

16) 4625000
 32
 142
 1028
 145
 144
 100
 9640

289062
 144531

THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XI. SEPTEMBER, 1844. NUMBER III.

CONTENTS OF NO. III, VOL. XI.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE.
I. <i>Trade and Commerce of Sweden</i> ,.....	203
II. <i>Labor—its Relations in the United States and Europe, Compared.</i> By Hon. NATHAN APPLETON, of Massachusetts,.....	217
III. <i>Ohio—its Wealth and Resources.</i> By J. W. SCOTT, of Ohio,.....	223
IV. <i>Merchant Seamen.</i> By JAMES H. LIANMAN, of Massachusetts,.....	230
V. <i>History of Banks and Banking in Illinois.</i> By HENRY BROWN, author of the "History of Illinois,".....	240
VI. <i>Mercantile Biography: Brief Notices of Merchants, distinguished in the early or Revolutionary history of the country.</i> Thomas C. AINORY—Hon. Jonathan Belcher—Hon. Thomas Cushing—Hon. Tristram Dalton—Hon. Thomas Davis. By the late ALDEN BRADFORD,.....	251
VII. <i>The Nature and Effect of Protective Tariffs.</i> By HAZEN J. BURTON, Merchant, of Massachusetts,.....	254
VIII. <i>The Question for Accountants.</i> By J. W. WRIGHT, of New York,.....	258

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE,

EMBRACING A FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC., ILLUSTRATED WITH TABLES, AS FOLLOWS :

Produce shipped from Buffalo and Black-Rock, in 1844,.....	260
Tolls on the New York canals, to August 1, 1843 and 1844,.....	260
Banks of New York State, from 1831, to August, 1844,.....	262
Immediate Means and Liabilities of the Banks of New York, to August, 1844,....	264

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

Cases in the United States Circuit Court, New York,.....	265
Rights and Remedies of Foreigners—John A. Barry's case,.....	265
Violation of Patent—Stephens vs. D. & W. Felt,.....	266
Action to recover Duties exacted at the Custom-House—Wetzlar vs. Swartwout,....	267
Action to recover Duties paid on importation of Merchandise—Paton vs. Curtis,....	267
Bottomry Bonds—the Brig Bridgeton,.....	268

	PAGE.
Action on a Charter-Party—Burgess <i>vs.</i> De Zaldo,.....	268
Loan—Hypothecated Stock—Farmers' Life and Trust Co. <i>vs.</i> Samuel B. Jewett,....	269

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

Commerce and Navigation of the United States, in 1843,.....	270
Domestic Exports of the United States, from 1st October, 1842, to 30th June, 1843,	271
Value of Domestic Exports of the United States, in American and Foreign vessels, to each country,.....	272
Value of Foreign Merchandise exported from the United States to each Foreign country,.....	274
Imports into the United States, from each Foreign country,.....	275
Exports to, and Imports into, the United States, from each Foreign country,.....	276
Navigation of the United States with different countries,.....	277
Commerce of each State and Territory, from 1st October, 1842, to 30th June, 1843,	279
Tonnage, Crews, etc., entered each State in the United States,.....	280
Tonnage, Crews, etc., cleared from each State in the United States,.....	281
Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on 30th June, 1843,.....	282
Vessels built in each State and Territory, in 1843,.....	284

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Drew's Plan for Preventing Ships from becoming Hugged,.....	284
Description of a Shoal off St. Croix,.....	285
Privilege of American Whale Ships at New Zealand,.....	286
A Practical Life-Preserver,.....	286

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

A Lucrative Commercial Enterprise,.....	286
Commercial Value of Old Paintings in England,.....	286
The Guano Trade in England and the United States,.....	287
The Fresh Fish Trade of Boston,.....	288
Lafitte, the French Banker; or, a Fortune made by Picking up a Pin,.....	289
Smelting Copper Ore in the United States,.....	290
Gigantic Commercial Enterprise,.....	291
American Fur Company's Stores at St. Louis,.....	291
"He will Never make a merchant,".....	292
An Instance of Commercial Integrity,.....	292

THE BOOK TRADE.

Griswold's D'Israeli's Curiosities of Literature,.....	293
Brown's History of Illinois,.....	293
Jacobs's Pacific Ocean—Strauss's Life of Christ,.....	294
Works of Charlotte Elizabeth—Lady's Work-Table Book,.....	294
Cooper's Naval Court-Martial in the Case of Mackenzie,.....	294
Napier's Peninsular War—Morse's Geography,.....	295
Herschberger's Horseman—Taylor's Apostolic Baptism,.....	295
Foster's Miscellaneous Essays on Christian Morals,.....	295
More's (Hannah) Domestic Tales—Bush's Notes on Judges,.....	296
Works in Pamphlet form, received since our last,.....	296

HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1844.

ART. I.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF SWEDEN.

NATURAL RESOURCES OF SWEDEN—AGRICULTURE—GOVERNMENT AND TREATIES WITH FOREIGN STATES—COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS AND TARIFFS—MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—GOTHA CANAL—NAVIGATION AND TRADE OF SWEDEN—SHIPPING—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—TRADE OF STOCKHOLM—TRADE OF GOTHENBURG, ETC.*

THE kingdoms of Sweden and Norway comprise a large peninsula, united to the continent by the isthmus which separates the Gulf of Bothnia from the White sea.

