diligence, with which he managed his affairs, and the fair and honorable means by which he acquired his riches, would have been less worthy of admiration, had they not also been accompanied by liberal views and benevolent designs. His wealth, his influence and talents, were all directed, in an eminent degree, to the good of men and the glory of God. He had a high sense of his stewardship, and the kind impulses of his heart urged him on to the cheerful performance of his duty.

He took a particular delight in countenancing, in helping and advising young men of merit in the outset of life. He was quick in penetrating into the character of those around him, and nice in his observation of their course; and when, from their industry, their prudence and capacity, he saw fit to select them for the exercise of his favor, he was inflexible in his attachment to them, and unailing in his kindness. The details, received by the writer of this sketch, from one who loved him as a friend, and revered him as a father, and whose heart was poured out like water, on the news of his death, represented him in a light so amiable, so confiding, so overflowing in generosity and kindness, that no one could hear them without admiration and emotion. And this, it was remarked, was only an instance of that favor and goodness of which many besides him had been partakers.

Another manifestation of the exercise of his benevolent feelings towards young beginners, who were needy and friendless, was peculiarly interesting. When a director of that institution, of which he was twice the president, he would frequently take a parcel of the small notes which were offered for discount by poor mechanics, who were obscure and unknown, and which, therefore, for the most part, would have been rejected, and make diligent inquiry, in person, as to their character and standing; and if he found that, with a proper regard to the interests of the bank, he could commend them to favor and confidence, he felt that he was abundantly rewarded for all his pains.

On one occasion, a person whose note had been refused where it was offered for discount, and who, it appears, had no peculiar claims on his kindness and influence, though possessing his confidence, called on him for a line of recommendation, which would be sure to procure the desired accommodation. He at once, as it seemed, complied with the desired request; instead of being a line of recommendation, however, it was afterwards discovered to be a note of Mr. Lorillard for the amount which was needed. The person immediately returned, and pointed out the mis-

take ; never mind, said Mr. Lorillard, if they will not discount your note, see whether they will not mine.

Another instance is related of his kind consideration for the interests of others. He was appointed an executor to an estate in which the widow had a life-interest, but where each of the children was to receive a thousand dollars on coming to age. When, in the first case, this period had arrived, one of the sons called on him for the amount of this bequest ; and what, he said, do you wish to do with it ? To purchase stock with it in a particular bank. At what is it now selling ? A hundred and ten. Have you any objections to leave the money with me on interest till the 1st of May, and then I will let you have the stock at the same rate ? In the meantime, it fell, as he anticipated, to eighty-four. When this change took place, the young man was greatly depressed. He called at the time appointed to fulfil the engagement. The stock is ready for you, Mr. Lorillard playfully remarked ; however, if you prefer it, I will release you from the contract, and the money may remain where it is. It may easily be conceived that the young man left him grateful and rejoicing.

But there is one noble act of generosity and kindness, which stands out so prominently, and is at the same time so creditable both to the agent and object, that it is hoped the notice of it will not be deemed a violation of delicacy. One who had been the companion of his youth, and the friend of his age, and who, like him, had been blessed with prosperity and honor, was suddenly overtaken by calamity and threatened with ruin. When he received the news, he was affected even to tears. This shall not be, said he, if I can sustain him, I will mortgage my property first ; and he did so. He immediately assumed all the debts of his friend to a particular institution, which were heavy. When creditors, knowing the intimacy which subsisted between them, crowded around him to ascertain the truth or falsehood of the rumored failure, he simply replied, "Bring me the notes which are due to you, and on the usual guarantee I will pay them." He did do it, to a large amount ; and by the aid which he rendered, and the confidence he inspired, he not only sustained and re-established his friend, but the whole profits of the operation for the risk which he incurred were entirely devoted to charity.

These are not merely a few solitary instances of kindness scattered throughout a long tract of time, but an illustration of the habits of his life. There are scarcely any of that numerous class, who were engaged in the same business with him, who have not some personal and grateful recollection of it, a striking proof of which, is to be found in a circumstance that occurred when he partially withdrew from the active duties of life, and retired to his retreat in the neighborhood of the city. The whole fraternity spontaneously met to express, in the deepest and most heartfelt manner, their sense of his kindness and worth, and to present to him a beautiful memorial of their attachment and respect.

His benevolence, was not, however, confined to a narrow channel, but was as expansive as the misery and want which cried to him for aid. What is known of it, excites admiration ; but there is reason to believe that more of it is hidden, except from the objects of his bounty and the all-seeing eye of God. The silence which was imposed by his wishes, on the lips of many, during his life, has been broken since his death. His acts of charity to the sick, the needy and the stranger, were exercised daily and hourly at his home, and amidst the engagements of busi-

ness, in a spirit of kindness which was never chilled, and with a patience that was more remarkable than his alms. But he did not merely wait for the appeals of the distressed to touch his feelings, but from the considerate kindness of his own heart, often committed large sums to a confidential agent, with an injunction that his name should be concealed, to be distributed among those persons, whose office, it was, to minister to the wants of the hungry and naked. In the way of loans to students, who were in need of all things—to clergymen, who were straitened in their means—to kinsmen and friends, whose misfortunes and necessities called for relief, his benevolence took a wider range: for, in many instances, he never intended to reclaim them, and in others, he was aware that there was no reasonable prospect they could ever be repaid. With respect to servants, he considered that he held a kind of paternal relation to them; and when they had served him long and faithfully, he was in the habit, on their leaving him, of giving them an outfit, and following them through life with his countenance and favor.

In addition to the sums which were dispensed by him in the ever-flowing stream of his bounty, it was a settled rule with him, upon which he acted through life, to devote all the monies which came to him, either in a way that was unexpected, or from debts which had been considered as lost, to pious and charitable purposes. He was a little peculiar and fanciful in some of his benevolent feelings and habits. The scarfs which he received in attending funerals, were always regarded as the perquisite of the poor; and he was thought, by many, to be too free and indiscriminating in the exercise of his bounty, for "even his failings leaned to virtue's side." On one occasion, in the depth of winter, a woman whom he had often relieved, called upon him for a little assistance to procure some wood. Having some doubts of her worthiness, he said that he would inquire about her, and dismissed her without any relief. A short time after, he left his office in company with a gentleman who had been present at the interview, and observing a cartman with a load of wood on his cart, he asked the price of it, and directed him to take it to a certain street and number, which was the place where the disappointed petitioner resided. His companion remarked, with some surprise, "Did you not say that you intended to make some inquiry about her?" "While I should have been inquiring about the matter, the poor woman might have frozen to death." Indeed, the benignity of his countenance, the kindness of his manner, and the ease and cheerfulness with which he rendered assistance, gave additional grace to his acts of charity.

But there is one important circumstance, in reference to this point, which ought not to pass unnoticed. The plainness and simplicity of his habits, in dress, in furniture and his whole mode of living—his separation from the pomps and vanities of the world, and his entire freedom from all ostentatious and expensive tastes, left him an ample fund for the free and liberal indulgence of those benevolent feelings which God had inspired, thus furnishing a happy exemplification of those beautiful lines:—

"For what his charity impairs,
He saves by prudence in affairs."

The union of so many excellences of character, with strong natural powers and much acquired knowledge, will easily account for the great consideration and influence which he obtained in society. Such was the

confidence, both in his integrity and judgment, that he was absolutely oppressed by the weight of his public and private trusts. He was connected with a great number of mercantile, literary, benevolent and religious institutions in all of which he was active and useful, and in some enjoyed an undisputed pre-eminence. He was a member of the New York Lyceum and Horticultural Society, a trustee of the General Theological Seminary, a warden of St. Andrew's Church, Harlaem, a vestryman of Trinity Church, New York, president of the German Society, the Mechanics' Society and the Mechanics' Bank. To the interests of the last institution, he applied the whole energies of his mind, and with so much effect, as to have twice delivered it from serious embarrassments, if not from greater evils; but, alas! it is to be feared, at the expense of health and the abridgment of his days.

But the highest distinction of this excellent man, was his deep and unaffected piety. At the early age of seventeen years, he consecrated at the altar, his body and soul to the service of God; and neither the engagements of business, nor the temptations of prosperity, ever diverted him from it, but he lived and died in the Lord. In his personal character, as well as in the purity and benevolence of his life, he was a faithful follower of his meek and lowly Master. In the bosom of his family, he was an instructor, example and guide. Each morning and evening, all were gathered around him in family prayer; and on the Lord's day, he uniformly devoted a portion of it to the religious instruction of his children by a simple and familiar exposition of the scriptures.

It may well be supposed, that such a pure and well-spent life would have a serene and peaceful close. When he perceived that his death was approaching, which he had not expected until it was near at hand, there was no agitation nor fear, but he was calm, submissive and resigned. Like the patriarch of old, he called his children around him, and, beginning with the youngest, he gave, in the most affecting and impressive manner, to each one of them, according to their respective dispositions, characters and habits, the admonition, counsel or encouragement, which was appropriate to the case; and shortly after, with a hope full of immortality, he sank away easily and gently, and slept in the Lord.

The old friends and neighbors, with whom he had been so long associated in business, immediately met together to express their deep and unaffected grief at his loss, and to testify their profound respect for his memory, and they gave a touching instance of it, by resolving forthwith, in a body, to close their offices and stores. In this feeling, in a greater or less degree, thousands participated: "Blessed are the dead who die in the Lord, for their works do follow them."

ART. VIII.—THE GOLD MINES OF NORTH CAROLINA.

THE first mine discovered in North Carolina was Reid's, in the south-east part of Cabarrus county, in 1801 or 1802. Parker's mine, in Montgomery county, (which adjoins Cabarrus,) was discovered in 1815, on the same stream, (Meadow creek.) In 1818, Dunn's mine was discovered in Mecklenburg, about eight miles northwest of Charlotte. The mines Burke county were discovered in 1828. From these periods, down to the

present time, new mines, of more or less value, have been discovered. These mines are of two kinds, viz: 1. alluvial deposits, or surface mines; and 2. vein mines. The first class occupied the early attention of miners, and is still extensively carried on in Burke, Rutherford and other auriferous regions of the western part of North Carolina. The precious metal of these mines, is obtained by washing among the sand, or pebbles of quartz, and is a simple process. The vein mines, constitute, principally, the mines in the vicinity of Charlotte, where the gold is found by excavating, and is not distinguishable by the eye, in the ore. In the early workings of these mines, the gold was found in small pieces, from the size of a pennyweight down to particles of extreme minuteness. In 1803, at Reid's mine, a negro found one lump that weighed twenty-eight pounds, avoirdupois. This was worth \$8,000. Jameson, in his "Mineralogy," says, the largest piece of gold found in Europe only weighed twenty-two ounces. This was found at Micklow, in Ireland. Professor Olmsted, now of Yale College, but formerly a professor of chemistry and mineralogy, in the University of North Carolina, states, that Mr. Reid found at his mine a mass of white flint (quartz) having a projecting point of gold of the size of a pins's head. On breaking it open, a brilliant display of green and yellow colors was presented, which was described as being exceedingly beautiful. The gold weighed twelve pennyweights. We regret that these earlier and splendid specimens of the mineral wealth of the county, were carried abroad to decorate the museums and cabinets of other nations. They should have found a safe depository at home. We rejoice, however, to know, that our government now affords, at the mother mint, in Philadelphia, a proper deposit for them; and interest, if not patriotism, will, we trust, dictate to those in the region of the gold mines, who may hereafter find these specimens, not to destroy them. The amount of gold coined at Philadelphia, from North Carolina, up to 1843, was \$2,939,737. The amount coined at the branch, in Charlotte, North Carolina, from the establishment of the mint, in 1838, to 1843, was \$953,035. One merchant in North Carolina, states, that his purchases of gold, from 1828 to 1839, was nearly \$300,000, as copied from his bullion accounts; and three-fourths of it went to New York, and was there assayed and sold. Another states, that his purchases, since 1828, have averaged \$6,000 per annum; and that he carried nearly all to New York, and from thence it was sent to Europe. The reason assigned by these gentlemen, for carrying their gold to New York, was, that the assayers in New York gave an additional value, above the mint, for the purposes of commerce. The addition of the premium, probably.

In 1830, in a report to the legislature of North Carolina, it is stated, that the product of the mines, in that year, was \$500,000. This statement was probably correct at the time, as we find, by the official report, that the mint at Philadelphia coined from the bullion of North Carolina, in 1832, \$458,000; in 1833, \$475,000; and, in 1834, \$380,000. Colonel J. T. Avery, in 1840, in a letter to Mr. Wheeler, of the mint in Charlotte, estimates the total product of Burke and Rutherford, alone, to be \$6,000,000; while, he adds, "Mr. Forney and others, who lived among the mines, estimated the gross amount at \$12,000,000." This is doubtless, too high; and the estimate of Mr. Avery is probably nearer the truth. The products of the mines have been gradually diminishing since 1835, when the high price of cotton drew off the greater portion of the

force to the southwest. Mr. Wheeler, the gentleman before alluded to, estimates the products of the mines, in North Carolina, at \$10,000,000 since their discovery; and their annual product, up to 1840, at \$400,000.

It is not generally known, we believe, in the eastern states, that there is a private manufactory of coin in North Carolina. We have seen some of the pieces, struck at the mint of a Mr. Bechtler, of Rutherford, North Carolina, who has coined a large portion of the gold produced in the counties of Burke and Rutherford. Mr. Bechtler states, that from January, 1831, to February, 1840, he coined \$2,241,840 50; and fluxed, (or melted in bars,) 1,729,998 pennyweights. Much of this bullion may have been coined at Philadelphia; but as it answered the purposes of trade, at the south, and the community having a just confidence in the purity of the metal, much of it is carried by travellers, emigrants, traders and others, into Kentucky, Tennessee and elsewhere, that probably never found its way to the United States mint. Mr. John K. Wheeler, the superintendent of the United States branch mint, at Charlotte, North Carolina, says, but little of it has been recoined at that mint, not over \$500. Much of it is believed to be still extant among the farmers, not only in Tennessee and Kentucky, but North Carolina, laid up, with prudent foresight, for future use.

The following statement, as to Bechtler's coinage, is extracted from his books, and may therefore be relied on as correct:—

	<i>Coined.</i>	<i>Fluxed.</i>
From Jan., 1831, to Dec., 1834,	\$109,732 50	395,804 dwts.
“ Dec., 1834, to Dec., 1835,	695,896 00	711,583 “
“ Dec., 1835, to Aug., 1836,	471,322 50	397,410 “
“ Aug., 1836, to May, 1838,	770,239 50	201,141 “
“ May, 1838, to Feb., 1840,	194,560 00	24,060 “
	\$2,241,840 50	1,729,998 “

This, including a period of nine years, would give an average of \$250,000 a year, coined. If, to the coinage, is added the amount of bullion fluxed, or melted by him, (1,730,000 pennyweights, at eighty cents per pennyweight, which is its average assay here, equal to \$1,384,000,) it would show, that there passed through his hands alone, within this period, \$3,625,840 of gold bullion, the products of the mines of that region, which would show an average of more than \$400,000 annually.

Mr. Wheeler gives the following tables, as the data, upon which the opinion, we quoted above, is founded, “that the total amount of gold bullion found in the gold region of North Carolina, from the discovery of the mines, amounts to \$10,000,000; and the annual product, up to 1840, at \$400,000.”

Coined at the United States mints, to 31st Dec., 1839,..	\$3,000,000
Amount of bullion passed through Mr. Bechtler's hands,.	3,625,000
Bullion sold to manufacturers, sent to Europe, carried in bars to the west, &c., &c.,.....	3,375,000
	\$10,000,000

Data upon which the opinion is founded, “that the annual product of the mines, at this time, is \$400,000:”

Coined in 1839, at Charlotte branch mint,.....	\$162,767 50
“ “ Philadelphia, (estimated,).....	50,000 00
“ “ Bechtler's, estimated from his books,.....	150,000 00
Bullion sold to manufacturers, sent to Europe, carried west, &c., &c.,.....	37,232 50
	<hr/>
	\$400,000 00

Many of the mines of North Carolina, in their most productive state, belonged to foreigners, or were leased by them; the agents or managers, were also foreigners, and the capital was from abroad. The agents, then, often made prompt returns, by remitting the bullion direct to Europe. This was the case with the Chevalier Revifinoli.

Mr. Rothe, a miner and mineralogist, from Saxony, in some notes on the gold mines of North Carolina, published in Silliman's Journal, states, that "veins of two feet in thickness, in other mining countries, have been followed 2,000 feet deep with little or no variation." He states, that the veins in these mines are from two to four feet in thickness; and, after a careful examination, he concludes that these ores will compare with any in Europe, and richer than those in Brazil. The greatest depth that any shaft had been sunk in these mines, to 1840, was 175 feet, (the Charlotte mine;) the Capps mine to 163 feet.

ART. IX.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.*

NUMBER I.

1609. *Voyage of Hudson*.—Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in the service of the Dutch, left Texel in the beginning of this year, with a design of penetrating to the East Indies by sailing a northwest course. Having attempted, in vain, he followed the track which the Cabots had marked for him above a century before. He sailed into the river Manhattan, and departed in October for England. The Dutch sent ships, the next year, to open a trade with the natives.

1616. *Tobacco*, was about this time, first cultivated by the English in Virginia.

Ships sent to New England.—Four ships sailed from London, and four from Plymouth, (England,) to New England, whence they carried great quantities of fish and oil, which were sold advantageously in Spain and the Canary islands.

1618. *Virginia Exports*.—The only commodities exported from Virginia, at this time, were tobacco and sassafras; the labor of the planter was diminished, and the agricultural interest advanced, by the introduction of the plough.

* In the compilation of these Annals of American Commerce, we have consulted only the best and most authoritative sources, so numerous, that we have thought best to omit them altogether, as they would only serve to encumber our pages with a repetition of names and titles, and occupy almost as much space as the facts selected for publication, which embrace brief notices of almost everything to be found touching the history and progress of trade and commerce, in this country, during its colonial dependence on Great Britain, and since the establishment of a republican form of government.—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

1619. *Tobacco*.—King James prohibited the sale of tobacco, in gross or retail, either in England or Ireland, until the custom should be paid and the royal seal affixed. Twenty thousand pounds of tobacco were exported this year, from Virginia to England, the whole crop of the preceding year.