The aspect of the sea-coast of Sweden, is generally low, and greatly broken up by bays, harbors, lakes and torrents. Of the numerous rivers, the Tornea and the Angerman are the principal. In the northwestern parts, bordering on Norway, the country is rugged, hilly and even mountainous. The soil, where the surface is not occupied by rocks, is chiefly light and sandy. Rich alluvial tracks occur, and mosses and marshes are extensive. The soil and climate are ungenial to agriculture; some fertile tracks are met with, south of 61° north, which produce rye, barley, a little wheat, potatoes, carrots, turnips, beet-root and various vegetables; tobacco, flax, hemp, some hops, and some fruit, such as apples, pears, plums, currants and gooseberries. To the north of 61° , a rugged, mossy and dreary country, generally prevails to the Arctic sea. The forests of Sweden produce excellent timber of the fir tribes, and good tough ash. Beeches grow as far north as $56^{\circ} 30'$, beyond which, as far as nearly to latitude 70° north, firs and birches are the common forest-trees. South of 63° ash-trees thrive, and lindens, walnuts, maple, oak, elm, &c., all grow south of latitude 61° . In the southern parts, there is great scarcity of wood and fuel; and the poor inhabitants of many districts are said to

* For the materials of this article, we are indebted mainly to documents, presented to both Houses of Parliament, by command of her majesty, 1st of February, 1844, by John Macgregor; politely furnished us by his excellency, Edward Everett, our minister to England.—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

remain in bed, for warmth, during the greater part of the cold days of winter, merely from want of fuel. In the northern and wooded, though coldest parts of Sweden, people are found lodged comparatively in comfort, and in affluent circumstances. The horses are lively, strong, and although not generally large, much esteemed. The pastures are good in summer, and horned cattle, sheep and hogs, are bred with care; the former are small in size. The reindeer, particularly in the north, are useful domestic animals. Bees thrive, although the climate is so very cold. Various medicinal plants are abundant. The coasts, rivers and lakes, swarm with fish. The lobsters and oysters are remarkably fine. Game is plentiful and excellent.

The forests, though for a long time recklessly destroyed, yield timber for exportation; and the streams afford numerous sites for saw-mills, and the means of conveying the timber and deals to shipping ports. Great care is now taken to preserve the woods from wanton destruction, and planting of oak, pine and spruce-firs, has, for some time, been rather extensively attended to.

The mineral riches of Sweden are, however, the most important, especially the iron mines, which produce the best iron and steel, in great abundance; gold and silver, copper, lead, alum, coal, saltpetre, porphyry, marble, alabaster, slate, asbestos, loadstones, talc, amethysts, &c., are also found in this kingdom.

The principal seaports are Stockholm, Nykoping, Nordkoping, Kalmar, Carlscrona, Malmoe, Helsingburg, Halmstadt, Gottenburg, Gefle, Hudikswald, Hernosand, Umea, Pitea, Lulea and Tornea; along the coasts there are several islands, the largest are Oeland, Gothland and Wisby.

AGRICULTURE OF SWEDEN.—It has been estimated, that seven-eighths of the population of Sweden are engaged in agriculture. This statement must be taken in a very modified interpretation: for, though nearly that number may be occupied in agriculture, the same individuals are, the most of them, also, for a greater part of their time, engaged in other pursuits, such as wood-cutting, fishing, common domestic fabrics, &c.

The whole surface of Sweden is computed at 171,015 English square miles, or 109,449,600 acres, or nearly one-half more than the whole surface of Great Britain and Ireland. Of the whole area of Sweden, about one-half lies north of 63° north latitude, beyond which, little grain, except barley, will ripen. Of the whole surface, 3,490 square miles or 2,233,600 acres, or about 1 in 50, is arable, and about twice that extent is under meadows and pastures. All the vast remaining regions are occupied by woods, bare rocks, marshes, bogs and lakes.

Industry has done much, in a country where the climate and the soil are both so unfavorable to agriculture; and if the extent of cultivated land is small, the population is also so limited that there are two-thirds of an acre of arable land for each individual inhabitant. This extent under cultivation, with the animal food, butter and cheese of the meadows and pastures, and the support derived from the fisheries, have rendered it unnecessary to import much corn, except after the bad harvests, which are often occasioned by frosts. Potatoes and barley are generally raised. Some hemp, and a good deal of excellent flax are raised, and used in making domestic linens. A little tobacco is grown; and on the low grounds bordering the Lake Wener, and on other places where alluvial or tolerably fertile spots of soil are found, agriculture is in a creditable state.

STATEMENT

Of the average quantity of Grain, and other Produce, raised in Sweden, according to official returns, for the five years from 1833 to 1837, both inclusive.

Description.	Quantity annually sown.	Quantity annually produced, the seed being deducted.
Wheat,.....Swedish bbls.	37,476	244,709
Rye,.....	406,548	2,278,366
Barley,.....	401,071	1,800,712
Oats,.....	444,434	1,532,046
Barley and oats, mixed,.....	192,350	774,677
Peas,.....	65,861	299,109
Potatoes,.....	614,396	4,113,442

NOTE.—Two Swedish barrels, or tunnar, may be considered in round numbers to be equal to an imperial quarter, as 100 English quarters are equal to 198 65-100ths Swedish barrels, or tunnar.

The cultivated surface of Sweden is divided into 65,219½ estates, or hemmans of land; and although these originally belonged to single proprietors, they are now generally subdivided among about 150,000 individuals, exclusive of the hemmans belonging to the church, colleges, towns, hospitals, the crown, the army, sailors, &c. The value of all the hemmans was estimated, in 1836, at 396,193,366 r. d. Highest annual value of the hemman, 9,034 r. d.; lowest annual value, 1,807 r. d.; average annual value, 4,186 r. d.

GOVERNMENT OF SWEDEN, AND TREATIES WITH FOREIGN STATES.—

The Swedish monarchy, comprising Sweden and Norway, includes a greater extent of territory than any other European sovereignty, except Russia.

In 1808, Sweden lost Finland, which was conquered by Russia; but, in 1814, this loss was repaired by the acquisition of Norway.

The three general divisions of Sweden, viz.: Gothland, Sweden Proper and Norrland, are now divided into twenty-five lans or governments; and Norway, formerly divided into the four dioceses or governments, of Aggerhuus, Christiansand, Bergen and Drontheim, is now formed into seventeen bailiwicks or divisions.*

Sweden and Norway have different constitutions, though under the same king. The monarchical power is hereditary—females are excluded. The king appoints to all employments, and grants pardons. He cannot make new laws, interpret old ones, raise taxes or declare war, without the consent of the states, which he alone has the power of convoking. The liberty of the press is guaranteed. The senate or court of peers, is composed of twenty-two members, and twelve councils of the crown form a council of state.

The legislative body, styled the Diet or States-general, consists of four orders: 1st, nobles, in which order each noble family has its representative; 2d, clergy, represented by the bishops and also by pastors chosen in each chapter; 3d, burgesses, who are chosen by the principal towns; and 4th, peasantry, chosen by themselves in their assemblies. Each deputy must be of one of these orders, profess the Protestant religion and be twenty-five years of age. Each order deliberates and votes separately. The states, which assemble every five years, except in extraordinary

* See Royal Almanack of Sweden and Norway, (Sveriges och Norriges Calender, 1829 and 1830.) M. Hagelston thus distributes the bailiwicks among the three geographical regions:—10 to Sonderfields, 5 to Nordenfields, and 2 to Norrlanden.

cases, have the right of legislation and taxation, and the superintendence of the finances; but the king has an unconditional *veto*.

Council of State.—This council is composed of the minister of justice, the minister of foreign affairs and colonies, six counsellors of state, and the chancellor; which, with the chancellor of justice, secretaries at war, of the interior, of the finances and commerce, of public worship, and the heads of the army and marine, form the ministry.

SWEDISH TREATIES WITH FOREIGN STATES.—Sweden has treaties of reciprocity with Great Britain; with Russia, giving special privileges to Finnish vessels, and of perfect reciprocity in regard to all other Russian vessels; with Prussia, Denmark, Hanse Towns, United States of America, Turkey, Belgium, Greece, States of the Church, Sardinia, &c.

BRITISH TREATIES WITH SWEDEN.—Several treaties of peace, amity and commerce, have been negotiated between Great Britain and Sweden; and the latter has also signed a treaty, similar to those which Great Britain has with France and most of the states of Europe and America, for the suppression of the slave trade.

COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION AND CUSTOMS TARIFFS, &c., OF SWEDEN.—From an early period, the national councils of Sweden have attempted to encourage domestic manufactures, by prohibitions and severe restrictions; and they have persevered in this fallacious legislation, with little deviation and without success, up to the present day: for the manufacturing population are generally poor, and manufactures have not thriven. No country could have been more unnaturally oppressed by restriction, than one like Sweden—cold, generally barren, and having little else to export than the produce of her mines, woods and fisheries. Her prohibitive system has been remarkably oppressive to the peasantry and laboring classes. In addition to prohibitions and high import, export and transit duties, convoy duties, of 5, 10 and 15 per cent, are charged on the amount of all other duties, or valuations of duties; *town dues*, of 2½ per cent by privileged, and 40 per cent by non-privileged vessels, are charged; and tonnage duties, of 12 skellings per cent on Swedish, and 36 on non-privileged vessels. Sails, cordage, gunpowder, refined sugar, iron, steel, the greater number of articles of cottons, woollens, earthenware, &c., are prohibited. The revenue is derived from a poll-tax, of about 1s. 3d. sterling for each inhabitant, from duties on imports and exports, (the former, though oppressive, yet comparatively unproductive,) mines, excise on spirits, monopolies and the produce of the royal demesnes; the whole revenue being less than one million and one-fourth sterling.

The Swedes, or their government, do not seem to comprehend that their true course would have been to purchase, in the cheapest markets, all manufactured goods, and those articles which they have not cheap at home, in exchange for their iron, deals, timber, lobsters, fish and fish-oils. For them to attempt forcing either the cultivation of wheat in an uncongenial climate, or to raise up manufactures by the aid of prohibitions of, and high duties on, foreign commodities, is to persevere in a course the most pernicious to their real interests. The tariff now in force, promulgated the 23d of October, 1841, will be found as restrictive as, and more complex than, that of Russia. Norway, by a recent law of the Storting, has also imposed enormous duties on foreign manufactures.