1621. *Parliamentary Acts respecting Tobacco*.—The English parliament resolved, "that all foreign tobacco shall be barred, but that of Virginia, or any of the king's dominions, shall not be held foreign." A bill, for the restraint of the inordinate use of tobacco, was soon after brought in, which, after various amendments, passed in May. Its requisitions are very remarkable. No tobacco was to be imported after the 1st of October, 1621, but from Virginia and the Somers isles, and, after that day, none was to be planted in England. There was to be paid to the king, for custom, sixpence a pound, in consideration of the loss he might sustain in his revenue. None was to be sold by the merchant for more than eight shillings the pound, but they who should sell tobacco by the pipe, might make the most they could. This is the first instance, which occurs, of the modern policy of promoting the importation of the colonies in preference to the production of foreign nations.

1622. *Wine and Tobacco*.—The tobacco exported from Virginia to England, on an average, for seven years previous to 1622, was 142,085 pounds a year. Wine, made in Virginia, and a specimen of it sent to England.

Fishery.—Thirty-five ships sailed this year from the west of England, and two from London, to fish on the New England coasts, and made profitable voyages.

Restraint on the Trade to New England.—The Plymouth company having complained to King James of the encroachments and injuries of interlopers on their American commerce and possessions, and applied to him for relief, the king issued a proclamation, commanding that none should frequent the coasts of New England, but the adventurers and planters, or traffic with the Indians, otherwise than by the license of the council of Plymouth. "This remarkable edict," says Chalmers, "far from proving beneficial to the company, really brought on its dissolution."

1624. *Fishing*.—About fifty English ships, came in the spring of this year, to fish on the coasts of New England.

1626. *Newfoundland Fishery*.—The coast of Newfoundland, for most of the late years, was frequented by two hundred and fifty sail of English vessels, estimated at 15,000 tons, employing 5,000 persons, and an annual profit of about £135,000 sterling.

1627. *Trade of Plymouth Colony*.—The governor and others, hired the trade of the colony for six years; and for this privilege, together with the shallop and the pinnace built at Monamet, undertook to pay £1,800 and all other debts of the planters; to bring over to them £50 a year, in hoes, shoes, and sell them for corn at six shillings a bushel; and, at the end of the term, return the trade to the colony.

1628. *Dutch Trade with Plymouth*.—A Dutch bark, from Manhattan, arrived at Plymouth. The people of Plymouth bought various goods. After this commencement of trade, the Dutch often sent goods to the same place, and a traffic was continued for several years. The Plymouth colonists, sold much tobacco for linens, stuffs and other articles, and derived

great advantage from this commerce until the Virginians found out the Dutch colony.

1631. *Corn made a Legal Tender.*—In Massachusetts colony, the court of assistants ordered, that corn should pass for payment of all debts at the usual rate for which it was sold, unless money or bearer were expressly named.

1633. *Trade in Connecticut.*—Several vessels went into the Connecticut river, in the course of the year, to trade.

1639. *Act to Encourage the Fishery.*—The legislature of Massachusetts passed an act, to free from all duties and public taxes, all estates employed in catching, making or transporting fish.

1641. *Trading House at Narraganset.*—Richard Smith purchased of the sachems, a tract of land in the Narraganset country, remote from the English settlements, erected a house of trade, and gave full entertainment to all travellers.

1642. *Trading House at the Delaware.*—The people of New Haven, intending to make a plantation at Delaware, sent agents, who purchased of the natives several tracts of land on both sides of Delaware bay or river, and erected a trading house. Krest, the Dutch governor at New Netherlands, without any legal protest or warning, sent armed men to the Delaware, who burned the trading house and seized the goods.

Iroquois Trade with the Dutch.—The Iroquois entered into a considerable commerce with the Dutch, at New Netherlands, to whom they disposed of their peltry, and who, in return, furnished them with firearms, by which means they obtained a decided superiority over the Hurons.

1645. *Impost on Wines, &c.*—The general court of Massachusetts, levied an impost on wines and strong liquors, for the support of government, the maintenance of fortifications and the protection of the harbors.

Iron Works at Lynn.—The general court of Massachusetts, this year, granted liberty to make iron. A work was set up in Lynn, and, for a considerable time, was carried on with spirit, but, at length, through some fault, failed.

Virginia Currency.—The legislature of Virginia, prohibited dealing by barter, and established the Spanish piece of eight, at six shillings, as the standard currency for that colony.

1646. *Impost on Exports from Connecticut.*—In an agreement made in 1644, between George Fenwick and agents of the colony of Connecticut, it was stipulated, that a certain duty on corn, biscuit, beaver and cattle, which should be exported from the river's mouth, should be paid to Fenwick for the space of ten years. This agreement was confirmed, the succeeding year, by the legislature, which, at the same time, passed an act imposing a duty of twopence per bushel on all grain, sixpence on every hundred weight of biscuit, and a small duty on all beaver exported from the mouth of the river during the same period.

Commercial Ordinance.—By an ordinance of the lords and commons of England, all merchandise, goods and necessaries, for the American plantations, were exempted from duty for three years, on condition that no ship or vessel, in any of the colonial ports, be suffered to land any goods, of the growth of the plantations, and carry them to foreign ports, excepting in English bottoms. This was the foundation of those subsequent navigation acts, which have been termed "the Commercial Palladium of England."

1647. *Trade with the West Indies.*—A trade was opened this year, between New England and Barbadoes, and other islands in the West Indies, which was profitable to the colonists and helped them to discharge their engagements with England.

1651. *Navigation Act.*—The parliament of England passed the famous navigation act. England now turned its attention towards the most effectual mode of retaining the colonies in dependence on the parent state, and of securing to it the benefits of their increasing commerce. With these views, the parliament enacted—"That no merchandise, either of Asia, Africa, or America, including also the English plantation there, should be imported into England, in any but English built ships, and belonging either to England, or English plantation subjects, navigated also by an English commander, and three-fourths of the sailors to be Englishmen, excepting such merchandise as should be imported directly from the original place of their growth or manufacture, in Europe, solely; and that no fish should, thenceforward, be imported into England or Ireland, nor exported thence to foreign ports, nor even from one of their own home ports, but what should be caught by their own fisheries only." This act, was evaded at first by New England, which still traded in all ports, and enjoyed a privilege peculiar to themselves, of importing their goods into England, free of customs. It was afterwards a source of difficulty to the colony.

1652. *First Mint in Massachusetts.*—The first mint was erected in New England for coining money. The money coined, was in shillings, sixpences and threepences. The law enacted, that "Massachusetts" and a tree in the centre, be on one side, and "New England" and the year of our Lord, and the figures XII., VI., III., according to the value of each piece, be on the other side. The several coins had N. E. on one side, and the number, with the year 1652, on the other. This date was never altered, though more coin was stamped annually for thirty years.

1655. *Change in the Virginia Currency.*—The Virginia legislature changed the Spanish piece of eight from six shillings, and established it five shillings sterling, as the standard of its currency.

1660. *Navigation Act Altered and Confirmed.*—The celebrated navigation act of 1651, continued, with additions. It enacted, that no sugar, tobacco, ginger, indigo, cotton, fustic, dying-woods, of the growth of the English territories in America, Asia or Africa, shall be transported thence to any other country, than those belonging to the crown of England, under the penalty of forfeiture; and all vessels sailing to the plantations were to give bonds to bring said commodities to England. The most submissive colonists considered the act as grievous, and contrived various methods to evade it. While the parliament restrained the colonial trade to England, it conferred the privilege of the sole production of tobacco to the plantations.

1662. *Law Establishing a Mint in Maryland.*—The assembly of Maryland besought the proprietary to take order for setting up a mint, and a law was passed for that purpose. "The great hindrance to the colony, in trade, for the want of money," is assigned as the reason for the measure. It was enacted, that the money coined, shall be of as good silver as English sterling; that every shilling, and so in proportion for other pieces, shall weigh above ninepence in such silver; and that the proprietary shall accept of it in payment of his rents and other debts. This

coin, being afterwards circulated, the present law was confirmed among the perpetual laws of Maryland, in 1676. This is the only law for coining money, which occurs in colonial history, previous to the American revolution, excepting the ordinance of Massachusetts, in 1652.

1663. *Act of Parliament, Engrossing the Colonial Trade.*—An act of parliament was passed, to monopolize the colonial trade for England. It prohibited the importation, into any of the English colonies, in Asia, Africa or America, of any commodities of the growth, production or manufacture, of Europe, except they were laden or shipped in England, Wales or the town of Berwick upon Tweed, and in English built shipping, and which were to be carried directly to the said colonies, with an exception of salt for the fisheries, wines from Madeira and Azores, and all sorts of victuals from Scotland and Ireland. By this act, the British colonist could obtain no European goods, but through the ports in England. A drawback of the duties, however, was generally allowed on the exportation of those goods to the colonies.

1665. *Massachusetts Shipping.*—The number of its ships and vessels, was about eighty, from twenty to forty tons; about forty, from forty to one hundred tons; and about twelve ships, above one hundred tons.

1669. *Hudson's Bay Company.*—Charles II. gave to Prince Rupert, and several lords, knights and merchants, associated with him, a charter, under the title of "The governor and company of adventurers, of England, trading into Hudson's Bay." The charter ceded to the company, the whole trade of the waters within the entrance of Hudson's straits, and of the adjacent territories. The entire sum which constitutes the original funds of the company, amounts to £10,500 sterling. The general opinion, in Forster's time, was, that the proprietors of this stock, who were not then ninety in number, gained about 2,000 per cent.

1671. *Commissioners of Trade and Plantations.*—A board of commissioners of trade, &c., was established at London. The first thing done, was to settle the form of a circular letter to the governors of all his majesty's plantations and territories, in the West Indies and islands belonging to them. What the board most insisted on, was, to know the condition of New England, whose spirit of liberty, with her power and influence, seem already to have excited the jealousy of the parent country. Evelyn, himself, one of the board, says: "What we most insisted on, was to know the condition of New England, which, appearing to be very independent as to their regard to England or his majesty, rich and strong as they now were, there were great debates in what style to write them, for the condition of that colony was such, that they were able to contest with all other plantations about them, and there was a fear of their breaking from all dependence on this nation."

1672. *Duties laid by Parliament on the Colonies.*—The commerce of the American colonies had already been regulated and restrained by the parliament of England. The parliament, considering the colonies as proper objects of taxation, enacted, that, if any vessel, which by law may trade in the plantations, shall take on board any commodities, and a bond with sufficient security, shall not have been given to unlade them in England, there shall be rendered to his majesty, for sugars, tobacco, ginger, cocoa-nut, indigo, logwood, fustic, cotton, wool, the several duties mentioned in the law. The duties of tonnage and poundage had been imposed, and extended to every dominion of the crown, at the restoration;

but this was the first act which imposed customs on the colonies alone, to be regularly collected by colonial revenue officers.

1676. *Custom of Tobacco in Virginia.*—The whole custom of tobacco from Virginia, collected in England this year, was £135,000 sterling. Maryland was probably included.

1678. *New York Exports and Imports.*—Its annual exports, besides peas, beef, pork, tobacco and peltry, were about 60,000 bushels of wheat. Its annual imports were to the value of about £50,000.

1681. *Commerce and Customs of Portsmouth.*—During the year, ending with April, 1681, there were entered at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, forty-nine vessels, from ten to one hundred and fifty tons burden. The amount of the provincial customs, levied at that port during the same year, arising from taxes on wines and liquors, and one penny a pound of the value on the first cost imported, was £61 3s. 1d. This was money of the province, which was of less value than sterling, thirty-three and one-third per cent.

1682. *Trade of Pennsylvania.*—The regulation and improvement of trade and commerce, in Pennsylvania, already engaged attention. A publication appeared this year, entitled: "The Articles of the Free Society of Traders in Pennsylvania, agreed upon by divers Merchants, for the better Improvement and Government of Trade in that Province."

1683. *Carolina.*—To remedy the distress felt, by want of a common measure of commerce, the parliament of Carolina "raised the value of foreign coins," and suspended all prosecution for foreign debts. The first of these acts, gave rise to the currency of Carolina, which afterward became extremely depreciated. The second, though at first confirmed by the proprietaries, was afterward dissented from, "because it was contrary to the king's honor, since it was, in effect, to stop the course of justice; because the parliament had no power to enact a law so contrary to those of England." They also issued orders, "that all officers should be displaced who had promoted it."

1686. *New York.*—The city incorporated by a charter. The shipping belonging to the city of New York, had increased to nine or ten three-mast vessels, of about eighty or ninety tons; two hundred ketches or barks, of about forty tons; and about twenty sloops, of twenty-five tons.

1690. *First Paper Money in the Colonies.*—The government of Massachusetts, issued bills of credit as a substitute for money, and these were the first issued in the American colonies.

1694. *Annapolis made a Port Town.*—The town of Severn, Ann county, in Maryland, was made a port town, and the residence of a collector and naval officer, and received the name of Annapolis.

1695. *Rice in Carolina.*—The planting of rice was introduced, about this time, into Carolina.

1696. *Shipping of New York.*—The shipping of New York, at this time, consisted of forty ships, sixty-two sloops and sixty boats.

Board of Trade and Plantations.—King William erected a new and standing council, for commerce and plantations, styled, the lords, commissioners for trade and plantations. With this board, the governors of the American colonies were obliged to hold a constant correspondence, for the improvement of their respective governments; and to this board, they

transmitted the journals of their councils and assemblies, the accounts of the collectors of customs and naval officers, &c.

1699. *Wool Manufactures of America*.—Complaints being made in England, that the wool and woollen manufactures of North American plantations began to be exported to foreign markets, formerly supplied by England, a law was made, by which no person might export, in ships, or carry, by horses, into any other place or colony out of the king's dominions, any wool or woollen manufactures of the English plantations in America, under forfeiture of ships and cargoes, and also of £500 penalty. This is the first mention, in the English statute book, of woollen manufactures in the American colonies.

1700. *Population of Boston*.—Boston, at this time, contained about 1,000 houses and above 7,000 souls.

1701. *Duty Imposed by Carolina*.—The assembly of Carolina, imposed a duty of three-farthings a skin, exported by residents, but double, if sent out in English vessels.

Newfoundland Fishery, employed this year, one hundred and twenty-one vessels, collectively, amounting to nearly 8,000 tons burden.

1702. *First Paper Currency of Carolina*.—A bill, passed by the provincial assembly, for stamping bills of credit which were to be sunk in three years by a duty laid upon liquors, skins and furs. This was the first paper money, issued in Carolina. For five or six years after its emission, it passed in the country at the same value and rate with the sterling money of England.

1703. *Culture of Silk in Carolina*.—Sir Nathaniel Johnson, about this time, introduced the raising of silk into Carolina, but the planters fixed on rice for their staple commodity.

1704. *Rhode Island Tonnage Duty*.—The legislature of Rhode Island, imposed a tonnage duty on all vessels not wholly owned by the inhabitants of that colony.

Regulation of Coins.—The American colonies, experiencing great inconveniences from the difference in the value of the same coin, Queen Anne, to remedy the evil by a general medium, published a proclamation "for settling and ascertaining the current rates of foreign coin, in her majesty's plantations, in America."

1712. *Bank Bills Issued*.—South Carolina established a public bank, and issued £48,000 in bills of credit, called bank bills, to be lent out at interest on landed, or personal security, and to be sunk gradually, by £4,000 a year. Hewatt, says: "Soon after the emission of these bills, the rate of exchange and the price of produce, rose, and in the first year, advanced 150, in the second, 200 per cent."

1713. *Connecticut*.—But one clothier in the colony. It had scarcely any foreign commerce. Its principal trade was with Boston, New York and the West Indies.

1714. *The First Schooner* is said to have been built about this time, at Cape Ann, by Captain Andrew Robinson.

1715. *Boston Lighthouse*.—The legislature of Massachusetts, passed an act for erecting a lighthouse on Beacon Island, at the entrance of Boston harbor.

Pig and Bar Iron, began, about this time, to be made in Virginia.

1716. *Exports from Mississippi*.—Two ships went to France, richly

laden, from the river Mississippi; and these were the first which carried over any merchandise from the Louisiana colony since its settlement.

Fish from Newfoundland.—From the Newfoundland fishery, there were exported to Spain, Portugal and Italy, 106,952 quintals of fish.

1717. *New Orleans Founded.*—In expectation of great advantages from the trade and commerce of Louisiana, the French were zealous to support this new settlement; and this year, accordingly, the foundation of New Orleans was laid.

The Trade of Massachusetts, employed 3,493 sailors and 492 ships, making 25,406 tons.

1718. *Import Bill of Massachusetts.*—An import bill was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts, which laid a duty, not only on West India goods and wines, but also on English manufactures, and a duty of tonnage on English ships. The duty on English goods, was 1 per cent. Before the session in May, the next year, the governor received instructions from the king to give all encouragement to the manufactures of Great Britain; and afterward received a reprimand from the lords justices, the king being absent, for consenting to the duty on English goods, &c. The court, on receiving official notice of this reprimand, “readily acknowledged the exceptions taken to that clause in the bill, were just and reasonable.”

1719. *Lotteries Suppressed.*—The legislature of Massachusetts passed an act for the suppression of lotteries.

1720. *Trade with the French Prohibited.*—An act was passed, for prohibiting the sale of Indian goods to the French.

Tea began to be used in New England about this time.

Northwest Passage Attempted.—The Hudson Bay Company sent out Captains Dwight and Barlow, with a ship and a sloop, for the purpose of making discoveries of a passage to China, by the northwest parts of America, but they were never heard of afterwards.

1722. *Trading-House Erected at Oswego.*—Governor Burnett, of New York, well acquainted with the geography of the interior of the country, in order to get command of Lake Ontario, as well for the benefit of the trade and the security of the friendship of the Six Nations, as to frustrate the designs of the French, erected a trading-house at Oswego, in the country of the Senecas.