SWEDISH TARIFF OF DUTIES OF CUSTOMS ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.*—The rates, as well as the official values, are in Swedish bank money, in the reduction of which into sterling, an average exchange of 12 r. d. banco to the pound, has been taken. Besides the duties stated in the tariff, there are the following imposts levied on foreign trade, viz. : Convoy Duty, Town Dues, Tonnage Dues. The Convoy Duty is paid only on imports, at the rate of 1 per cent on the amount of duties of customs. The Town Dues are charged at a per centage on the official value stated in the tariff, and for Stockholm consist of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on imports, with an increase thereon of 40 per cent by unfree ships, namely, such as are not by treaty on the same footing as Swedes; and of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on exports, with an increase thereon of 50 per cent by unfree ships. The Tonnage Dues are levied as follows, inwards as well as outwards, viz. : at 12 sh. banco per last on Swedish ships, equal to 2 1-12d. sterling per English ton; and at 36 sh. banco per last on foreign ships, equal to 6 3-12d. sterling per English ton, unless the latter are placed by treaty on the same footing as Swedes.

MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF SWEDEN.—The current rixdaler consists of 48 shillings; the shilling, 12 rundstycks. Banco money is also counted in rixdalers, and is of higher value than the former—often 50 per cent. The skeppund victuallic, or commercial weight, is divided into lispunds and lbs. : 1 skep. lb. = 20 lis lb.; 1 lis lb. = 20 lbs. The skeppund metal weight is divided in the same manner, but is equal only to 320 lbs. commercial weight. Of the commercial weight, 100 lbs. are equal to 93 76-100 lbs. avoirdupois English. The ell consists of 2 feet; 1000 feet Swedish, equal to 975 feet English; the oxhufond, or hogshhead, contains $1\frac{1}{2}$ ams, or awmes, equal to 90 kans; the am contains 60 kans; the barrel 48 kans; 100 kans are equal to 69 9-100 gallons; the common barrel, in corn measure, contains 32 kappars, equal to 4 157-100 bushels, Winchester measure; the barrel of rye, wheat, barley and oats, is reckoned at 36 kappars; the barrel of malt, at 38 kappars; and of salt and lime, at 34 kappars; 100 lasts Swedish, are equal to 239 $\frac{3}{4}$ tons English.

The tariff is arranged according to the relative proportions of the Swedish rates and monies with the English rates and monies; but, in calculating the duties, two important facts must not be overlooked. The first is, that the official values are nearly all far greater than, often more than double, the real values. Consequently, the real per centage duties are in the same proportion greater than the official rates. The second is, that when the values or duties are rated either by the weight, package or measure, the duties are also unequally levied; ordinary and coarse manufactures of cotton, linen and wool, which would be generally used by the peasantry and laboring classes, pay, in consequence, a much higher per centage than the finer woven goods which are used by the more wealthy.

THE GOTHA CANAL.—The inlets, lakes and rivers of Sweden, have always afforded great facilities for the transportation of the produce of her forests and mines. A canal, to avoid the long and tortuous navigation of the sound and the sound dues, was projected, at an early period, by Sweden. The Maeler, a deep inlet, enters Sweden, at Stockholm, from the

* We have in our possession a copy of this tariff, but its great length compels us to omit it altogether. It would occupy about 50 pages of our Magazine.—[ED. MRR. MAG.]

Baltic, and branches north to Upsala, and west 70 miles amongst a multitude of islands, to within a few miles of the Lake Hielmar. The Arboga canal, opened during the latter end of the last century, is navigable between the Maeler and that lake; and it was then considered that it might be continued from the Hielmar to the Wettern lake, but the project was found impracticable; the distance between the Maeler and the Lake Sodree Barker, near the confines of Dalecarlia and the mining districts, was opened at the same period by means of the Stroemsholm canal and the Lake Freda, and rivers.

The Gotha river, which runs from the Lake Wenern (the largest in Europe, except the Ladoga) into the sea at Gothenburg, though in many parts deep and navigable, was interrupted by falls and islands. These were finally surmounted, after extraordinary difficulties, (the whole of the gigantic works having all been once swept off by the impetuosity of the water,) by the execution of the Trollhætta canal, in 1800. It is 3 miles long, and has 8 sluices to ascend and descend 112 feet. At one place, it was cut 70 feet deep through the rocks. The whole expense was about £80,000.

The Lake Wenern was afterwards joined by a canal to the Lake Wettern, and finally the canalization of the whole distance to Soderkoping and the Baltic was completed in 1832.

NAVIGATION AND TRADE OF SWEDEN.—The fisheries, the mines and the forests of this kingdom, were the early sources of Swedish trade. In 1680, Puffendorff, who was then one of the councillors of state to the king of Sweden, says: "Sweden produces more copper and iron than any other kingdom in the world, and the mines are fitted by nature for that purpose, being surrounded by woods and rivers. There is a silver mine in Westmanland. Finland brings forth pitch, and tar, and deal; and Wermanland good store of masts. The native commodities of Sweden are copper, iron, tar, pitch, masts, deals, boards, &c. In lieu of which, Sweden receives from abroad, wine, brandy, salt, spices, cloths, silks and woollen stuffs, fine linen, French manufactures of all sorts, furs, paper and such like; all which, in some years, surpasses in value the commodities exported hence. To recompence this, navigation and commerce has been encouraged of late years among the natives, and several sorts of manufactures are made, whereof those made of copper, iron and brass, would questionless turn to the best account, if these artists were duly encouraged to settle in this kingdom." Oddy, in his work on European Commerce, describes the products and trade of Sweden, previously to the year 1805, as follows:

"The produce of Sweden, generally, for exportation, consists of iron, wood, tar, pitch and a little copper. Its produce, in other articles, is scarcely sufficient for its own consumption. The principal source of the wealth of Sweden is its mines, of which there are a great variety, of gold, silver and copper; but the iron is of all others by far the greatest.

"The progress made in the establishment of iron foundries, in Russia, (which country used to have her iron from Sweden,) has been so rapid, that the mines of Russia are fast rivalling those of Sweden. We find, by a manuscript register taken of all the mines, by the government, in 1748, that, in the latter kingdom, there were no less than 496 foundries, with 539 large hammers, 971 smaller ones, for making bar iron, and other manufactures of iron which produced, in that year, 304,415 skeppunds,

or 40,588 tons English. The present produce of all the Swedish iron mines, is about 400,000 skeppunds, or about 53,330 English tons; and this increase, notwithstanding the great quantity made in Russia, may be attributed to the superior quality of the Swedish, which is esteemed all over the world; as well as to their making different sized bars, square and flat, which are more easily converted into the general uses for which they are required, than that which is shipped from Russia. Great Britain takes half, or rather more, of the whole quantity which Sweden exports.

"The Swedish government established an office, in 1740, to promote the production of iron, by lending money on the ore, even at so low a rate as 4 per cent. A correct register was then made of the mines, which is still continued. The latest statement of them, is a manuscript account, which the author saw, in the end of the year 1804. Their foundries are now above 500; each foundry has its particular mark stamped on the bars of iron it produces, which is likewise correctly copied into the manuscript; likewise the name of the place where the establishment is situated; the names of the proprietors of the work; the commissioner or agent for the sale of the iron; the assortment each makes, and to what country it is generally shipped; the quantity annually made by each work; the quantity which each work delivers to the government, (which is about 1 per cent on the quantity of the iron produced;) the estimation of the quality of the iron of each work, which is variable; the place and province in which the works are situated; the place from whence the iron is generally shipped; and how many hammers each work has; all which, are regularly and alphabetically described and arranged.

"Each furnace, upon the average, makes but about 80 tons of iron in the year, with 1 large hammer and 2 smaller ones. There are some small works, or little forges and smithies, however, which make only from 10 to 30 tons the year; others, from 100 to 500 tons. But the mine of Dannemvra, which was established in 1527, produces from 13,000 to 20,000 tons annually; it has the richest ore, and its iron is of a superior quality, and preferred amongst the steel manufacturers in England.

"Of the next importance to Sweden, after the iron, are the copper mines, which have undergone a variety of changes in their produce, and that chiefly in the principal one of Fahlun; the richness of the ore, in that mine, has considerably fallen off; in 1650, its produce was 20,321 skeppunds, or near 3,000 tons; in 1690, it fell to 10,000 skeppunds; in 1751, it was only 4,938 skeppunds; but since that period it has improved a little, and its annual produce, at present, is betwixt 6,000 and 7,000 skeppunds. Otevidberg, a copper mine, has lately been reopened, and others worked, so that the whole aggregate quantity of copper produced in Sweden, at the present time, is estimated at about 10,000 skeppunds, or near about 1,400 tons.

"In the year 1738, a gold mine was discovered at *Ædelfors*, in Smoland; but its annual produce not exceeding from 500 to 600 ducats, it has, of late years, been entirely abandoned.

"The silver mine of *Salberg*, in Westmanland, is the most ancient and the richest of all, having continued upwards of 300 years. In the fourteenth century, it is reported to have produced nearly 24,000 marks per annum, or, according to others, about 18,000, when silver was three times the value that it is now; but, in latter years, the quantity is considerably

diminished; so that, at the conclusion of the last century, the produce amounted only to from 1,600 to 1,800 marks. The lead mines averaged, in the year 1751, 44½ skeppunds; and from 1763 to 1770, only 9. In consequence of the great falling off of the produce, the lead mine in Finland was at last entirely abandoned, and lead is now one of the imports from England into Sweden.

“The next article of the produce of Sweden, for reputation, is tar, from whence all Europe was formerly supplied for a considerable time; and had it not been for the spirit of monopoly in Sweden, arising from the idea then entertained, that it could not be had elsewhere, this branch of their trade might have been preserved exclusively to them to this day, instead of Russia participating in it, and Great Britain being driven to her colonies, to manufacture and procure it from thence, in such quantities, as even to supply other nations at a cheaper rate; but the Swedish tar is certainly of a superior quality to any other.