1723. *Pennsylvania Paper Currency.*—This province made its first experiment of paper currency. It issued, in March, £15,000. It made no loans, but on land security, or plate, deposited in the loan office; obliged the borrower to pay 5 per cent for the sums they took; made its bills a tender in all payments, on pain of confiscating the debt, or forfeiting the commodity; imposed penalties on all persons, who presumed to make any bargain or sale, on cheaper terms, in case of being paid in gold or silver; and provided for the gradual reduction of the bills, by enacting that one-eighth of the principal, as well as the whole interest, should be annually paid. The advantage of this emission, together with the insufficiency of the sum, induced the government, in the latter end of the year, to emit £30,000 more on the same terms.

1724. *Trade of Carolina.*—There were, this year, imported into South Carolina, four hundred and ninety-three slaves; also, British goods and manufactures, to the amount of between £50,000 and £60,000 sterling.

ART. X.—ART AND SCIENCE APPLIED TO COMMERCE.

NUMBER I.

THE intimate connection of art and science, with commerce, is too well understood, at this period, to require apology for introducing to our readers, under the above general head, as we propose to do from time to time, such statements and facts as bear upon the improvements and discoveries made in the manufacture of the various articles known in commerce. We propose, therefore, to lay before our readers every advance made in art to produce new articles, or improve the quality or manufacture of those already forming the almost unnumbered commodities of trade in the commercial world. The facts, however, derived from recent and authentic sources, as collected and arranged below, will best illustrate our design.

I.—CHINESE ADULTERATION OF GREEN TEAS.

Mr. R. Warington read before the Chemical Society, as we learn from the London Athenæum, some observations on the green teas of commerce. On submitting a sample of green tea, supposed to be spurious, and which had been seized by the excise, to microscopic investigation, the author found that the variation of tints, which had led him to this mode of examination, was dependent on adventitious substances, mechanically attached or dusted on the surface of the curled leaves. The principal part of this powder was of a white color, interspersed with particles of an orange, and of a bright blue. From the abraded dust of this sample, obtained by agitation, some of these latter were separated, and proved on examination to be Prussian blue. The orange portion was apparently some vegetable color; and the white, and principal part, was found to contain silica, alumina, a little lime and magnesia, and was probably kaolin, or powdered agalmahalite, more particularly from the rubbed and prominent parts of the tea assuming a polished appearance. A great variety of other samples of teas were submitted to examination, but in all cases they were found to be faced with various substances to give to them the bloom and color which is so distinct a characteristic of the green teas of commerce. The unglazed varieties appear to have had no blueing material applied. Very high qualities of glazed teas have this facing, apparently tinted of a uniform pale blue before application; while others, still of high quality, and embracing the greater part of the samples examined, have both the white and blue particles very distinct, the latter varying in its quantity in the low qualities, as twankay, being pretty thickly powdered. When this facing was removed, the tea was found to be of a black color, but without the corrugated aspect presented by black teas ordinarily, and which evidently arises from the higher temperature to which they are subjected during the process of curing or drying. The substances separated from these green teas were sulphate of lime, a material analagous to kaolin, and Prussian blue, together with some yellow vegetable coloring body. It is evident that the whole of these teas come to this country in a dressed or adulterated state, and the onus of this should fall on the right shoulders. The author concluded by quoting various opinions and observations of persons long resident in China, by which his investigations are satisfactorily confirmed.

II.—CHEMICAL HISTORY OF SUGAR.

The following facts are derived from a paper recently read before the Royal Institution, London, by Mr. Fownes, on the chemical history of sugar, as given in the London Athenæum:—Under the general term "sugars," a number of sweet vegetable principles are included, more or less definite in their nature, and easily distinguished by their physical and chemical characters. The chief of these are the following:—Cane sugar, the ordinary

sugar of commerce; grape sugar, the sweet principle of fruits; crystallizable sugar, from ergot of rye; mannite, or manna sugar; glycerhizin, the sweet principle of liquorice-root, &c. The chemical composition of mannite differs from that of the sugars proper, inasmuch as it does not contain oxygen and hydrogen in the proportions to form water. It is generally supposed that the sugar-cane was originally an inhabitant of the tropical east—it was cultivated in Sicily before the time of the crusades. About 1420, it was carried by the Portuguese to Madeira. Its introduction to the West Indies and the Brazils took place subsequently; and its cultivation has spread over nearly the whole of the region of the tropics where the soil and climate are at all suitable. In the islands of the British West Indies, the ripe canes are crushed by powerful machinery, consisting of a set of three rollers, connected by cog-wheels; the juice is received into a large pan, mixed with a little "temper," usually hydrate of lime, and rapidly heated to near the boiling point. The liquor is thus clarified, and the albumen always present separated in an insoluble form. It is then rapidly boiled down to the crystallizing consistence, in a series of open pans, heated by naked fires, and afterwards transferred to coolers to solidify. It is lastly drained from the uncrystallizable portion, or molasses, and exported.

Professor Mitscherlich communicated to the Berlin Academy of Sciences, in 1841, a beautiful experiment of Trommer, for the purpose of distinguishing between the two chief varieties of sugar, and other bodies of the same class. It reposes on the fact that grape sugar completely reduces the hydrated oxide of copper to suboxide, when heated with that substance in contact with excess of alkali, which is not the case with cane sugar. It is proposed to assay different samples of sugar in this manner—by dissolving a given weight in water, mixing it with solution of sulphate of copper, and excess of caustic potash, and heating the deep blue solution to the boiling point. The quantity of red suboxide produced might possibly then indicate the proportion of grape sugar present. A series of specimens of sugars of different qualities, thus treated, were upon the table, and the increasing proportion of red oxide with the coarseness of the article was very evident. The wilful adulteration of raw sugar by pale-colored, but comparatively worthless grape-sugar, made for the purpose on a large scale, from potato-starch, was lastly mentioned, and condemned as a cruel fraud, pressing heavily upon the poor.

III.—IMPROVED PAPER-HANGINGS.

The Secretary of the Society of Arts, in London, recently read a short paper on his proposition for rendering paper-hangings intellectually useful, by introducing historical, biographical, chronological, and other information, in such way as to form part of the pattern; or where required especially for use, without regard to ornament, the writing to be inserted in panelled patterns. Several designs were hung up in the room, to illustrate the subject. Mr. Whishaw proposes three different ways of effecting this desirable object: First, by cutting the inscriptions (likely to be extensively used) on wooden blocks, as the ordinary patterns. Secondly, by introducing moveable types, inserted into a frame, so arranged as to form a substitute for one of the numerous blocks usually required. Thirdly, to print all the pattern in the ordinary way, excepting such spaces as are required for the inscriptions, which may be inserted by hand, to suit the particular taste of individuals.

IV.—BUTTONS FROM CLAY.

It is stated in Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, that the principle of forming Mosaic tesserae by the pressure of dry powder, has been applied to the manufacture of various kinds of buttons. They are called agate buttons, and are made of kaolin, or China clay, brought from the neighborhood of St. Austell, in Cornwall. This kaolin is the same as the celebrated pottery clay of the Chinese, which is obtained from disintegrated granite. The buttons are pretty and clear in appearance, and very hard. They are manufactured

in all shapes and sizes, plain and ornamented; and, as compared with the cost of mother-of-pearl, are said to be about one-third the price.

V.—NEW METHOD OF IMPORTING QUICKSILVER.

A specimen has been shown, in Edinburgh, of the convenient and economical manner in which quicksilver is imported from China. It is poured into a piece of bamboo, about a foot long, and three inches thick, and each end is closed with rosin. This rude form of package is quite as serviceable as the iron bottle in which the metal is usually brought.

VI.—IMPROVED SUGAR FROM BEET-ROOT.

We learn, from the London Athenæum, that M. Dumas recently gave a sketch of an improvement in the method of extracting sugar from beet-root, suggested and employed at Valenciennes by M. Schuzenbach. He did not feel himself as yet authorized to divulge the details of the process; he therefore merely touched upon it generally, showing that, by a new process, the whole (within a hundredth part) of the crystallizable sugar held in solution in beet-root juice, can be converted directly into double-refined sugar. From the variety of sugar called *bonne quatrieme*, eighty, and sometimes ninety per cent, of double-refined, is produced—in short, the method is as efficient as the most careful chemical analysis. The products, however, of the manufactory conducted on M. Schuzenbach's principles, are only two—loaf sugar, perfectly white, and molasses so thick as to be fit only for distillation. All the intermediate qualities have disappeared.

VII.—ACETIC ACID FROM CANE SUGAR.

M. Blondeau de Carolles announces an experiment which has proved to him that cane sugar may be directly transformed into acetic acid, under the influence of caseum, without losing or gaining anything, solely by a new molecular arrangement. This conversion of sugar and cheese into acetic acid, by merely mixing them in certain proportions, and allowing them to remain for a certain time, is so easy, that possibly the process may be adopted in the arts, and especially as acetic acid may be thus produced at a much cheaper rate than wine-vinegar.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE spring business has been brought nearly to a close, and has, thus far, been a very successful one. Prices of manufactured and imported produce have been well maintained, at rates higher than for some time previous. Money, which had risen temporarily in value under the pressure of business, the speculations in stocks, and the efforts of banks to obtain higher rates of interest, has gradually been becoming cheaper, as the spring business approached its close, and the business paper maturing exceeded that created and offered for discount. Good paper is now discounted as low as $3\frac{1}{2}$ a 4 per cent. The market has, in some degree, been affected by the condition of the cotton market. In former numbers, we noticed the great rise in price which had been effected under the great speculations going on in that article, on the strength of a short crop. Those high prices, without a corresponding advance in the value of manufactured goods, produced a combination abroad to reduce the quantity of the raw material taken for consumption—a circumstance which, in connection with the continued large receipts, proved effectual in breaking speculation; and prices have fallen heavily, up to the arrival of the steamer of June 4th. Many failures occurred in consequence of this revulsion, but very unimportant when compared with the disasters which attended similar speculations in former years, when a large portion of the business turned on bank credits. Many cotton bills

were returned, and some degree of distrust was created among remitters; many of whom preferred specie at a higher cost, although good bills could be had at 9 per cent, while city-drawn bills commanded $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent premium. Some considerable amounts of specie were shipped to Europe, and sums equally as large have come forward from the south. There seems now to be a feeling prevalent, that cotton has touched its lowest point. The condition of the market in England is exceedingly healthy, and the stock here has been rapidly reduced of late, both in consequence of foreign demand, and that for home consumption; for which latter purpose, unusually large quantities have been taken. The progress of the crop for three years, from Sept. 1st, to June 12th, has been as follows:—

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM SEPT. 1, TO JUNE 12.

	1842. Bales.	1843. Bales.	1844. Bales.
Stock, Sept. 1,.....	72,479	31,807	94,486
Receipts,.....	1,622,998	2,289,951	1,932,331
Supply,.....	1,695,477	2,321,758	2,026,817
Export,.....	1,302,040	1,851,108	1,395,385
Balance,.....	393,437	470,650	631,432
Deduct stock, June 12,.....	157,736	203,385	296,736
Consumed in United States,....	235,701	267,265	334,696

It has been stated that the bales this year are about 10 per cent heavier than last year, which would give an immense home consumption. A great quantity has also been taken by the manufacturers direct from plantation, which has not appeared in the receipts at the seaports. Should the manufacturers buy in the same proportion to the close of the year as they have thus far, their consumption will be 407,000 bales, against 325,000 bales last year—an increase of 25 per cent. The increased consumption in England has actually been large; although, from circumstances above alluded to, the quantity purchased in the last few months, by the Manchester spinners, has been less than last year. The home market of England, consequent upon low prices of food and abundance of money, has been very active, and the export trade greater than ever. Under these circumstances, the stocks of yarns and goods in the hands of manufacturers must have become greatly reduced; while the export of the raw material, from the United States to Great Britain, has been 330,000 bales, or 25 per cent less than last year, and the stock in this market is only 93,000 bales less than last year. In the absence of speculation, therefore, the prospects for the planters were never more promising; more especially that prices of supplies in this country, with all other articles that enter into the cost of production, are so cheap. This position of the cotton market is producing a very favorable impression upon the face of the markets generally; because fair profits, derived from the important staple of cotton, are always evinced in the stimulus given thereby to every branch of industry throughout the Union.

All branches of industry, throughout the Union, are thriving in an eminent degree—a fact which is apparent in the returns of public works, as seen in the following table:—

RECEIPTS ON PUBLIC WORKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
Western Railroad, January to June 1,	\$173,959	\$230,903	\$56,994 or 32 per ct.
Schen'dy and Troy, April 1 to June 1,	2,387	5,464	3,077 125 "
Tonawanda, January to June 1,.....	12,261	28,660	16,503 133 "
Reading, January to June 1,.....	43,875	114,122	70,246 172 "
New York and Erie,.....	10,483	17,804	4,321 33 "
Norwich and Worcester, Jan. to June,	45,563	76,286	30,722 75 "
Pennsylvania Canal, Del. Div., March to June,.....	9,330	20,384	11,053 120 "

RECEIPTS OF PUBLIC WORKS IN THE UNITED STATES.—Continued.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.	
Ohio Canals, November to May,.....	\$88,729	\$172,659	\$83,929	95 per ct.
Erie Canal, 53 days,.....	548,251	670,690	122,438	25 "
Georgia Central Railroad, August 1 to March 1,.....	116,420	197,176	80,756	75 "

This large increase in the amount of money received, has been in the face of important reductions in the rates of fare, and is illustrative of the enormous quantities of produce pouring through the channels of communication to market, producing a great fall in the prices on the Atlantic border. The following is a comparative table of prices of agricultural produce, for several periods, in the New York market:—

PRICES OF PRODUCE IN NEW YORK.

	Dec., 1841.	July, 1842.	Dec., 1842.	June, 1843.	June, 1844.
Cotton, upland, fair,	9 a 9½	8 a 9	8 a 8½	7½ a 7½	7½ a 7½
Beef, mess,.....	\$7 50 a \$8 25	\$7 00 a \$7 50	\$6 00 a \$6 50	\$7 50 a \$8 00	\$5 00 a \$5 25
Beef, prime,.....	4 50 a 5 25	2 50 a 3 50	2 75 a 3 25	5 50 a 6 00	3 00 a 3 25
Pork, mess,.....	9 25 a 10 00	7 75 a 9 00	8 50 a 9 00	9 25 a 10 50	8 50 a 8 56
Pork, prime,.....	7 00 a 8 00	5 25 a 6 50	5 50 a 6 50	7 50 a 7 62	6 50 a 6 56
Lard,.....	6½ a 8	6¼ a 7½	6¾ a 7	5½ a 6	5½ a 6¼
Butter,.....	15 a 17	10 a 11	10 a 13	7 a 9	8 a 12½
Cheese,.....	6½ a 7½	6¼ a 7½	6 a 7	5 a 6	3 a 6
Hams, marked,....	6 a 9	4 a 5	7 a 9½	6 a 7	3½ a 7
Flour, canal,.....	6 25 a . . .	5 94 a 6 00	4 88 a 5 00	4 75 a 4 81	4 37 a 4 50
Wheat,.....	1 30 a 1 35	1 25 a 1 28	90 a 1 00	90 a 95	95 a 1 03
Rye,.....	80 a 82	67 a 63	64 a 65	58 a 60	67 a 67½
Corn, Northern,....	68 a 70	53 a 60	50 a 54	53 a 55	50 a . .
Wool, f. blood Mer.,	35 a 38	28 a 37	27 a 30	27 a 30	38 a 46
Tobacco, Kentucky,	5 a 9	3 a 6½	2½ a 5	2½ a 5	2 a 6
Rice,.....	3 25 a 3 37	2 50 a 3 00	2 50 a 3 25	2 12 a 2 30	2 75 a 3 25

This gives a very low level for prices as compared with the year 1841, which was comparatively a year of considerable prosperity. It is probably true that, from the extensive supply of produce consequent upon the more prolific yield of the western country, the general money-value of produce should be less than formerly. It has usually been supposed by writers that wheat forms a much better standard of value than most other articles, because the quantity which a given amount of labor will produce will vary less, in a long run of years, than that of most other articles. That calculation, we apprehend, was based upon the nature of the soil of Europe; which, being old, and much worked, and of uniform richness, did not vary more in its yield than the fluctuating character of seasons would warrant. When those lands, however, are exposed to the competition of the prolific soil of our western states, the greater abundance of better grain yielded by the latter, to the labor of the farmer, must reduce the general level of the money-value of food, in the same manner that the discovery of the prolific mines of Potosi reduced the value of silver throughout the world. This effect is the more marked when we consider the restricted nature of the currency of this country, as compared with former years. The following is a table of the currency of most of the states, at the latest returns, and at the corresponding period of the preceding year:—

RETURN OF BANKS NEAREST TO JANUARY.

	January, 1841.			January, 1844.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.
Georgia,.....	\$5,518,822	\$1,986,413	\$1,300,694	\$3,672,470	\$1,416,198	\$1,545,106
New Orleans,.....	6,443,785	3,094,730	3,162,243	1,414,934	5,564,685	7,871,334
South Carolina,....	3,008,514	1,712,745	1,608,537	1,672,539	709,503	709,503
Ohio,.....	3,584,341	1,938,682	1,032,767	2,234,420	602,377	778,348
Indiana,.....	2,865,568	472,748	1,076,551	2,115,225	200,248	969,306
Illinois,.....	3,105,415	109,545	529,640	none.
Virginia,.....	6,852,465	2,754,630	2,318,791	4,875,239	2,374,862	2,169,359
Maine,.....	1,754,390	733,834	269,792	1,606,663	7,927,498	923,769
New York,.....	15,235,056	17,053,279	5,429,622	16,335,401	20,926,415	10,086,542
Massachusetts,....	9,112,882	7,257,410	2,991,804	9,210,267	10,213,887	7,298,615
Connecticut,.....	2,724,721	8,873,927	454,298	3,632,360	8,868,238	455,430
Pennsylvania,.....	7,080,120	5,340,200	2,100,000	6,022,268	6,794,871	6,389,520
New Jersey,.....	2,099,069	1,074,843	436,049	1,378,635	1,190,880	1,560,710

RETURN OF BANKS NEAREST TO JANUARY.—Continued.