“The tar, exported from Sweden, is principally produced on the east side of the Gulf of Bothnia; the west side produces some. There are only four principal places in the gulf, from whence considerable quantities are sent to the staple ports for exportation, and those which chiefly collect and send off the tar, are Wasa, which produces about 10,000 barrels, besides pitch and deals; Jacobstaad, 20,000; Gamla Carleby, 30,000; Brahestad, from 8,000 to 10,000; Uleaborg, from 50,000 to 60,000; Sweden, producing for her own consumption and exportation, from 100,000 to 130,000 barrels of tar, besides pitch.

“The tar, from Calmar and Westervik, is in very small quantities, and inferior to the tar of the Finnish ports. Archangel is the only Russian port, from which tar is exported to England. Swedish tar and crown pitch, is higher in price than any other; as the pitch which is sent from Russia and America, to England, is inferior to the Swedish.

“A considerable quantity of timber is now shipped from Sweden, chiefly to Great Britain; the prohibition to the exportation of that article, from Russia, threw a share of this branch to Sweden, as well as to Denmark. The Gulf of Bothnia produces the most considerable quantity; but the ports therein, not being staple towns, the principal exportation, it will be observed, is, by the ports of Stockholm, Gottenburg, Gefle and Abo.

“In general, the produce of a country which furnishes the inhabitants with food, is first described; but the natural situation of Sweden reverses that system, and, therefore, we have rather described the means which enable them to purchase food—their mines. The climate of Sweden, is unfavorable for the production of grain: *it is very common, that, in ten years, there are only two, and, at the most, but three ripe crops.* In the same period, there are but four or five crops middling, and the remainder wholly bad. Sweden reaps only two-thirds of what is necessary for the inland consumption. The deficiency is imported from the Baltic ports. The corn-brandy, of which the Swedes are very fond, consumes a large quantity of grain. It is said, that in years of scarcity, the Swedish poor, in some provinces in the interior, distant from the seacoast, make a composition of bark, or roots, with coarse meal, to preserve existence by this miserable food; yet Sweden annually imports grain from the ports of the Baltic. A stipulation existed, betwixt Russia and Sweden, that a certain quantity of grain should always be allowed to be exported from Riga. Swedish Pomerania principally produces wheat; but as rye is the grain

chiefly used for food in Sweden, she goes to other ports, whilst Swedish Pomerania exports her produce to foreigners.

CORN IMPORTED AND EXPORTED INTO AND FROM SWEDEN, IN 1802.

<i>Imported.</i>		<i>Exported.</i>	
Peas,.....tons or bbls.	10,612½	Peas,.....bbls.	14
Wheat,.....	17,741½	Oats,.....	10
Wheat flour,..... .lispunds	1,831½	Wheat,.....	85½
Oats,.....bbls.	6,502½	Barley,.....	677
Barley,.....	71,805	Rye,.....	17,940
Malt,.....	57,718¾		
Rye,.....	175,737¼		
Rye meal,..... .lispunds	244,582		

"The Swedish herring fishery, is chiefly carried on at Marstrand Skiaren, (the shoals of Marstrand,) where herrings were caught, not only by the Swedes, but also by the Dutch and Scotch, till the year 1679, when the fishery ceased; but it was renewed in the year 1753, and at present is carried on with such success, that 300,000 barrels of herrings, and 20,000 barrels of their oil, are frequently produced in the season, but the fish are not all cured. (See decline of this fishery hereafter.)

"In the year 1803, the custom paid in Sweden, was only on 1,764 acums, or barrels, of train-oil; 2,637 barrels of smoked, or red herrings, and 203,209 barrels of salted herrings.

"Though there are a few manufactories of paper, soap, glass, sugar-refineries, &c., &c., in Sweden, yet none of them are carried to great perfection; so that the imports of Sweden consist in those manufactured goods, which nations, whose capital is more abundant, and the arts further advanced, produce, and its exports consist of its natural produce, chiefly iron, timber, copper, tar and pitch."

SHIPPING OF SWEDEN.—In the year 1800, the number of merchant vessels belonging to Sweden, amounted to 956; total burden, 63,534 tons; and navigated by 9,929 men. Of these ships, 526 were out, or on the passage, and 430 at home, at the close of the year; 118, new built, are included in that statement. Stockholm possessed 234 ships, of 20,085 tons; Calmar, 43; Gottenburg, 168; Gefle, 54; Helsingfors, 25; Nor-koping, 22; Westervik, 24; Wisby, 55; Carlsrona, 33; Carlsham, 40; Malmo, 31; Udevalla, 24; Abo, 16, &c., &c. In the year 1801, the shipping of the whole kingdom consisted of 974 vessels; total burden, 62,751 tons; and manned by 9,689 seamen; new built vessels, 105; at the end of the year, 493 were at sea and 481 at home. In the year 1802, Sweden possessed 946 ships; their total burden, 62,294 tons, including 127 new built vessels; the whole manned by 10,185 men.

The number and tonnage of vessels, entered inwards and cleared outwards, at ports in Sweden, to and from all countries, in each year, from 1830 to 1834, was as follows:—

Year.	INWARDS.					
	Swedish.		Foreign.		Total.	
	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1830,.....	2,290	162,954	1,781	169,810	4,071	332,764
1831,.....	2,426	165,835	1,659	161,622	4,085	327,457
1832,.....	2,384	170,224	1,669	175,279	4,053	345,503
1833,.....	2,701	174,713	1,707	176,888	4,408	351,601
1834,.....	2,647	175,193	1,773	198,346	4,420	373,539

Year.	OUTWARDS.					
	Swedish.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1830,.....	2,292	173,907	1,755	182,083	4,047	355,990
1831,.....	2,379	171,163	1,576	163,830	3,955	334,993
1832,.....	2,421	176,345	1,560	178,617	3,981	354,962
1833,.....	2,772	180,083	1,748	180,436	4,520	360,519
1834,.....	2,677	174,094	1,707	206,282	4,384	380,376

The number and tonnage of merchant vessels, belonging to the several ports of Sweden, in 1837, was as follows:—

No. of Vessels.	Tons BURTHEN, IN—	
	Swedish lasts.	English tons.
924	49,219	118,125

COMMERCE OF SWEDEN IN 1781, IN STERLING MONEY, (FROM ODDY.)

	Exported.	Imported.
Denmark and Norway,.....	£160,063	£66,595
Dantzic,.....	22,358	33,246
England,.....	367,302	97,762
France,.....	203,762	83,145
Holland,.....	107,103	151,583
Konigsburg and Prussia,.....	49,689	67,580
Italy and the Mediterranean,.....	82,166	33,170
Pomerania, (Swedish),.....	67,938	187,144
Portugal,.....	125,132	40,340
Russia and Courland,.....	58,229	202,781
Spain,.....	23,380	14,711
Hamburgh, Holstein, &c.,.....	128,911	38,202
West Indies,.....	873
East Indies,.....	122	10,810
Total,.....	£1,397,048	£1,027,069

“The balance in favor of Sweden, was £370,000; besides which, she is estimated to gain something considerable by the freight of ships, so that the whole, at that time, might amount to about £400,000 sterling.

“The following table will show the state of the trade, each five years, from 1700 to 1785, betwixt Great Britain and Sweden; and from 1791, each year, to the present period, distinguishing England and Scotland:”—

ACCOUNT,

Exhibiting the official value of the Exports from, and Imports into, Sweden, and the amount of Customs Revenue, for the ten years ending with 1840.

Year.	Value of		Total value of exp. and imports.	CUSTOMS REVENUE.		Tot. customs revenue, in- clud'g ton'ge duties, &c.
	exports.	imports.		On exp'ts.*	On imp'ts.	
	<i>r. d. banco.</i>	<i>r. d. banco.</i>	<i>r. d. banco.</i>	<i>r. d. banco.</i>	<i>r. d. banco.</i>	<i>r. d. banco.</i>
1831,	13,565,000	12,303,000	25,868,000	423,426	1,717,845	2,641,687
1832,	14,647,000	13,757,000	28,404,000	423,139	2,172,609	2,796,344
1833,	16,903,000	13,886,000	30,789,000	451,004	2,265,408	2,952,378
1834,	15,882,000	14,527,000	30,709,000	425,474	2,298,399	2,934,539
1835,	18,585,000	15,562,000	34,147,000	512,971	2,611,969	3,377,229
1836,	18,834,000	15,537,000	34,371,000	427,761	2,520,158	3,185,636
1837,	17,453,000	16,456,000	33,909,000	328,690	2,985,274	3,605,305
1838,	22,160,000	19,499,000	41,659,000	480,573	3,277,253	3,987,174
1839,	21,018,000	19,363,000	40,381,000	503,345	3,026,910	3,792,678
1840,	20,434,000	18,308,000	38,872,000	322,226	3,055,903	3,600,203

* Nearly all on bar iron.

We give below, the total value of the imports and exports, at the ports of Sweden, in each year, from 1830 to 1833, in British sterling, as follows:—

IMPORTS.				
1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	
£1,290,423	£1,080,935	£1,172,561	£1,210,155	
EXPORTS.				
1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	
£945,415	£947,385	£881,221	£983,406	

QUANTITIES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO SWEDEN DURING EACH YEAR, FROM 1834 TO 1838, INCLUSIVE.

Articles.	QUANTITIES.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Porter, and other beer,.....galls.	5,189	5,625	3,210
Porcelain and earthenware,.....cwts.	1,149	1,688	1,849	1,889	1,766
Cotton yarn,.....lbs.	779,266	1,038,808	1,038,780	1,101,094	907,272
Oil, from hemp-seed,.....tuns	595	416	704	1,295	138
“ linseed and rape,.....	141	133	215	186	143
Machinery and mechanical imple- ments,.....
Paper, packing,.....cwt.	13
“ other kinds,.....reams	2,182	2,216	4,073	2,274	2,252
Soap,.....lbs.	19
Tobacco, manufactured,.....	39,996	45,924	36,980	33,466	47,296
“ cigars,.....No.	318,917	285,437	531,875	214,050	414,116
“ leaf,.....lbs.	2,793,725	3,012,074	2,833,470	2,944,640	2,733,197
Hides, dressed,.....cwt.	385	578	630	368	342
“ raw,.....	15,101	17,703	10,359	9,928	6,974
Ribbon,.....lbs.	7,954	7,491	8,026
Cotton and linen:					
Printed cloths, hdkfs,.....yds.	48,774	41,491
Do., other kinds,.....	131,238
Sailcloth,.....	1,543	3,239	5,192	11,448	7,314
Other kinds, cotton,.....	680,638
Do., linen,.....	175,032	237,455
Woollen goods,.....	526,670	669,329	449,739	639,602	584,264
Silk do., except ribbons,.....
“ raw,.....lbs.	20,616	34,225	20,361	24,236	24,263
Glassware, bottles,.....No.	221,660	291,613	573,851	397,177
“ other kinds,.....
Old rags,.....cwts.	7
Cotton wool,.....lbs.	711,020	797,705	1,104,364	931,369	1,215,301
Oleaginous seeds,.....bush.	28,816	34,187	41,200	31,693	26,651
Wool, inferior,.....lbs.	1,138,655	1,411,244	715,288	1,420,875	1,161,928
“ fine,.....	39,214	11,878			
Flax,.....cwts.	814	495	72	405	329
Hemp,.....	2,991	3,044	3,330	2,626	2,901
Sugar,.....	96,575	120,360	64,512	99,446	109,786