	January, 1841.			January, 1844.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.
Maryland,	\$2,329,843	\$3,136,979	\$1,556,026	\$1,647,559	\$3,652,973	\$3,529,265
D. of Columbia, ...	121,975	653,386	245,629	557,239	963,223	1,053,359
Bank of Mobile, ...	36,073	961,569	303,048	124,031	554,911	613,729
Bank of Missouri, .	347,530	332,909	509,527	1,073,090	1,220,589	1,505,257
Bank of Kentucky, .	1,918,461	394,564	481,530	1,796,300	675,137	893,998
Total,	\$74,332,050	\$57,081,393	\$25,526,547	\$44,806,414	\$88,303,631	\$46,910,650
				74,332,050	57,081,393	25,526,547
Increase,					\$31,222,238	\$21,084,103
Decrease,				\$29,526,636		

In 1841, the circulation was as three to one, of specie on hand. It is now less than dollar for dollar, showing that the currency now is actually less abundant than if there were no bank issues. Notwithstanding which, it is very plenty in all the channels of business, showing that the import of \$23,000,000 of specie was redundant; and that, as soon as it becomes fairly active, a portion of it must again go abroad. The degree of activity possessed by a currency determines, in a great measure, the quantity which is required for the transaction of business. After a great expansion of paper money, and consequent revulsion, a degree of stagnation takes place in all the channels of business, and an indisposition on the part of those who have money, to spend it, that greatly diminishes the active quantity in the market, necessary for the fulfilment of contracts as they mature. In this state of affairs, money is brought into the country in large quantities, as last year, and remains dormant for a length of time, until reviving confidence restores the animation of the markets, calls money from its places of deposit, and gives an impetus to its circulation, which soon exhibits itself in an excess of quantity, that flows off to other countries. When this operation is assisted by the emission of paper money in swelling quantities, the effect produced is immensely greater. The evils arising from this action of paper money have been so great, as to call for a thorough change even in England, the hot-bed of the credit system.

In a former number, we made some remarks on the approaching renewal of the charter of the bank of England. The project of the government for its renewal has been promulgated by Sir Robert Peel, and it perfects a most important change in the state of affairs. The circulation of England, for many years, was of this description:—the issues of the bank of England being a legal tender, and redeemable in gold, and the issues of the private bankers, who were obliged to redeem only in the notes of the Bank of England. In 1826, joint stock banks were authorized; and in 1830, additional privileges were given them. In the progress of events, the private banks were gradually merged in joint stock banks. The issues of these latter soon began to influence the circulation to an extent which took from the bank of England, in some degree, its power of influencing the exchanges; or, in other words, of reducing the currency when the export of bullion showed the inflation to be too great. It was found that when, from a diminution of coin, it became necessary for the bank to diminish its issues, the volume of the currency was not thereby diminished, because the country banks eagerly availed themselves of the demand for money, occasioned by the contractions of the bank, to extend their issues; and the export of coin was accelerated, until the bank was on the verge of bankruptcy. The swelling volume of the paper, raising prices above the level of those of countries with which commercial intercourse is carried on, checks exports, and promotes imports, to an extent which requires a balance to be paid in specie. Where the currency is simply specie, the export of a portion diminishes the volume of the whole, and restores the equilibrium. This is the case with the island of Cuba; and the excess of import or of export is so small, that no perceptible fluctuation in the island currency ever takes place. In our number for October last, in an article on the commerce of Cuba, we gave a table of the imports and exports of specie, as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE PRECIOUS METALS TO AND FROM CUBA.

<i>Imports.</i>				
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Coined gold,.....	\$1,497,408	\$908,108	\$595,780	\$792,124
“ silver,.....	709,770	454,118	185,859	366,646
	<u>\$2,207,178</u>	<u>\$1,362,226</u>	<u>\$781,639</u>	<u>\$1,158,770</u>
<i>Exports.</i>				
Coined gold,.....	\$850,858	\$526,322	\$326,842	\$154,055
“ silver,.....	874,945	526,778	765,829	1,136,605
	<u>\$1,725,803</u>	<u>\$1,053,100</u>	<u>\$1,092,671</u>	<u>\$1,290,661</u>
Excess of imports,....	481,375	209,126
“ exports,....	311,032	131,891

This import and export expresses all the fluctuation which takes place in the currency of the island. The reverse has been the case in England; because, as fast as the bullion goes abroad, paper is pushed out to take its place.

The government of England, in renewing the charter of the bank, has attempted to approximate this result. The currency of the bank of England is now about £21,000,000, and the issues of the English private and joint stock banks about £8,000,000. All these banks issue, without reference to any fixed rule, upon their credit only. The capital of the bank of England consists of near £11,000,000, due to it from the government. The government, therefore, proposes that the bank shall be divided into two departments—one of issue, and the other for the conduct of the regular business of banking; all the bullion of the concern to be placed with the issue department, which shall place to the credit of the banking department an amount of bills equal to the capital of £11,000,000, and secured by it, and also of £3,000,000 secured by exchequer bills; making £14,000,000 issued on securities, for the profit of the bank. Beyond this, the bank cannot issue bills for its own profit, except to the amount of the bullion on hand. The private banks are restricted to the issue of an amount of their notes equal to the average of their emissions for the last few years, which would give a circulation equal to £7,000,000. The currency will then be a fixed circulation of £21,000,000, and a fluctuating currency equal to the bullion which may be in the bank of England. In order to illustrate this movement, we will take a table of the circulation of the bank of England and the joint stock banks, with the amount of bullion in the bank, and showing what would have been the state of affairs had the new system been in operation in 1833:—

ACTUAL CURRENCY OF ENGLAND, WITH THE ACTION OF THE NEW SYSTEM.

	CIRCULATION.			CIRCULATION UNDER NEW LAW.			
	B'k of Eng.	County B'ks.	Total.	Bullion.	Fluctuating.	Fixed.	Total.
April, 1834, .	£19,091,000	£10,191,104	£29,388,104	£9,948,000	£9,948,000	£21,000,000	£30,948,000
July, 1836, .	17,899,000	12,302,196	30,101,196	7,362,000	7,362,000	21,000,000	28,362,000
Jan. 1837, .	17,422,000	12,011,697	29,433,697	4,287,000	4,287,000	21,000,000	25,287,000
Dec., 1838, .	18,469,000	12,325,488	30,694,488	9,362,000	9,362,000	21,000,000	30,362,000
Dec., 1839, .	16,732,000	11,422,445	28,154,445	2,887,000	2,887,000	21,000,000	23,887,000
March, 1844,	21,471,000	8,459,889	29,930,889	16,011,000	16,011,000	21,000,000	37,011,000

This table embraces all the important fluctuations since 1833. In 1834–35–36, the currency swelled to an extent which raised prices, on an average, 35 per cent; and, although the harvest was good, produced an export of bullion that reduced the amount on hand from near £10,000,000, in 1834, to about £4,000,000, in 1837. In that period, the bank of England, aware of the danger, had reduced its currency about £2,000,000, or 10 per cent. As that currency was withdrawn, the newly constituted joint stock banks expanded theirs to the same amount of bills, being 20 per cent of their circulation. Hence, there was £150,000 more paper in circulation in 1837, after the immense contraction of the bank, than there had been in 1834, when that contraction commenced. The drain of

coin was unchecked, and the bank was obliged to denounce the American trade, precipitating the disasters which overtook this country in that year. It will be observed that, had the new plan been in operation, the volume of the currency would have been reduced from about £31,000,000 to £25,287,000; a positive reduction of £6,000,000, or 20 per cent of the whole currency. It is evident, however, that this could not have taken place; because, before so large a reduction had taken place, the export of coin would have been checked. As that was not the case, the bank resorted to the most destructive measures to save itself; and the violence of its movement brought back the coin to its vault, to be again carried away by a short harvest. In order to observe the practical operation of the currency upon prices, we will take from Porter's tables a statement, showing the state of the currency, with the comparative prices of wheat, and of fifty articles of commerce, during the period of expansion. The rise in the value is calculated per cent, upon the actual price of each article in 1834, as follows:—

Years.	Currency.	Bullion.	Price Wheat.	Price 50 art'les.
1833,.....	£27,436,120	£8,983,000	1.000	1.000
1834,.....	29,288,104	9,948,000	.916	1.099
1835,.....	28,671,828	6,741,000	.760	1.150
1836,.....	28,396,414	7,076,000	.666	1.255
1836, July,....	30,203,196	7,362,000	.930	1.346
1837, July,....	29,074,437	4,750,000	1.112	1.133

The prices of both wheat, and the fifty other articles, in 1833, are assumed as unity. The harvests in those years were very abundant, and the price of wheat fell gradually, until, in 1836, it was 66 per cent only of its price in 1833; being a fall of 24 per cent. Fifty other articles, in the same time, had risen 25 per cent, and continued to advance to 35 per cent, in July, 1836. The bank, being at that time seriously alarmed, stopped the credits of the three famous W.'s in the American trade, and curtailed vigorously. The result was a general fall in prices, of 21 per cent, to the July of 1837. Wheat had, in the meantime, advanced considerably, under the influence of a short harvest. The bullion in the bank, then, as seen in the first table, continued to advance up to December, 1838, and the circulation had again increased. The short harvest had then caused a demand for gold, which, in eight months, brought the concern to the verge of bankruptcy. The distress created by the violent action of the bank to save itself, at that time, has now scarcely passed away. The degree of distress is manifest in the low state of the country circulation. These violent fluctuations, under the new law, will not occur; because its action upon the currency will be so prompt and gradual, that the evil cannot reach any great length before it is corrected;—whereas, under the old plan, the bank is forced to the verge of ruin; and then, to save itself, is obliged to bankrupt half the community, and compel people to sell an immense quantity of goods for comparatively a small sum in coin. During the past two years, it forced prices so low, that double the quantity of goods has been given for £13,000,000 of bullion which it has acquired, than would have been the case had prices been undisturbed by an unnatural action of paper credits. The necessity for these violent contractions has arisen from the sudden demand for specie, to export in payment of corn, at a time when the regular exports of goods, in consequence of high prices, are scarcely sufficient to maintain the exchanges. The new scheme is intended, by preventing any unnatural advance in prices, to maintain a proper degree of export. Hence, in 1834-37, when the bank of England withdrew £2,000,000 of its circulation, the vacuum was immediately filled by country issues. This cannot now be done. The maximum of the country circulation is fixed at the average of the last few years of low currency. When, therefore, the volume of the circulating medium is diminished by the export of coin, the country banks will have no power to counteract the movement. The import and export of the precious metals will alone influence the amount of the currency; thus establishing, in fact, a specie currency at the centre of the world's commerce

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

MASTERS OF SHIPS.

THE master of a ship is the person entrusted with the care and management of it. His power and authority are so great, and the trust reposed in him is of so important a nature, that the greatest care and circumspection ought to be used by the owners in the choice and appointment of him. It appears, by the language of the ancient sea-laws and ordinances, that the master was formerly, in almost every instance, a part-owner of the ship, and consequently interested, in a two-fold character, in the faithful discharge of his duty. At present, it frequently happens that he has no property in the ship. The law of some countries requires a previous examination of the person to be appointed to this important office, in order to ascertain his nautical experience and skill; in other countries, he is liable to be punished as a criminal if, having undertaken the charge, he is found incompetent to the performance of it. In this country, the owners are left to their own discretion, as to the skill and honesty of the master; and, although he is bound to make good any damage that may happen to the ship or cargo by his negligence or unskilfulness, if he is of ability to do so, yet he cannot be punished as a criminal for mere incompetence.—*Abbott*.

SEAMEN'S WAGES—SHIP RIGBY GROVE.

In the British Admiralty Court, (London,) February 21, 1843. In this case, the vessel sailed from Hull, on the Greenland whale fishery, on the 6th of March, 1838, and on the 27th of June was jammed in the ice, and ultimately lost. A portion of the cargo was salvaged by the exertions of the mariners, and two other vessels. This was a suit by one of the mariners to recover wages, and an allowance of 1s. 9d. per tun of oil, as per contract. The defence of the owners was, that as no part of the ship had been salvaged, and no freight had been received, there was no fund out of which the mariner could be paid, and that he had had advances, to the full amount of his wages, simply, for three months. Dr. Lushington said this was a case of importance as regarded the jurisdiction of the court, and he should take time to consider his decision; and accordingly, on March 2, 1843, delivered his judgment in this case. The vessel sailed from Hull, on the Greenland whale fishery, on the 6th of March, 1838, and on the 27th of June was jammed in the ice, and ultimately lost. A portion of the cargo was salvaged by the exertions of the mariners, and two other vessels, carried to Holland, and sold. This was a suit by one of the mariners to recover wages, and an allowance of 1s. 9d. per tun of oil, as per contract. The defence of the owners was, that, as no part of the ship had been salvaged, and no freight had been received, there was no fund out of which the mariner could be paid. The learned judge observed that two questions arose in this case—first, whether the wages were due; secondly, whether this court had jurisdiction to entertain the suit, and decide upon the claim. With regard to the latter and more important point, the result of the cases and of the law, as laid down by Lord Tenterden, was, that where there was a special contract, the jurisdiction of the court of admiralty was ousted. What was or was not a special contract, had not been clearly defined. In the Sydney Cove, Lord Stowell had rejected an additional article, in a suit for wages, in which a contract was pleaded of a special character; and, comparing the contract in that case with that in the present, he was of opinion that this was a case in which this court had no jurisdiction. First, it was a special contract, which, as laid down by Lord Tenterden, ousted the jurisdiction of this court; secondly, the principle had been acted upon by Lord Stowell; and thirdly, this being a case of partnership, he (the learned judge) felt the difficulty to be this—that this court had not the means of doing justice between all the parties.

SEAMEN'S WAGES—THE TWO SISTERS.

In the British Admiralty Court, (London,) August 2, 1843. Dr. Lushington gave sentence in this case, which was argued on the 7th of June, 1843. It was a suit by the mate of the *Two Sisters*, to recover the balance of his wages, amounting to 28*l.*, which was refused on the ground that he had forfeited the wages by deserting the ship, when homeward-bound, at Swansea, where she had touched on her voyage from Belize to London. The learned judge was of opinion that, upon the evidence produced by the owners, he could not pronounce that there had been a total, or even a partial desertion; and, although he was of opinion that the seaman had acted with extreme impropriety, yet he could not refuse to pronounce for the wages sued for, and, of course, with the costs.

SEAMEN'S WAGES—THE RELIANCE.

In the British Admiralty Court, (London,) May 26, 1843. In this case, an objection was offered to the admission of the summary petition of the widow of a seaman who was lost in the *Reliance*, and for whose wages she now sued the wreck. Dr. Lushington held that the wages were a lien upon the wreck, and that the widow was entitled to sue.

SALVAGE.

Salvage is an allowance made for saving a ship or goods, or both, from the dangers of the sea, fire, pirates, or enemies; and it is also sometimes used to signify the thing itself which is saved; but it is in the former sense only in which we are at present to consider it. The propriety and justice of such an allowance must be evident to every one; for nothing can be more reasonable than that he who has recovered the property of another from imminent danger by great labor, or perhaps at the hazard of his life, should be rewarded by him who has been so materially benefited by that labor. Accordingly, all maritime states, from the Rhodians down to the present time, have made certain regulations, fixing the rate of salvage in some instances, and leaving it in others to depend upon particular circumstances.—*Park*.

SALVAGE—THE QUEEN *vs.* THE CAROLINE.

In the British Admiralty Court, June 7, 1843. The *Caroline*, a brig of three hundred tons burthen, with a valuable cargo of general merchandise, (value with the ship upwards of 15,000*l.*.) left Liverpool on the 16th of January, on a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope. The master, in his protest, stated that, from that day to the 20th, they had moderate breezes from the south and southwest; that at half past four o'clock on the 20th, they struck on a sandbank to the east of Wicklow Head; and at nine o'clock, finding that she had seven feet six inches water in her hold, the master and crew, who had got into the skiff and jolly-boat, left her in a sinking state, landing near Wicklow. On the following morning, the vessel was discovered drifting in the Irish Channel by the *Emily*, a small schooner of seventy-four tons, with a crew of six persons, bound from Liverpool to Terceira, and boarded. The hatches of the *Caroline* were open, the rudder was loose, the lashing of the binnacle was cut, the binnacle was lying in the gangway, and some bottles of spirits were on the deck; but they found only two or three feet water in the hold. The master of the *Emily* placed three of his five men on board the derelict, and accompanied her to Holyhead in the *Emily*. Dr. Haggard and Dr. Twiss, for the salvors, asked for a very liberal reward, on the ground of the large property saved, and the loss sustained by the owners of the *Emily*, through her inability to fulfil the charter-party. Dr. Addams and Dr. Harding, for the owners of the *Caroline*, admitted the value of the service; but contended that it was not a case of exalted merit on the part of the salvors, by reason of risk, labor, or skill. Dr. Lushington said, that as to the cause of the accident to the *Caroline*, the court had no information; but, if he took the account given by the master, the property was in the most imminent danger, which was the reason assigned by the master for quitting her. He must say that the salvors were entitled to very considerable credit

for the preservation of this valuable ship and cargo, if the vessel was in the state in which she was represented to have been by those who abandoned her; and it was an arduous undertaking for three men to navigate a vessel of three hundred tons in that state. If the weather had become tempestuous, their lives might have been lost, as well as the vessel and cargo. It so happened, that no very great labor or time sufficed to place the vessel in a port of safety. She was a derelict; and, though the rule formerly was to give the salvors in such a case a moiety of the property saved, this rule had been properly abandoned, and the sum allotted depended upon the circumstances of the case; and, taking these into consideration, he should allot 1,800*l.* to the salvors, apportioning it as follows:—600*l.* to the owners, (including their losses,) 400*l.* to the master, 250*l.* to the mate, and 550*l.* to the three men and a boy.

CLAIM FOR SALVAGE SERVICES—THE ANN.

In the British Admiralty Court, July 25th, 1843. This was a claim by the owners, masters and crews of the Marshal Bennett and Cyrus, two whalers, and also by the owners, master and crew of the Australian Packet, against five thousand chests of tea, and ninety bales of silk, part of the cargo of the bark Ann, for salvage services rendered to that vessel, under the following circumstances:—The bark being on her voyage from China to London, on the 14th of June, 1842, got upon a coral reef, near Samboangan, on the southwest coast of the island of Mindanao, one of the Philippines. In this state, she received assistance from the Marshal Bennett, and two boats from the Cyrus, whereby she got off the reef, and was brought into Samboangan roads. The Spanish authorities evincing an unfriendly disposition, and refusing to allow the Ann to repair at that place, the master agreed with the masters of the Marshal Bennett and the Australian Packet, (bound to Sydney,) to convey her to the straits of Macassar, whence she might get to Sourabaya or Java to repair. Accordingly, on the 23d of June, the three vessels sailed in company to the straits of Macassar, where they arrived on the 14th July, and thence the Ann found her way to Sourabaya, where she was condemned, and her cargo was transhipped, and sent to this country, where it was arrested in a cause of salvage. The value of the property was 30,000*l.* Dr. Addams and Dr. Bayford were heard for the two whalers; the Queen's Advocate and Dr. White for the Australian Packet; and Dr. Haggard and Dr. R. Phillimore for the consignees of the cargo. Dr. Lushington allotted 1,200*l.* to the Marshal Bennett, 300*l.* to the Australian Packet, and 200*l.* to the Cyrus.

CHARTER-PARTY.

The term charter-party is generally understood to be a corruption of the Latin words *charta partita*; the two parts of this and other instruments being usually written, in former times, on one piece of parchment, which was afterwards divided by a straight line cut through some word or figure, so that one part should fit and tally with the other, as evidence of their original agreement and correspondence, and to prevent the fraudulent substitution of a fictitious instrument for the real deed of the parties. With the same design, indentation was afterwards introduced; and deeds of more than one part thereby acquired among English lawyers the name of indenture. This practice of division, however, has long been disused, and that of indentation is become a mere form. This instrument, when the ship is let at the place of the owners' residence, is generally executed by them, or some of them, (and frequently by the master, also,) and by the merchant or his agent. In a foreign port it must, of necessity, if it be by deed under seal, be executed by the master only, and the merchant or his agent, unless the parties have an agent resident in such port authorized to this purpose by deed, or letter of attorney under seal.—*Abbott.*

CHARTER-PARTY OF AFFREIGHTMENT.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (British,) July 6th, 1843. Sittings at Nisi Prius, at Guildhall, before Mr. Justice Maule, and a special jury. Miln and others *vs.* Little. This was an action upon a charter-party of affreightment, for neglecting to provide a full and com-

plete cargo of East India dry-goods for the ship *Amelia*, over and above her provisions, tackle, and furniture. The defence on the record was, that a full and complete cargo was provided for the vessel. The plaintiffs are the owners of the *Amelia*, a vessel of two hundred and forty-four tons burthen, per register, which the defendant chartered in the year 1841. The *Amelia* made her outward voyage from London with three hundred and sixty-three tons of coal on board; and, though she drew fifteen feet of water, she behaved well during the voyage, and arrived quite safe in the port of Calcutta in the month of July, 1841. After she had cleared out, the captain sent to the consignees of the vessel, the agents of the defendant at Calcutta, for a cargo to take back to London, and accordingly about three hundred and forty tons weight of tallow and skins were placed in her hold. The captain informed the agents that the *Amelia* would carry more; but they replied that the *Amelia* was already loaded so as to draw fourteen feet three inches of water, and that if he persisted in taking in more cargo, the surveyors for Lloyd's would not permit him to sail except under protest, and that the insurance offices in Calcutta would probably not accept the risk of the voyage. Under these circumstances, the captain sailed from Calcutta to London, the *Amelia* drawing fourteen feet four and a half inches; and, having communicated with his owners, an action was brought for the breach of the charter-party. Two gentlemen who were called for the plaintiffs gave it as their opinion that the *Amelia* could have carried thirty tons more of heavy tons than actually composed her cargo; while, for the defendant, it was stated by Captain Oakes, who surveyed the vessel before she left Calcutta, in August, 1841, that if she had been more deeply laden than she was at the time of her departure, she would in all probability have been obliged to put back to Calcutta in a leaky state. Mr. Justice Maule left it to the jury to say whether, under the circumstances, a greater tonnage of cargo could have been put on board than was actually stowed in the hold of the *Amelia* when she left Calcutta. It was arranged between the counsel that the damages, if the jury found for the plaintiffs, should be settled by the parties themselves, or their professional representatives. The jury retired to consider their verdict, and on their return stated that they found for the plaintiffs. Damages 125*l.* (at the rate of 6*l.* 5*s.*) for 20 tons.

SPECIAL PAPER.

In the British Court of Exchequer, June 7, 1843. (Sittings in Banco.) *Stringer vs. Campbell*. Mr. Erle appeared for the defendant in this case, which was a special one, arising out of an action on a charter-party; and from the statements of the learned counsel it appeared that his clients were the owners of a ship called the *Marmion*, and had entered into a charter-party with the defendant for a voyage to Canton, just before the troubles broke out between Captain Elliott and the representatives of his Celestial Majesty. On the arrival of the vessel at Hong-Kong, its further progress was delayed by the well-known order or caution of the plenipotentiary, to the effect that no ship should proceed up the river. Under these circumstances, after several weeks' delay, the captain came to an arrangement with the agent of the defendant at Hong-Kong, and delivered his cargo at that place. The question of law, arising out of these facts, being whether the defendant was answerable, under the usual clause for demurrage, for the loss of time which had been so occasioned, Mr. Erle contended in the affirmative, and submitted that, however unforeseen or uncontrollable the cause of that delay might have been, still its consequences ought to fall on the charterer, who, by his contract, had bound himself to make it good. The Attorney-General appeared on the other side, but was stopped in his address by Lord Abinger, who, with the concurrence of the whole bench, gave judgment at once in favor of the defendant, it being their lordships' opinion that no charterer could be made responsible for any delay which might arise from a state of things such as that relied on by the plaintiff. Judgment for the defendant accordingly.

PROVISIONS FOR EMIGRANTS.

In the British Court of Exchequer, February 16, 1843. (Sittings at Nisi Prius, before Mr. Baron Gurney, at Guildhall, London.) *Morgan vs. Brynes*.

The plaintiff is the captain and owner of the *Robert Bruce*, and the defendant is an emigration agent, against whom this action was brought to recover divers sums of money, expended by the plaintiff on behalf of the defendant. It appears that the defendant chartered a portion of the *Robert Bruce*, for the conveyance of two hundred and sixty-seven emigrants to New York in last year, it being part of the contract that the defendant should find the emigrants in provisions. By the emigration act, parties so situated are bound to see that the passengers are provided with certain quantities of provisions, calculated to last for ten weeks, as the outside limit of the voyage; and, according to the same act, an officer attended on board the ship before sailing from Liverpool, to examine whether the act had been complied with. The provisions were then examined, and passed as sufficient, while the plaintiff himself produced and signed a certificate that the requisite quantity of provisions was on board. Soon after this, the *Robert Bruce* left the port, and made the best of her way across the Atlantic; but, meeting with bad weather, she had a very long passage; and, after having been out nearly six weeks, it was found that the emigrants were nearly starving, their provisions being all exhausted. Under this emergency, the plaintiff put into Halifax, where he expended 45*l.* in supplying the emigrants with food, and there and at Boston incurred divers minor expenses on their account, to which he now alleged the defendant was liable, under the charter-party. The defendant now paid 20*l.* into court on account of a portion of the latter items, and the questions now raised were whether, in point of law, the defendant was liable to make good the outlay for the goods at Halifax, and the balance of the claim brought against him. Mr. Baron Gurney was of opinion that the defendant was liable, but reserved leave to move, and afterwards left it to the jury to say whether the proper quantity of provisions had been shipped in the first instance, as required by law. If the jury should think that had been the case, they would find for the defendant; but, as the provisions had all been expended before six weeks, which ought to have lasted four more, it was difficult to say how that could have been. As to the residue of the claim, that was not within the terms of the contract, and the plaintiff could not recover for it. In conclusion, the learned judge observed that it was highly necessary, in such cases, that the public officers should discharge the duty of examining into the state of the provisions with the utmost nicety; as, without any intention, perhaps, to do wrong, it was clear that the greatest cruelty and hardship might be inflicted, as in this case, on the emigrants; who, if left to themselves, might often be tempted to go on board without proper supplies. He hoped, therefore, that this case would be a warning for the future to all such parties. The jury, after a moment's deliberation, found a verdict for the plaintiff. Damages, 45*l.*

TARIFF—WORSTED GOODS.

In the United States Circuit Court, New York, May, 1844. *Paton & Stewart vs. Edward Curtis*.

This was an action to recover back duty. The plaintiffs imported window cords, composed of worsted over twine, and some mohair goods, on which duty was charged, as being woollens; it being contended, on the part of the United States, that if these goods were not woollens, they were bindings, and that one of the articles was a manufacture of hemp and tow, subject to duty. But the plaintiffs showed that the articles were well known in trade as worsted goods, and not as woollen or bindings, or as a manufacture of hemp and tow. Verdict for plaintiffs, for amount claimed.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA.

THE rates of duties in the following compend of the tariff are those imposed on importations, in vessels other than Spanish, from the United States. The manner of ascertaining the amount to be paid, is as follows:—

Beef is valued at \$9 per barrel.		
100 barrels, at \$9.....	\$900 00	
30½ per cent on this amount.....		\$276 75
One-seventh.....		39 53
One per cent.....		2 77
Total amount of duty.....		\$319 05

Importations from other than Spanish ports, in Spanish vessels, pay 6 per cent less duty than quoted in this work, on the same valuations.

All liquors pay, over and above the duty quoted, 50 cents per pipe, 25 cents per half pipe, and 12½ cents per demijohn, or dozen bottles, for the Orphan Asylum.

No Spanish vessel under sixty tons, or foreign vessel under eighty tons register burthen, can import goods "in deposit."

Foreign products that have paid an import duty can be exported free. All vessels can load with molasses at any of the outports of the island, if they first enter at an open port, the consignee giving a bond that they will return to clear.

No allowance will be made on jerked beef, for damage, over and above 6 per cent if from the United States, or 14 per cent if from South America, unless the beef is so much damaged as to be worthless, in which case it must be thrown into the sea, and duty paid on the actual quantity imported.

A COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA, WITH TARES AND ALLOWANCES MADE AT HAVANA.

Articles.	Valuation.	Rate of duty.	Tares and Allowances.
Ale, cask.....arrobe	\$1 50	30½	
" bottles.....dozen	3 00	30½	Custom-house allowances
Apples.....bbl.	3 00	24½	for breakage, 6 per cent
Asses, male.....each	82 50	24½	on invoice.
" female....."	55 00	24½	
Barrels....."	50	24½	
Beef.....bbl.	9 00	30½	
" jerked.....arrobe	2 00	30½	This is on American jerk-
" smoked.....quintal	7 00	30½	ed beef.
Beans.....arrobe	75	30½	Tare, actual.
Beer, cask....."	1 50	30½	
" bottles.....dozen	3 00	30½	Breakage, 6 per cent.
Biscuit, box.....6 lbs.	50	30½	
" keg.....quintal	8 33	30½	
Bread.....bbl.	8 00	30½	Tare, 20 lbs. per barrel.
Boards.....M. feet	20 00	24½	5 per ct. allowed for splits.
Bricks.....M.	12 00	30½	From the United States.
Butter.....quintal	15 00	24½	Tare, 16 per cent.
Candles, tallow....."	12 00	30½	
" sperm....."	32 00	24½	
Cheese....."	11 00	24½	
Coal....."	12½	30½	
Cocoa, Caraccas....."	16 00	24½	
" all other....."	6 00	24½	
Codfish....."	3 50	24½	
Cordage....."	fixed.	\$7 12½	Tare, 10 per cent.
" Manilla....."	5 00	30½	
Cotton....."	13 50	24½	

A COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA, WITH TARES AND ALLOWANCES, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	Valuation.	Rate of duty.	Tares and Allowances.
Cider, bottles,.....dozen	3 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Breakage, 6 per cent.
Chairs of wood,..... “	20 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ of wood in shook, not painted,..... “	15 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ with cane seats, and p’nted and gilded, “	31 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ with cushion seats, “	ad val.	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ Mahog’y, with cane seats,..... “	50 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ rocking,..... “	25 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Figs,.....quintal	4 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Flour,.....bbl. fixed.		\$10 00	
Gin, cask,.....100 gall.	62 50	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ jugs and bottles,.....dozen	2 25	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Breakage, 6 per cent.
Grindstones,.....each	1 50	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Hams,.....quintal	10 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tare on canvassed hams, 2 lbs. each.
Herring,.....boxes of 100 fish	75	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Hogs,.....each fixed.		\$6 00	
Hhds. or casks,..... “	2 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Hoops,.....M.	30 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Horses, geldings,.....each	150 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Stallions and mares, free.
Lard,.....quintal	12 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tare, 16 per cent.
Mackerel,..... “	3 50	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Meal, Indian,.....bbl.	5 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Nails, copper,.....quintal	25 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tare, 12 per cent.
“ iron,..... “	7 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tare, 12 per cent.
Oars,.....100 feet	6 25	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Oil, sperm and whale,.....quintals	8 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tare, 20 per cent.
Onions,.....100 strings	4 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Paper, writing,.....ream	2 50	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ wrapping,..... “	50	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Pitch,.....bbl.	3 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Pork,..... “	14 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ sides,.....quintal	10 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Porter, bbls,.....arrobe	1 50	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ bottles,.....dozen	3 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Breakage, 6 per cent.
Potatoes,.....bbl.	2 50	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Rice,.....quintal	6 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	Custom-house allows 11 per cent on tierces, and 2 lbs. on sacks for tare.
Salt,.....fanega fixed.		\$2 50	Purchasers are allowed 70 lbs. per tierce, and nothing on sacks.
Shingles,.....M.	3 75	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Shoes,.....dozen	15 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Shooks, box,.....each	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
“ hhd,..... “	1 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Soap, bar,.....quintal	10 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Staves,.....M.	25 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Tallow,.....quintal	9 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Tar,.....bbl.	3 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Tea,.....lb.	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Tile,.....M.	25 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Tobacco, chewing,.....quintal	18 00	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Tongues, smoked,..... “	7 00	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	

CUSTOM-HOUSE RULES AND REGULATIONS,

FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF ALL VESSELS ARRIVING AT HAVANA.

All captains or supercargoes, the moment their vessel comes to anchor, must deliver, immediately upon being visited by the custom-house boat, a manifest declaring his name, that of the vessel, her tonnage, whence she comes, the number of bales, packages, and every other article he has on board, or of which his cargo is composed, with their respective marks, numbers, and consignees. Twelve hours after delivery of the above mani-

fest, no alteration or addition whatever can be made in the same—the said twelve hours to run from six in the morning until seven in the evening, every day of the year, without exception of festivals.

The captain or supercargo is required, before twenty-four hours have elapsed after the delivery of the manifest, to present himself at the custom-house, and there take oath, in presence of the collector and interpreter, declaring that what he has manifested is a true and correct account of his cargo.

In case the captain does not present the manifest, and swear within the time above-mentioned, he will incur a fine of one thousand dollars.

In case the captain or supercargo is unable to make out a manifest, or take oath, this will be the duty of the consignee, or one of his clerks.

The twelve hours prescribed in the first regulation having elapsed, all packages which have been omitted in the manifest will be confiscated, and the captain fined in double the value of the same, according to the valuation prescribed by the tariff, well understood that their value does not exceed one thousand dollars. In case their value should exceed the above sum, and belong to the owner of the vessel, the captain, or the supercargo, the vessel, freight, and all other profits, shall be confiscated.

Neither before nor after the delivery of the manifest, can anything whatever be discharged from the vessel without the permission of the custom-house. Should anything be discharged, although it be of little value, or free of duty, the captain or supercargo will incur a fine of one thousand dollars, with the confiscation of the goods thus discharged.

In case goods of one vessel lying in the harbor are transported on board of another without the permission of the collector, the captain who has received them, and all those who have assisted to transport them, will be fined in treble their value, and the goods themselves will be confiscated, with the vessel or vessels in which they have been found, together with the boats, launches, and all other things which have been employed in the transportation of the same.

All goods that have been fraudulently disembarked, and seized by the custom-house officers, will not only be confiscated, and fined according to the sixth rule, but will be immediately appraised by the custom-house appraiser; and if their value, at the highest market price, exceed four hundred dollars, the vessel, with all her appurtenances, shall be included in the penalty of confiscation.

If any goods manifested for transit be discharged or introduced fraudulently, they will not only be confiscated, but also the vessel, together with the boats and launches employed in discharging the same.

Should a vessel discharge merchandise, be the quantity small or large, at a non-licensed port, said merchandise, as also the vessel and all her appurtenances, shall incur the penalty of confiscation.

All stores must be manifested, and if they appear to be disproportionately abundant, such excess shall pay duty. All baggage, likewise, must be manifested; and, should fraud be detected in them, they shall be subject to penalty, and those implicated in such fraud shall pay thrice the value of the article.

Permission being obtained, the discharge of the vessel is to begin at dawn of day, at the wharf, or any other place pointed out for that purpose. Goods requiring to be examined, weighed, or measured, shall not be removed to any other wharf or place, without permission from the collector, under pain of confiscation.

If, on the conclusion of the discharge, there should be found one or more packages short of the quantity manifested, without an invoice of such packages having been presented, and consequently without their contents being known, and the name of the consignee, it will be understood that the captain or supercargo of the vessel has committed fraud against the custom-house, and shall be fined two hundred dollars for each package missing.

In the outward despatch, as soon as the vessel shall have finished loading, she shall be visited and examined; and if merchandise be found on board exceeding the quantity cleared, or fraudulently shipped, and without the knowledge of the custom-house, such merchandise shall be confiscated, and the captain fined in thrice its value. But, should it consist of gold, silver, tobacco, or cigars, of more than the value of four hundred dollars, the vessel and all her apparel shall be confiscated. All goods detected in the act of being fraudulently shipped, shall likewise be confiscated.

No consignee shall despatch a vessel outward without her being first visited and examined, under a penalty of one thousand dollars, which shall be exacted in the first instance; and for a second or future infringements, an action shall be brought against him.

Should the captain or supercargo not have wherewith to satisfy such fines imposed on him, and costs, the vessel shall be seized for the purpose, unless the consignee comes forward as security.

On and after the 1st day of January, 1844, the following regulations will be observed in all the custom-houses of the island of Cuba:—

1st. Every box of sugar, exported in a Spanish vessel, shall pay 5 rials, (62½ cents;) and in a foreign vessel 6 rials, (75 cents,) export duty.

2d. Every quintal of coffee, exported in a Spanish vessel, for a Spanish port, shall pay 3 rials, (37½ cents;) in a Spanish vessel, for a foreign port, 4 rials, (50 cents;) and in a foreign vessel, for a foreign port, 4½ rials, (56¼ cents,) export duty.

3d. Molasses and rum shall pay no export duty.

4th. Vessels that take a full cargo of molasses, shall pay no tonnage duty.

5th. Foreign vessels that take more than 1,000 boxes of sugar, shall pay but 6 rials (75 cents) per ton, as tonnage dues. Spanish vessels, but 2½ rials, (31¼ cents.)

6th. The same advantage, as named in the fifth article, shall be enjoyed by vessels that take more than 2,000 bags coffee, or 300 pipes pure rum.

This is a very important movement as regards shipping; as it virtually reduces the tonnage duty, formerly \$1 50 per ton, to 75 cents per ton, on all vessels carrying more than 1,000 boxes, or on nearly all American shipping that comes to this port.

HARBOR REGULATIONS OF THE PORT OF HAVANA.

1. No vessel shall haul from one point to another without first obtaining permission from the captain of the port; and the hauling must be done between sunset and nine o'clock of the next morning, under the penalty of fifty dollars, it being understood that this rule has no reference to vessels arriving, which shall be governed by rule 2, 13, and 14. Neither shall any vessel pass the shoals into the inner part of the harbor without a pilot—if so done, pilotage shall be paid the same as if she took one.

2. As soon as the vessel is anchored, and her sails furled, she shall haul over to the eastern shore, in order to leave the channel free—hauling by the other vessels until she arrives at her anchorage. This rule is more urgent in case the vessel, from scant wind, has anchored in the narrowest part of the channel; in which case, she must be removed at once—and any captain who shall not do so upon being ordered, shall pay the pilot and his crew for hauling the vessel to her anchorage. The captain, on landing, must present himself to the captain of the port.

3. The captain of any vessel bringing powder, shall report the amount to the captain of the port for the order of deposit; and any one that shall make any concealment shall pay a fine of eighty dollars—it being observed that some captains, in order to improve opportunities of hauling to the wharf, and others under pretence of having but a small quantity, neglect to do so. Neither shall any one fire cannon, or discharge fire-arms in the port, without the knowledge of the captain of the port, and permission from the commandant-general of the station.

4. All vessels will put out their caboose fires at sunset, be they at the wharf or in the stream. The cabin light may be maintained until gun fire.

5. No vessel shall receive or discharge ballast without written permission from the captain of the port; neither shall any straw, sand, or dirt, be thrown into the water, under penalty of fifty dollars; neither shall any tar, pitch, or other combustible substance, be heated on board any vessel, under penalty of one hundred dollars.

6. All orders communicated to captains of vessels by the pilots must be obeyed, as they emanate from the captain of the port.

7. In case any vessel should break adrift, and be in danger of stranding, or being lost or injured through bad weather, or other accident, it is incumbent upon the masters of all other vessels to render all assistance in their power; and in case of refusal, such master shall pay for all damage caused by his neglect.

8. It is necessary that masters of vessels, on anchoring, should take particular care not to overlay the chains or anchors of another vessel, otherwise he shall be responsible for all damage caused by his carelessness.

9. No vessel shall sail from the port before sunrise, nor after sunset, as it is necessary that they should be visited on departing.

10. In case any vessel requires to be caulked, careened, or smoked, before being done, permission must be obtained from the captain of the port; and in no case must it be done at the wharf, as there are several places proper for these purposes, where vessels can be repaired without prejudice to the port, and the master can select that which best pleases him.

11. No vessel will haul to the wharf without permission from the collector, and in no case will they make fast to those already alongside the wharf, under penalty of fifty dollars, and paying for all damage that may be occasioned by being so fast, especially in case of bad weather or fire, when it may be necessary to haul out from the wharf, and be delayed in consequence of vessels being fast to them. Before hauling to the wharf, all vessels shall strike their top-gallant yards and masts, top the fore and main yards, run in the main and jib booms, and cockbill the anchors, so as to avoid damaging other vessels. Every vessel must be at least a foot and a half from others. With these precautions, vessels will be able to haul out, in case of fire, without those accidents so often noted; and in case of bad weather will not injure one another.

12. No vessel will moor alongside the wharf, but along the shore of Casa Blanca, leaving clear the space from the north corner of Marti's wharf to the northwest angle of the royal stores at Casa Blanca, for the passage to and from the Cabana, avoiding to anchor nearer to the men-of-war than a cable's length.

13. No vessel shall make fast to any of the buoys that are placed on the shoals in the harbor, under penalty of one hundred dollars, and all damages and expenses that may be caused by displacing the buoy.

14. In case of fire on board any vessel in the harbor, all masters are required to repair to the burning vessel with their boats, provided with warps, buckets, and everything that they may judge serviceable, and also water-engines, such as may have them, in order to assist to extinguish the flames. The captain of the port trusts that this article will be faithfully attended to.

15. Should any master of a vessel need a launch, he can procure such as may suit him, but he will advise the captain of the port, in order that she may be examined, as prescribed by law; and any one that shall load a launch without leaving two inches of the wales out of water, shall incur a penalty of twenty dollars.

16. In case of disorder on board any vessel among the seamen, late at night, the master can apply to the guard-ship for assistance until morning, when he will apply to his consul for a written request to the captain of the port, for the imprisonment of the delinquents. No vessel shall discharge a seaman without permission from the consul.

17. The day before leaving port, masters will call at the captain of the port's office, where they will receive an order for their powder, in case they had any deposited.

18. It is prohibited to sail about the harbor, in boats, after the eight o'clock gun; and any person arrested for violating this law will be taken on board the flag-ship, where he will remain at the disposition of the admiral.*

19. As a protection against desertion, and to impede the decoying of men from one ship to another, a shipping master has been appointed for the port, who only is authorized to take cognizance of the shipping of men on board of vessels in this port. To this shipping master it is prohibited to ship any man, until he is well assured that such man has been legally discharged from the vessel in which he arrived at this port, and with the knowledge and consent of the consul of the nation to which such vessel belongs. Masters of vessels can make their own contracts with seamen that have been legally discharged; but on no pretext, whatever, shall any seaman be employed on board any vessel in this harbor, unless he has been legitimately shipped before said shipping master, and it has been made known by the shipping master, and the captain of the vessel, to the consul of the nation to which such vessel belongs. If any master of a vessel shall receive or employ any seaman, in contravention of the foregoing regulations, he shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for every seaman so received on board, which penalty shall be duplicated in every case of finding men illegally on board a vessel, after having been cleared at the custom-house.

It is the duty of the shipping master, Mr. Daniel Warren, to observe these rules, and to report any infraction thereof to the captain of the port, for the enforcing of the penalty.

20. The carrying of concealed arms being prohibited by the laws of the country, under pain of six years imprisonment, the penalty will be enforced on any one that may be found on shore with pointed knives, pistols, or other prohibited arms; and it is charged upon all masters of vessels that they observe that their men respect this law.

21. Every master of a vessel will hoist his national flag when the flag-ship hoists hers, whether it be for a festival or other cause; and on leaving his vessel, will leave it charged upon his officers.

22. Masters of vessels will receive a copy of these rules from the boarding adjutant.

NOTE.—Vessels touching at this port in ballast, or with cargo, to try the market, or procure supplies, will be quarantined if the bill of health is not certified by the Spanish consul at the port of departure; but they can communicate with the city by letter, which will be taken by the health officer, and answers returned by the same conveyance; and can receive their supplies and clear while in quarantine. If they do not break bulk, the charge for tonnage dues will not be incurred, and the total expense will not amount to more than \$110, for a vessel of 200 tons; the charge of 1¼ rials per ton, for the mud machine, being the principal expense. Vessels in ballast can clear, and remain in port as long as they please afterwards; and, should they then take cargo, the expense for re-entry is very light.

POLICE REGULATIONS OF HAVANA.

No one will be allowed to disembark on the island without a passport, except in case of inevitable loss of papers by shipwreck, capture, or other similar cause, and the presentation of a bondsman, who will answer to the authorities for the term of one year, and present him, should he be demanded.

Passengers from foreign ports should have their passports certified by the Spanish consul.

No master of a vessel will receive on board any passenger, to convey from one point to another, without a passport, under penalty of twenty-five dollars.

* The limit in the eighteenth rule, respecting boats in the harbor after night-fall, has been extended by the commandant of marines until eleven o'clock.

Any person that receives a slave on board any vessel, to be conveyed from one point to another, without permission from the master of a slave, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars, without prejudice to any action at law that may be brought against him therefor.

No master of a vessel will receive on board any deserting soldier or sailor, under the pains and penalties prescribed in the military code.

All colored persons, slaves or free, that arrive from foreign countries, shall be sent immediately to a deposit, prepared by the government for that purpose, where they shall remain until the moment of leaving the island; or they can remain on board the vessel, provided the consignee will give a bond for one thousand dollars, to be forfeited in case they leave her, which bond shall not be cancelled until the return of the boarding officer, on the departure of the vessel.

Purchases made from slaves or servants shall be forfeited, and the purchaser punished as he may deserve. The same is understood of purchases of soldiers, unless it be some article of their own manufacture, or made with the intervention of an officer.

No person shall make, sell, purchase, or carry, under the penalties assigned by law, any of the following weapons:—Pistols of all classes; muskets or carbines, less than four palms in the barrel; gun or pistol-canes, of any kind; sword-canes, nor any cane with a concealed blade of any kind; dirks or daggers of any kind less than four hands in the blade; knives with spring backs, or any other contrivance to fix the blade when open; bayonet, without the gun; nor any pointed knife, great or small, of any kind.

Much complaint having been made of the injury sustained from the owners of eating and liquor shops, who, together with their assistants, insidiously entice and entrap the crews of foreign vessels, on the plea of being their countrymen, and the identity of language, which induces them to join their meetings, where they suggest to them the idea of leaving their vessels, as also of claiming the wages they suppose due, holding out to them the prospect of new and more lucrative voyages, these inveiglers having no other interest than to make the sailors pass the night at their houses, causing them a daily expense on trust, which is increased by fraud and intoxication, in order to be claimed afterwards of the masters or consignees of the vessels to which they belong—it is ordered that the owners of such establishments, and boarding-house keepers, shall not admit them into their houses, nor give them any thing on trust, much less allow them to pass the night there, without written consent of the masters of their respective vessels, under pain of forfeiture of what they may supply them, and all damages that may arise from the concealment and detention of mariners.

[This law has been amended by the imposition of a fine of twenty-four dollars on any boarding-house keeper that shall keep a sailor over night without permission, over and above the forfeiture above named.]

TARIFF—DUTY ON COCOA NUTS.

J. W. McCulloch, comptroller at the treasury department, has addressed a letter to the collector of customs for the district of New York, under date "Treasury Department, Comptroller's Office, April 15th, 1844," as follows:—

"SIR—It has been represented to this office that upon an importation of cocoa nuts at your district, duty has been charged at the rate of 20 per cent ad valorem; but, as upon this article, like other nuts not used in dyeing, duty should be charged at the rate of one cent per lb, you will in future collect that rate of duty upon it, under the second clause of the eighth section of the tariff.* The weight of cocoa nuts upon which duty should be levied, must include the shell, but not that of the husks, or outer covering."

* The words are these:—"On all nuts not specified, except those used for dyeing, one cent per pound."

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COTTON TRADE OF TRIESTE, AUSTRIA.

IMPORTATIONS OF COTTON, AND AVERAGE PRICES AT TRIESTE.

THE American cotton imported into Trieste is mostly consumed in the interior of Austria. Some, however, is sent to Switzerland, and likewise to Venetian Lombardy; but probably, before long, the importations for the supply of Venetian Lombardy and of Switzerland will be made direct to Venice from the United States, by a commercial company, which has been lately established at Venice, under the authority of the Austrian government. The direct importations of cotton from the United States into Trieste, during 1842, were much interfered with by importations of nearly an equal amount from Liverpool, Havre, and Marseilles. 29,400 bales were, however, disposed of between the commencement of the year and the 21st of November, at which period the stock on hand of American cotton was 21,000 bales, with an extremely dull market. The usual quality of the Mako cotton is considered superior to the American, with the exception of Sea Island, and the finest Louisiana. There is a superior quality of Mako cotton, which ranks between the finest Louisiana and the Sea Island. Much of the Egyptian cotton, for the manufactures of the interior of Germany, not only of Austria, but of Zoll-Verein, is supplied from Trieste. Large quantities are also sent to Switzerland. So long as the monopoly on tobacco continues, there is but one principal article of the produce of the United States (viz: cotton) which can enter into a direct commerce with Trieste. In 1835, cotton first become an article of importation, and 322 bales were received at Trieste, from the United States. The quantity imported from the United States has continued to increase, as will be seen from the table below, compiled from authentic tabular statements politely furnished the editor of this Magazine, by J. George Harris, Esq., late of the United States Tobacco Agency in Europe:—

IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO TRIESTE, FROM 1815 TO 1839, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Bales from U. S.	Bales from Brazil.	Bales from India.	Bales from Egypt.	Bales from Malta & Sicily.	Bales from Levant.	Tot. bales.
1815,.....	322	431	60	1,333	390	12,036	14,572
1816,.....	434	1,066	49	3,541	1,867	26,814	33,773
1817,.....	1,973	1,057	46	758	1,590	13,947	19,371
1818,.....	217	518	912	2,834	1,684	6,559	12,724
1819,.....	737	1,268	2,785	3,189	2,723	12,627	23,334
1820,.....	431	439	1,121	3,148	4,693	12,864	22,696
1821,.....	679	1,186	30	4,320	2,236	15,337	23,788
1822,.....	838	1,306	754	6,843	1,126	20,894	31,761
1823,.....	1,550	3,934	129	13,569	1,552	12,026	32,760
1824,.....	144	207	17,798	1,247	7,698	27,094
1825,.....	170	9,312	3,622	17,301	30,463
1826,.....	3,271	48	2,065	18,206	1,651	8,015	33,256
1827,.....	3,802	200	552	16,916	932	7,570	29,972
1828,.....	4,078	437	545	26,985	807	7,338	40,090
1829,.....	17,748	5,742	2,217	5,203	240	9,289	40,439
1830,.....	7,111	6,760	780	23,470	69	4,232	42,422
1831,.....	7,729	6,089	205	47,529	47	9,997	66,196
1832,.....	6,762	3,307	143	49,980	1,165	28,634	89,991
1833,.....	4,940	3,803	43,166	3,689	9,340	64,938
1834,.....	13,478	2,437	17,855	780	19,957	54,537
1835,.....	17,892	3,761	1,056	30,443	2,293	25,231	80,676
1836,.....	23,450	2,414	1,687	48,807	2,494	48,046	126,898
1837,.....	20,871	876	797	48,944	912	23,137	95,537
1838,.....	20,702	2,576	13	54,701	89	29,976	108,057
1839,.....	18,030	6,175	224	19,535	1,785	39,971	85,720
Total, ..	177,359	56,037	16,170	518,415	39,748	428,936	1,231,065

AVERAGE PRICES OF COTTON AT TRIESTE, FROM 1815 TO 1839.

Years.	U. STATES. Florins.	BRAZIL. Florins.	INDIA. Florins.	LEVANT. Florins.	EGYPT. Florins.	MALTA AND SICILY. Florins.
1815,...	... a ...	120 a 155	81 a 140	79 a 96	65 a 88	... a ...
1816,...	95 a 110	128 a 155	80 a 85	74 a 96	54 a 82	65 a 115
1817,...	86 a 98	105 a 136	55 a 65	64 a 85	51 a 60	56 a 111
1818,...	95 a ...	112 a 135	55 a 65	60 a 90	40 a 55	50 a 115
1819,...	86 a ...	88 a 130	32 a 65	47 a 88	26 a 43	57 a 115
1820,...	62 a 68	75 a 96	32 a 42	34 a 56	25 a 33	57 a 62
1821,...	55 a 62	65 a 80	29 a 36	34 a 57	25 a 34	52 a 62
1822,...	37 a 56	60 a 70	28 a 34	30 a 52	28 a 36	38 a 55
1823,...	39 a 56	52 a 70	27 a 31	28 a 46	26 a 35	40 a 52
1824,...	38 a 44	50 a 56	27 a 28	27 a 43	23 a 33	42 a 55
1825,...	... a a a ...	34 a 75	27 a 60	46 a 90
1826,...	41 a 42	55 a ...	29 a 35	35 a 47	25 a 44	42 a 59
1827,...	35 a 39	48 a ...	28 a 34	30 a 42	26 a 31	33 a 40
1828,...	34 a 40	42 a 48	24 a 34	26 a 39	26 a 30	34 a 36
1829,...	31 a 36	37 a 43	22 a 28	27 a 38	27 a 30	35 a 38
1830,...	33 a 37	37 a 42	22 a 30	28 a 36	26 a 28	34 a 36
1831,...	32 a 34	33 a 39	27 a 28	27 a 34	37 a 28	35 a 36
1832,...	33 a 37	33 a 42	21 a 22	25 a 32	23 a 25	35 a 36
1833,...	38 a 54	42 a 65	24 a 25	28 a 50	36 a ...	35 a 60
1834,...	44 a 54	46 a 65	28 a 30	32 a 47	34 a 37	41 a 51
1835,...	50 a 63	43 a 72½	41 a 44	36 a 53	36 a 47	42 a 63
1836,...	42 a 65	58 a 65	40 a 44	31 a 50	36 a 38	43 a 55
1837,...	31 a 54	37 a 48	24 a 30	20 a 42	... a ...	31 a 47
1838,...	32 a 39	35 a 50	21 a 26	20 a 32	... a ...	33 a 35
1839,...	37 a 50	36 a 51	22 a 28	18 a 30	... a ...	34 a 45

The foregoing prices are quoted in florins, and for 100 lbs. of Austria, equal to 123½ lbs. avoirdupois. The florin is worth 48½ cents, United States currency.

Mr. Harris says that Brazilian cotton, which formerly commanded in the Austrian market one-third more than American, now sells at the same price; the only sort that brings a better price than our common qualities being a small proportion of the very finest of the Egyptian, which stands to the main crop in a relation similar to that which the Sea Island stands to the crop of the United States. The current commercial tables of Trieste, annually published, (and for which we are indebted to Mr. Harris for a series,) show a gradual and increased demand for our cotton, together with a corresponding increase of comparative prices, while there has been a slow and constant decline in the demand and price for that of other countries. In 1843, a larger quantity, however, of the Egyptian cotton, found a market at Trieste, than in any one year previous; but, under existing circumstances, this is no indication of the active demand; "for it is," adds Mr. Harris, "a well known fact there, that the crop of the previous year was forced into market by the Pacha, at numerical prices, in consequence of the severe pressure which he experienced in money matters."

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO THE BRAZILS.

The gross amount of English and Irish produce exported to the Brazils, was—

In 1841,.....	£2,556,554	In 1843,.....	£2,140,127
1842,.....	1,756,805		

In the latter year, the leading articles exported were as follows:—

Cotton goods,.....	£1,096,669	Linens,.....	£154,323
Hardware,.....	80,070	Woollens,.....	278,171
Iron and copper,.....	36,815	Arms,.....	18,155
Haberdashery,.....	20,282	Earthenware,.....	46,611
Glass,.....	27,637	Leather goods,.....	23,309
Silks,.....	30,403	Tin, &c.,.....	11,108

PRICES OF SUNDRY ARTICLES OF IRON AT PHILADELPHIA.

List of Articles.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
	January.	January.	January.	January.
Iron screws,.....	20 per cent.	22½ per cent.	27½ per cent.	30 per cent.
Sad irons,.....	5½ cents.	5 cents.	4½ cents.	3½ cents.
Axes,.....	\$15 to \$16	\$14 to \$16	\$12 to \$14	\$11 to \$13
Grass scythes,.....	9 50	9 50	8 to 9	8 to 9
Corn scythes,.....	13 00	13 00	11 to 12	11 to 12
Cut nails,.....	5 25	5 00	4 00	4 to 4 25
Shovels and spades,	6 to 7 50	6 to 7 50	5 50 to 7 50	5 to 7 25
Hollow-ware,.....	67 50	62 50	57 50	55 00
Mill saws,.....	70 cents.	70 cents.	70 cents.	65 cents.
Cross-cut saws,....	38½ "	38½ "	33½ "	35½ "
Cast steel,.....	16½ & 17 "	17 "	16 to 17 "	15 "
Shear steel,.....	14½ to 17 "	15 to 17 "	14 to 17 "	14 to 15 "
Eng. common iron,	\$75 to \$80	\$65 to \$70	\$60 to \$65	\$60 to \$62 50
Eng. refined iron,.	85 to 90	80 to 85	75 to 80	72 50 to 77 50
Amer. boiler iron,.	5½ to 6 cents.	5½ to 6 cents.	5 to 5½ cents.	5 to 5½ cents.
Pig iron,.....	\$30 to \$32 50	\$30 to \$32½	\$24 to \$26	\$26 to \$28

PRICES OF MOLASSES AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK,

FROM 1795 TO 1843, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.
1795, per gall.	60 cts.	1812, per gall.	52 cts.	1828, per gall.	30 cts.
1796, "	62	1813, "	75	1829, "	30
1797, "	68	1814, "	85	1830, "	25
1798, "	56	1815, "	75	1831, "	27
1799, "	50	1816, "	57	1832, "	27
1800, "	48	1817, "	53	1833, "	32
1801, "	56	1818, "	54	1834, "	31
1802, "	36	1819, "	50	1835, "	38
1803, "	42	1820, "	34	1836, "	38
1804, "	51	1821, "	28	1837, "	35
1805, "	40	1822, "	32	1838, "	37
1806, "	38	1823, "	28	1839, "	34
1807, "	41	1824, "	27	1840, "	26
1808, "	50	1825, "	28	1841, "	25
1809, "	52	1826, "	28	1842, "	18
1810, "	48	1827, "	33	1843, "	23
1811, "	54				

PRICES OF SALT AT BOSTON,

FROM 1795 TO 1843, INCLUSIVE, PER BUSHEL.

Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.
1795,.....	77 cts.	1812,.....	61 cts.	1828,.....	48 cts.
1796,.....	56	1813,.....	66	1829,.....	50
1797,.....	47	1814,.....	72	1830,.....	44
1798,.....	69	1815,.....	79	1831,.....	46
1799,.....	61	1816,.....	70	1832,.....	51
1800,.....	61	1817,.....	56	1833,.....	38
1801,.....	75	1818,.....	58	1834,.....	32
1802,.....	64	1819,.....	64	1835,.....	34
1803,.....	56	1820,.....	58	1836,.....	36
1804,.....	78	1821,.....	52	1837,.....	38
1805,.....	72	1822,.....	58	1838,.....	37
1806,.....	57	1823,.....	54	1839,.....	36
1807,.....	64	1824,.....	50	1840,.....	34
1808,.....	68	1825,.....	50	1841,.....	35
1809,.....	50	1826,.....	44	1842,.....	28
1810,.....	44	1827,.....	47	1843,.....	23
1811,.....	57				

PRICES OF DIFFERENT ARTICLES OF IRON, AT NEW YORK,
FROM THE YEAR 1840 TO 1844, INCLUSIVE.

Articles.	Jan. 1840.	Jan. 1841.	Jan. 1842.	Jan. 1843.	Jan. 1844.
Iron anvils, per lb.,.....cents	9½	9½	8½	8½	8½
Bars, common English rolled,.....per ton	\$76¼	\$71¼	\$52½	\$53¾	\$53¾
Bars, rolled English rolled,.....	93¾	87½	76¼	67½	67½
Bars, American refined,.....	90	85	77½	65	67½
Bars, Swedes hammered,.....	91¼	86¼	81¼	77½	72½
Blooms, American,.....	60	52½	50	47½	52½
Hoops, from ½ to 3 inches wide,.....	141½	113	113	108½	105
Nails, wrought, per lb.,.....cents	11½	11½	10½	9	9
Nails, cut, per lb.,.....	5¼	5½	5½	3¾	4¼
Nail rods, slit,.....per ton	\$115	\$111¼	\$106½	\$95	\$95
Pigs,.....	35¼	32½	31	25	27½
Brazier's rods, of 3-16 to 8-16 of an inch,.....	131	107	107	82½	87½
Sheets, average thickness, per lb.,.....cents	5½	5¼	5	5	4¾
Scythes,.....per dozen	\$13	\$12½	\$12½	\$9	\$9
Shovels,.....	10	9½	9	7¼	7¼
Rolled for bands, from 3X½ to 4X¼,.....per ton	122	99½	99½	77½	82½
Spikes, per lb.,.....cents	8	6¾	6¾	6	6
Tacks, 2½ to 16 oz. to the M.,.....	7½	7½	7½	5	4½
Tacks, exceeding 16 oz. to the M.,.....	15	15	15	10	10
Brads, from ½ to 2 inches, per M.,.....	13	13	13	7	7
Wire, not exceeding No. 14, per lb.,.....	8	7¾	7¾	6¼	6½
Wire, exceeding No. 14, per lb.,.....	18¾	18½	17¾	12	12
Axes, heavy,.....per dozen	\$18	\$17¾	\$15¾	\$13¾	\$13

PRICES OF GLASSWARE, AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK,
AT THE PRICES MENTIONED BELOW.

Dec. 1841.	Aug. 1842.	Dec. 1842.	Aug. 1843.	Dec. 1843.	Article.
\$2 25 doz.	\$2 00 doz.	\$2 00 doz.	\$1 80	\$1 58	Pint 8 flute tumblers.
1 12	1 00	1 00	75	58	Gill 6 "
1 25	1 25	1 12	90	81	Pillar ½ pt. tumblers.
1 35	1 35	1 12	1 00	95	Taper bar "
1 35	1 35	1 35	1 12	1 00	9 flute "
80	68	68	51	50	Pillar gill "
1 20	1 12	1 00	90	68	¾ pt. 8 flute "
2 00	1 80	1 80	1 68	1 35	½ pt. 6 flute "
2 00	1 80	1 80	1 70	1 40	½ pt. 8 flute "
2 25	2 00	2 00	1 80	1 35	Tulip salt.
90	90	90	90	68	Sqr. salt.
2 25	2 00	2 00	1 80	1 68	7 in. dish.
1 68	68	58	58	45	Gothic salt.
00	1 00	90	68	53	6 flute salt.
52	52	50	45	38	Dish salt.
1 80	1 80	1 80	1 70	1 35	Lamp —
40	40	38	36	36	4 oz. tumbler.
60	60	58	52	52	6 oz. "
1 20	1 12	90	90	81	8 oz. flint tumbler.
1 58	1 50	1 35	1 20	1 12	Night lamp.
1 00	1 00	90	80	72	Peg lamp.
6 75	6 75	6 00	4 50	3 60	Sqr. sugar.

COMMERCE OF HONOLULU, IN 1843.

The imports into Honolulu, (Sandwich Islands,) for year ending Dec. 31, 1843, were—

Imports in American vessels,.....	\$158,106	Duty paid on imp. in Amer. vessels,	\$4,743
“ English “	43,627	“ “ English “	1,308
“ French “	15,062	“ “ French “	451
“ Spanish “	4,559	“ “ Spanish “	136
“ German “	2,626	“ “ German “	60
Total,.....	\$223,380	Total,.....	\$6,698

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

INVENTION OF NAVIGATION AND MARINE IMPLEMENTS, IN 1843.

APPENDED to the annual report of Mr. Ellsworth, the commissioner of patents, is a list of patents granted in the year 1843, with the names of patentees, residence, &c., together with a list of patents expired in 1843. The list of patents is arranged under twenty-two distinct classifications. The seventh comes under the head of "Navigation and Maritime Implements," comprising all vessels for conveyance on water, their construction, rigging, and propulsion; diving dresses, life-preservers, &c. We give the list under this head for the benefit of those of our readers engaged in navigation and maritime affairs, as follows:—1. Constructing canal-boats, so that they can be transported on railroad cars; patented by John Dougherty, of Philadelphia, Pa. 2. Constructing steamboats, &c., to prevent them from sinking when coming in collision; by Horace D. Forbes, New York city. 3. Fender to protect boats against injury from snags and sawyers; by Joseph W. Kirk, Philadelphia, Pa. 4. Life-boats; by Lewis Raymond, New York city. 5. Life-preservers, for the use of steamboats, &c.; by Michael Pearson, Newburyport, Mass. 6. Propelling boats; by James H. Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 7. Propelling vessels by the buoyancy of air, &c.; by Sylvester W. Hall, of Troy, N. Y. 8. Propelling vessels by means of continuous streams of water; by Robert S. Schuyler, of New York city. 9. Propelling vessels, paddles, endless chain; by Beriah Douglass, Albany, N. Y. 10. Propelling vessels by steam, horizontal shifting paddle; by Horace Everett, of Windsor, Vt. 11. Steamboats—bail wheel for raising water from the hold of; by Horace D. Forbes, of New York city. 12. Steamboats—preventing from sinking; by Samuel G. Muckles, of New York city. 13. Representation of tides and currents; by Benjamin F. Watts, of Fort Gaines, Ga. 14. Vessels—ascertaining centre of gravity, &c.; by John Hebday, of Portsmouth, Va. 15. Connecting tiller with the rudder-head of vessels.

PORT OF DUNKERQUE, FRANCE.

Salomer, Senior, ship-broker, and translator of the English language at Dunkerque, has published the following note for the purpose of dissipating the fears which the American shipmasters might have felt, who should be disposed to visit that port, which is now, and by just title, considered one of the principal ports of France, from the great number of American vessels which arrive there, and the progressive increase of the custom duties; which, in 1839, amounted to 10,000,000 francs. The correctness of the statement is certified to by the masters of six American ships:—

"From the report of all the American masters who know Dunquerke, it seems that the general opinion in the United States is, that this port is considered as a small place for fishermen, and incapable of admitting with safety any large vessels. As a ship-broker, I deem it my duty to eradicate this erroneous opinion, and to signalize the real importance of Dunquerke. The 1st of May, 1839, it was ascertained by a commission, composed of the sub-prefect, of the mayor, of the chief engineer, of the master pilot, and of the members of the chamber of commerce, that, since the extension of the moles to low water mark, there is now 15 feet inside, in the still water, and 20 feet outside, in the rough water, French measure—say about 22 feet, English. Dunkerque has a fine basin, where, before 1814, and when it was a naval port, the frigates of the royal navy were alone admitted. This basin is now open to merchantmen. The length of the moles is about two miles, (say two-thirds of a league.) There is a light-house, several ship-yards, a pontoon, a careening place, and a stone quay, of 5,500 feet in length. A pilot-boat cruises constantly off Gravelines. 30,000 souls of population."

The following particulars of the port of Dunkerque emanate from the Bureau of Messieurs the officers of the port:—

"1,500 to 2,000 vessels enter annually in the port of Dunkerque. At full moon, they measure at the bar 7 metres (22 $\frac{3}{4}$ feet) of water, and at quarter moon 5 metres, (16 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.)

At Havre, they measure only 5 metres and 50 or 60 centimetres—about 15 to 17 feet. The entrance at our port is easier than at Havre, where, when a vessel touches, she is almost invariably lost. The same tide carries a ship, with a favorable wind, to the Naval basin, (*Bassin de la Marine*.) and out again to sea, when she wishes to sail. It is thus that American vessels, loaded, and drawing from 17 to 19 feet, enter the basin. In all seasons, two pilot-boats lie in the stream, and furnish pilots to the ships entering the harbor."

A captain of the merchant service, of thirty years' sailing, says:—

"There is provided for our port three pilot-boats, well manned. Two cruise, without intermission, to the north of the country, for all ships coming from the main sea; the third cruises to the west of the port, and is nearly always found off Gravelines, outside the banks. Every vessel, of no matter what draught of water, can approach to find her, without the least apprehension. A ship of 600 or 700 tons, drawing even 14 and 15½ feet of water, can enter into our port two days before the new or full moon, and three days after the new or full moon. There is wanted for that, the wind from the W. N. W., which is necessary to come from the English channel. If, for example, the wind was N. E., or even E., it would make, perhaps, less depth, but there would be then more sea; for with those winds the sea runs higher, which does not happen when the wind is W., and W. S. W. The situation of our port finds itself N. N. W. and S. S. E. Once near, the entrance is easy; once headed in, you immediately find there the means to make fast the vessel's entering; yawls well manned to carry the tow-lines, and always haulers, in case the wind should refuse an entrance. The channel is straight, and very deep, bottom muddy. If a ship cannot enter into the basin with the same tide, which might happen from high winds from the W. and S. W., there are found places for standing or berths by the quay, in front of the Bureau of Inspection, (the deepest part of the harbor, with soft, muddy bottom,) or in front of the *Rue des Arbres*, (Free street,) where every vessel can lie without the least strain."

LAW OF NEW YORK RESPECTING HOSPITAL MONEY.

THE following is an authentic copy of an act passed by the legislature of New York, May 7th, 1844, entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes in relation to the Marine Hospital and its Funds," passed April 1, 1843:—

Sec. 1. The first section of the act entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes in relation to the Marine Hospital and its Funds," passed April 18th, 1843, is hereby amended, so as to read as follows:—From the master of every vessel from a foreign port, for himself, one dollar and fifty cents; and for every cabin passenger, two dollars; for each steerage passenger, fifty cents; and for each mate and sailor, fifty cents.

Sec. 2. Whenever the health commissioner shall collect and receive any money under protest or notice on the part of the payer of an intention to contest the right of the state to such moneys, it shall be his duty to pay the moneys so received into the treasury of this state, making, at the same time, and delivering to the treasurer, a written statement of the circumstances under which the same was received, and the objections made by the payer.

Sec. 3. It shall be the duty of the comptroller, whenever it is ascertained and established, by the judgment and decree of a competent court, that the moneys so received into the treasury, under protest, have been illegally collected, and do not belong to the state, to draw his warrant on the treasurer for such moneys, in favor of the party entitled thereto.

Sec. 4. The health commissioner who shall pay into the treasury of this state public moneys collected by him under protest, shall be saved harmless against the consequences of any action brought against him for the recovery of moneys so received and paid: *Provided*, That such health commissioner shall, within five days, give notice to the comptroller and attorney general of any suit brought against him for the recovery of moneys paid under protest, and shall submit the management of the suit to the attorney general; and all costs and charges connected with the defence of said suit shall be paid from the treasury, in the same manner as if the suit was against the people of the state.

Sec. 5. The moneys collected by the late commissioner, under protest, shall be paid into the treasury; and the two preceding sections shall apply to him and the moneys thus paid into the treasury.

Sec. 6. Title one, of part one, of chapter fourteen, section twelve, of the Revised Statutes, is hereby amended, so as to read as follows:—The resident physician shall receive an annual salary of twelve hundred and fifty dollars, to be paid out of the moneys appropriated to the use of the marine hospital.

Sec. 7. The health officer shall, annually, on or before the 1st of January, report to the comptroller, under oath, the receipts and expenditures of the marine hospital; together with all the receipts and perquisites of his office, and the items connected therewith.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Observations, Principally in France and Great Britain.* By JOHN P. DURBIN, D. D., President of Dickinson College. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 308 and 312. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These volumes furnish an interesting and well written account of the author's tour in Europe, with some notices of the most prominent topics of interest at present attracting the attention of the world. The opinions expressed on several important subjects differ from those that are current among us; and Dr. Durbin confesses that they are at variance with those he entertained before he visited the old world. This was very natural, and is an evidence of a candid and unprejudiced mind. A portion of the second volume is occupied with an account of Wesleyan Methodism in England. Methodists will not, of course, object to it; and others, who take an interest in the progress of religion and of human society, will not be unwilling to learn something of so powerful an agency. The observations on the evils and abuses that forced themselves upon the attention of Dr. D., are made in a liberal and catholic spirit, with a truly American feeling; without, however, being either anti-French or anti-English.

- 2.—*The Poems and Ballads of Schiller.* Translated by SIR EDWARD LYTTON BULWER, Bart. With a Brief Sketch of the Author's Life. 12mo., pp. 424. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There have been many translations of detached poems by Schiller. This, however, with very "trivial exceptions," includes the whole collection, so remarkable for the rich variety it embraces, and the noble mind it reflects. The reader is here invited to a survey of the whole of those poems in which Schiller has developed the flower of every faculty he possessed—the fruit of every study he pursued. The object of the translator has been to adhere with as much fidelity to the original as the necessity of construing poetry into poetry will permit; and, as a whole, he believes that there are few translations of poems, equally numerous and diversified, in which loyalty and allegiance to the sense of the original have been so sedulously rendered. The poems are introduced by a comprehensive outline of the life of Schiller, which is replete with interest and instruction.

- 3.—*Critical and Miscellaneous Essays.* By T. BABINGTON MACAULAY. Vol. V. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The present volume, just issued from the Philadelphia press, is printed and bound to match the four volumes previously published. It contains eight of the author's masterly essays, which have appeared at intervals in the Edinburgh Review, from 1829 to 1843; and embraces critical notices of the life and writings of Madame d'Arbly, Addison, Barrere's Memoirs, Montgomery's Poems, Civil Disabilities of the Jews, Mills's Essay on Government, &c. Macaulay is regarded as the first critical and historical essayist of our time. "His style is classical," says Horne, in his *New Spirit of the Age*, "because it is correct; and it is popular, because it must be intelligible to every educated understanding." No scholar's library can be complete without these "Miscellanies."

- 4.—*Girlhood and Womanhood; or, Sketches of my Schoolmates.* By MRS. A. G. GRAVES, author of "Woman in America." Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

The schoolmates of the author, under the various shades of character and circumstances while at school, and in all the after events of domestic life, seem to be sketched with fidelity. Its pictures are drawn from human nature as it is found, and not from any ideal representation of what it may become. It exhibits different varieties of female character, as seen in girlhood, following them to their full development in womanhood, in order to prove the natural connection that exists between these important periods. "As the girl is, the woman will be, unless some powerful counteraction has intervened," is the great truth it illustrates.

- 5.—*An Elementary Treatise on the Structure and Operations of the National and State Governments of the United States.* By CHARLES MASON, A. M., Counsellor at Law. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

We have never met with a work so well adapted to the object for which it was designed. It exhibits, in a clear and comprehensive form, a summary account of the forms and modes of administration of our national and state governments, that must render it useful for schools, academies, and indeed for all classes of society. Avoiding all general disquisition, Mr. Mason presents an exact statement of the actual construction of our political and civil institutions, in all their various branches, and of the processes and means by which they are, in fact, conducted and sustained. It, in short, contains information upon matters relating to government and civil polity, with which every person, living under a free government, ought to have at least some general acquaintance. We consider it, on the whole, the best work of the kind ever published in this country. The work, we perceive, has the unqualified recommendation of Judge Story, Dr. Wayland, and other distinguished men, fully competent to form a correct estimate of its value.

- 6.—*Shakspeare's Plays.* Edited by GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. The Illustrations designed, selected, and arranged by ROBERT W. WEIR. New York: H. W. Hewett.

Mr. Hewett has already acquired a wide reputation as the publisher of one of the most elegantly illustrated and printed copies of the Common Prayer-Book of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in this country; and the present serial edition of the plays of the Bard of Avon has been pronounced the most magnificent ever published. Seven numbers of it have already appeared, embracing Hamlet, and a part of Macbeth. Mr. Verplanck, the American editor, after a careful collection of the texts, and an examination of the editions, for which, from his varied attainments, he is so well qualified, has selected the text of Mr. Collier's recent edition, to place in the printer's hands as the basis of the present impression. He has, however, departed from Collier's text in more than twenty places, chiefly by restoring the old folio readings where Mr. C. preferred those of the quartos. All the various readings affecting the sense will, however, be found in the notes.

- 7.—*Life in the Sick-Room. Essays,* by HARRIET MARTINEAU. With an Introduction to the American edition. By ELIZA L. FOLLEN. Boston: Leonard C. Bowles.

This work, "which cannot fail," says Mrs. Follen, "to be a blessing to humanity," had no name attached to it; yet every line of it so proclaimed its author, that the effort to be lost in the subject was vain. Such was Harriet Martineau's earnest desire to do what she could for her fellow-sufferers, by giving them the results of her painful but precious experience, through a hopeless illness of five years, that she was irresistibly compelled to utter herself to the world once more; but her reluctance to the self-exposure was so great, that she threw what veil she could over her words, by withholding her name. Not even her nearest and dearest friends knew that she had written such a book, till the grateful public declared that no one but her could have written "Life in a Sick-Room." Sympathy, nature, life, and death to the invalid—the temper, the perils and pains, and the griefs and sweets of invalidism, all pass in review before one, of whom it was beautifully said, by an appreciating friend—

"Thou must endure, yet loving all the while;
 Alive, yet never separate from thy kind;
 Meet every frailty with a tender smile,
 Though to no possible depth of evil blind."

- 8.—*Notes, Critical and Practical, on the Book of Joshua. Designed as a General Help to Biblical Reading and Instruction.* By GEORGE BUSH, Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Literature, New York City University. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Dr. Bush deservedly ranks among the first Hebrew scholars of our time. His interpretations of the prophecies of the Old Testament have attracted the attention of eminent Biblical scholars in Europe and America, and his critical and practical notes are generally considered, by popular theologians, as sound and orthodox.



- 9.—*Theory of Morals. An Inquiry concerning the Law of Moral Distinctions, and the Variations and Contradictions of Ethical Codes.* By RICHARD HILDRETH. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The present volume is the first of six treatises which Mr. Hildreth proposes to produce, under the general title of "Rudiments of the Science of Man." They are to be published in the following order:—1. Theory of Morals; 2. Theory of Politics; 3. Theory of Wealth; 4. Theory of Taste; 5. Theory of Knowledge; 6. Theory of Education. The peculiarity of this series, we are informed, in the introduction to the present work, will consist in an attempt to apply, vigorously and systematically, to the several subjects, the inductive method of investigation—a method which, in physical science, has proved successful beyond expectation; but which, hitherto, has been very partially employed, and, in consequence, with very small results, upon the yet nobler and more important science of man. Mr. H. claims the merit of an earnest, honest, thoughtful, laborious endeavor after truth.

- 10.—*American Criminal Trials.* By PELEG W. CHANDLER, Member of the American Antiquarian Society, &c. Vol. II. Boston: Timothy H. Carter & Co.

The first volume of this work was published more than two years ago, and proved eminently successful. The two extend over a period of more than one hundred and fifty years, and contain accounts of the most important and interesting criminal trials that have taken place in this country, from the first establishment of judicial tribunals here, till after the adoption of the constitution of the United States. In the form of abridged narrations, divested of the technicalities of legal proceedings, they will be interesting to the general reader; and, as illustrations of the morals and manners, the religious and political history of that period, valuable to the philosophical inquirer.

- 11.—*D'Aubigne's "History of the Reformation in Germany and Switzerland" Reviewed; or, the Reformation in Germany Examined in its Instruments, Causes, and Manner, and in its Influence on Religion, Government, Literature, and General Civilization.* By M. J. SPALDING, D. D. Baltimore: John Murphy.

This work is designed by the author to point out what he conceives to be M. D'Aubigne's "numerous omissions, blunders, and misrepresentations." He considers that work a "tissue of miserable cant and misrepresentation, from beginning to end." This he hopes to make appear by undeniable evidence, consisting of facts taken from original documents, and other authentic sources. The volume before us, a duodecimo of nearly four hundred pages, embraces an extended and connected essay on the Protestant Reformation in Germany, examining that revolution in the character of the men who brought it about, in its causes and manner, and in its influences on religion, on free government, on literature, and on general civilization. The impartial investigator of truth who has read D'Aubigne, will feel it his duty, doubtless, to examine the review of Mr. Spalding.

- 12.—*The Goths in New England: A Discourse delivered at the Anniversary of the Philomathesian Society of Middlebury College, August, 1843.* By GEORGE P. MARSH.

We have read this excellent discourse with great interest. The subject is ably discussed, and every page and paragraph bears the impress of the deep thinker and accomplished scholar. Mr. Marsh now worthily represents Vermont, his native state, in Congress. He is yet a young man, and we predict for him an honorable and brilliant career in statesmanship and political science.

- 13.—*The Brother and Sister, and other Tales.* By Mrs. ELLIS, author of "The Irish Girl, and other Poems," "Mothers of England," "Poetry of Life," etc., etc. New York: H. G. Langley.

This little volume contains thirteen tales, selected from the Juvenile Scrap-Book of Mrs. Ellis. Inculcating, like all the writings of the author, moral truths in connection with the happy recollections of fireside enjoyments, and pleasant narrative, they will find readers in all family circles, of every age, capacity, and condition.

14.—*The Catholic Church, in England and America.* By JOHN D. OGILBY, D. D., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, &c. 12mo., pp. 208. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This volume contains three lectures on the "Church in England and America, Apostolic and Catholic;" the "Course of the English Reformation;" "Its Character and Results." They were prepared for delivery to a popular audience, in a course of lectures on the distinctive principles of the Church. The writer maintains the claims of his Church to the title of "Protestant" and "Episcopal," which has been awarded to it by the Romish Church on the one hand, and the dissenting congregations on the other. It is printed in the uniformly beautiful style of the valuable collection of standard works embraced in the "Churchman's Library."

15.—*Irish Girl, and other Poems.* By SARAH ELLIS, author of "Women of England," "Poetry of Life," etc. New York: H. G. Langley.

The universal and deserved popularity of Mrs. Ellis's prose productions induced the American publisher to collect her fugitive pieces in verse, under the very natural impression that they would prove acceptable to the public, more especially since they have never before appeared in a collected form. Although they can scarcely lay claim to an equal degree of literary excellence with the best poetic productions of the day, they certainly are not destitute of that distinguishing charm of domestic interest which characterises the numerous prose works of this esteemed author, on the morals of social life. The volume is, however, by no means destitute of merit—all the pieces are in good taste, and several which grace the collection might challenge poetical criticism with impunity.

16.—*The Book that Will Suit You; or, A Word for Every One.* By the REV. JAMES SMITH, author of the "Believer's Daily Remembrancer," etc. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This neatly printed little book is intended by the author "to lay on the table in the drawing-room, parlor, hall, kitchen, or cottage, that the visiter who is waiting for an interview, or the servant who is waiting for a message, or the neighbor who comes in to sit down for a few minutes, may take it up, and read a portion." It consists of laconic illustrations of texts of Scripture, conveyed in language the meaning of which cannot be mistaken.

17.—*The Chemical and Physiological Balance of Organic Nature. An Essay.* By M. J. DUMAS and M. J. B. BOUSSINGAULT, Member of the Institute of France. Edited by D. P. GARDINER, M. D., Lecturer on Agricultural Chemistry, &c. New York: Saxton & Miles.

This excellent little work presents a variety of new views, calculated to supply general physiology, medicine, and agriculture, with grounds upon which the study of the chemical phenomena that take place in organized beings may be advantageously pursued. The doctrines of Dumas and Boussingault, as here expressed, are prefatory to a more detailed practical treatise.

18.—*The Mother's Book.* By L. MARIA CHILD, author of the "Frugal Housewife," the "Girl's Own Book," "Philothea," "Letters from New York," etc. New York: C. S. Francis.

Few works of this class have had a more extensive circulation, either in England or America; and we are under great obligations to the New York publisher for producing a sixth edition, with corrections and additions by the author. It is replete with sensible and judicious hints, remarks, and suggestions; and, if it is not already, should be in the hands of every mother in America.

19.—*The Girl's Manual, comprising a Summary View of Female Accomplishments, and Principles of Conduct.*

20.—*The Boy's Manual, comprising a Summary View of the Studies, Accomplishments, and Principles of Conduct best suited for promoting Respectability, and Success in Life.* New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Excellent manuals, replete with sound and judicious hints for the guidance of boys and girls, in all the circumstances and relations of life.

- 21.—*The Christian Doctrines*. By Rev. HUBERT WINSLOW, author of "Young Man's Aid," "Doctrine of the Trinity," etc., etc. Boston: Crocker & Brewster.

In this volume, we have a series of discourses delivered by the author, in the ordinary course of his ministerial duties. The subjects classified are—the Existence, Natural and Moral Attributes of God; Creation; Powers and Depravity of Man; the Doctrines of the Atonement, Election, Regeneration, Justification, Adoption, Perseverance, the Punishment of the Wicked, and the Reward of the Righteous, &c. Mr. Winslow is a Calvinistic Congregationalist, and asserts and maintains the various doctrines of Christianity, as they are understood by the popular theologians of the day, with his usual force and clearness.

- 22.—*The Maxims, Experiences, and Observations of Agagos*. By CHARLES WILLIAM DAY, author of "Hints on Etiquette." Boston: Otis, Broaders & Co.

Although this little volume was written in England, for the English, it will doubtless, as human nature is pretty much the same the world over, be found to contain much that is useful or suggestive to the new society into which the author has entered. "Those whom it touches not," says Mr. Day, "can exclaim, with Hamlet, 'Let the galled jade wince—our withers are unwrung;'" whilst, to such as feel goaded by the spur of conscience, all he would say is, "Go, and sin no more." It contains many excellent maxims, and piquant remarks.

- 23.—*The Christian Philosopher; or, The Connection of Science and Philosophy with Religion*. Illustrated with engravings. By THOMAS DICK, LL. D. Philadelphia: Edward C. Biddle.

The present is a reprint of a work that has passed through eight large editions in Great Britain, and several stereotype editions in this country, in the East and West Indies, and on the continent of Europe. The author has availed himself of the progress made in the arts and sciences since the second edition was published, so as to embrace the latest improvements and discoveries in the different departments to which its diversified subjects refer. The additions amount to about one hundred and thirty pages, and between twenty and thirty additional engravings.

- 24.—*The Young Gardener's Assistant, in Three Parts; containing Catalogues of Garden and Flower Seed, with Practical Directions under each head, for the Cultivation of Culinary Vegetables and Flowers. Also, Directions for Cultivating Fruit Trees, the Grape Vine, &c. To which is added, A Calendar to each Part, showing the work necessary to be done in the various departments, each month of the year. Adapted to the Climate of the United States*. By THOMAS BRIDGMAN, Gardener, Seedsman, and Florist.

The design of this work is so copiously stated in the title-page, which we have quoted entire, that it is unnecessary to say more on that head. A work, too, which has passed through nine editions prior to the present, which is the tenth, and of which more than fourteen thousand copies have been sold, and which is recommended by all the agricultural Journals in the country, scarcely requires any encomium on its merits from us, were we competent to pronounce it. We will, therefore, only add that the present edition is handsomely printed by Mr. A. Hanford.

- 25.—*The Tongue of Time; or, The Language of a Clock*. By WILLIAM HARRISON, A. M., of Basenore College, Oxford, &c. From the second London edition. Boston: Saxton, Peirce & Co.

This is certainly a unique little volume. At the head of each chapter is the face of a watch, with the hand pointing at the time, from one to twelve; and under the picture, a passage from Scripture, containing just as many words as the hand of the watch points at. It commences at "one o'clock" with the word "Watch;" then "two," with the words "Fear God;" "three," "Honor all men;" and so on to twelve. Each hour, and passage of holy writ, are illustrated with appropriate reflections, designed to enforce some moral or religious truth.

- 26.—*A Pictorial History of the United States, with Notices of other Portions of America.* By S. G. GOODRICH, author of "Peter Parley's Tales." Philadelphia: Samuel Agnew.

The main purpose of this work is to furnish a full, accurate, and just history of the western continent, which will attract the young, and render the subject a common school study throughout the land. The interest of the reader is kept alive by continuous narrative, anecdotes, perspicuous arrangement, and simplicity of style. It is copiously illustrated with engravings of scenes and incidents, portraits, plans and maps, designed to convey correct ideas of men and things.

- 27.—*The Widow's Jewels. In Two Stories.* By a Lady. Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.
Simple and affecting stories, designed to interest and improve the young mind and heart.

- 28.—*The Young Sailor. A Narrative Founded on Fact.* By MRS. MARY S. B. DANA, author of the "Parted Family," "Charles Morton," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The main incidents of this narrative are derived from a manuscript belonging to the individual to whom these incidents, somewhat embellished, occurred. It is interesting and instructive.

- 29.—*The Ciceronian; or, The Prussian Method of Teaching the Elements of the Latin Language. Adapted to the Use of American Schools.* By B. SEARS. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The Prussian system of education is universally admitted to be the most thorough and complete; and this little manual, adopted in the schools of that country, has been adapted to the condition of our American schools by one of the finest classical scholars in the United States. It is considered, by those best able to form an opinion of its merits, as the best work of its class in use.

- 30.—*Life in the New World; or, Sketches of American Society.* By SEATSFIELD. Translated from the German. By AUGUSTUS C. HEBBE, LL. D., and JAMES MACKAY, M. A. New York: J. Winchester.

This completes the first volume of the series of Seatsfield's works, and forms a handsomely bound volume of about three hundred and fifty pages octavo, embracing the Courtship of George Howard, Esquire; the Courtship of Ralph Doughby, Esquire, in the Life of a Planter; Scenes in the Southwest; and the Squatter Chief, or the first American in Texas.

- 31.—*The World's Religion, as Contrasted with Christianity.* By LADY COLQUHOUN, Daughter of the Hon. John Sinclair. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

Fashionable Christianity is here brought in contrast with what the writer deems genuine scriptural Christianity; and the poverty of the former is contrasted with the blessedness of the latter, by a fervent and devout heart.

- 32.—*The Republic.*

This new daily has now been continued about four months, and is unquestionably one of the ablest Journals in the United States. It is neutral in politics, but pursues a dignified and independent course in the discussion of the great questions that agitate the country. Its reports of speeches, and the proceedings of public meetings, are generally accurate and impartial. Mr. Kettell, the gentleman who prepares the money and commercial articles, is perhaps the best informed writer, on financial matters, in the United States; and his views are received in Great Britain with marked consideration and respect. The leading editorials of Mr. Ryan, the principal editor, are well considered and judicious. We, of course, do not wish to be understood as endorsing all the views entertained by the editor, or put forth in the columns of this Journal.