STATEMENTS OF THE QUANTITIES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN, DURING EACH YEAR, FROM 1834 TO 1838, INCLUSIVE.

Articles.	QUANTITIES.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Porter, and other beer,.....galls.	30,178	46,723	51,459	34,389
Porcelain,.....cwts.
Oil,.....galls.	73
Mechanical implements,.....
Paper, packing,.....cwts.	188	222
“ other kinds,.....reams	30,283	32,573	36,297	36,548
Soap,.....lbs.	26,856	18,450	18,562	33,450	26,587

STATEMENT OF QUANTITIES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	QUANTITIES.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Tobacco, manufactured,.....lbs. } " snuff,..... }	197,039	133,747	120,730	94,514	91,454
" cigars,.....No.					
Hides, dressed,.....cwts.	7	12	40	9	15
Ribbon, principally tape,.....lbs.	829	615	295
Cotton and linen, sailcloth,....yds.
Other kinds, cotton,.....	30,686	40,515
Do., linen,.....	175,032	197,691	114,121
Woolen cloth,.....	1,052	4,966
Silk goods,.....
Glassware,.....No.
Oleaginous seeds,.....bush.	49,746	65,439	67,472	33,837	52,110
Wool,.....lbs.	17,702	29,321
Flax,.....cwts.	154	205	389	361	336

TRADE OF STOCKHOLM.—Stockholm is built upon several islands and two peninsulas, betwixt the Maeler lake and the Baltic sea, which, properly, here forms the harbor in a bay. The largest ships can come alongside the quays, which are commodious, and lined with warehouses and other structures, for the accommodation of trade.

The entrance into the harbor, from the Baltic, is rendered intricate for shipping, by the rows of rocks and the numerous rocky islands of the Upland Shallows; between these, are four passages, two of which are for large ships. Pilots are indispensable; and ships sailing to Stockholm, are compelled to take the first pilot on board six leagues and a half from Daleron. Here, again, they receive a second pilot, who conducts the ship to Stockholm, which is eleven leagues and a half distant from Daleron. The buildings, parks and environs of Stockholm, have been greatly improved, and its streets exhibit great activity.

Stockholm, being the capital of the kingdom, and also the first staple town in Sweden, has the most extensive trade to foreign parts and with the interior. In the inland trade, it has the most convenient intercourse by the numerous lakes which are connected by canals. Exclusive of these advantages, and being possessed of nearly one-half of the trade of Sweden, its importance is increased by the circumstance, that it is the central point of all the different commercial establishments, such as the College of Trade, the Commercial College, Bank, &c., &c. Population, in 1840, 83,885. It has long been stationary, and the deaths exceed the births; the country annually supplies the town with about the difference of decrease caused by the deaths. The proportion of legitimate births is less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. Formerly, there was scarcely an inn in this capital, now there are some tolerably good, and numerous eating-houses. Its manufactures, are woollen cloths; stuffs, as camlets, shalloons, &c.; ribbons, stockings and silk handkerchiefs; some silk and cotton goods; leather and sail-cloth; tobacco manufactures and sugar-refineries; several iron foundries, a cannon foundry, some manufactures of china and earthenware, a glass-house, looking-glass manufactory; some few and valuable articles in steel, are also made here; clocks and watches, mathematical and optical instruments, &c., &c. There is also a steam engine manufactory, conducted by a Scotchman from Glasgow. In the ship-yards, a number of ships are annually built, of oak and fir, for the foreign, as well as coasting trade.

During the year 1841, there arrived at Stockholm, 405 vessels, of 51,408 tons, 3,512 men; value of cargoes, £811,915: and there departed 491, of 61,009 tons, with 4,258 men; value of cargoes, £558,219. Of these arrivals, 11 were British, viz.: 4 vessels had coal and coal tar; 1 vessel, coals; 2 vessels, coals and cotton yarn; 1 vessel, clay and stone; and 3 vessels in ballast. Of those departed: 5 vessels had iron and bones; 2 vessels, iron, bones and cobalt; 2 vessels, iron, tar, pitch and deals; 1 vessel, tar, &c.; 1 vessel in ballast.

The importation, chiefly in manufactured goods, from Great Britain, has increased by £5,738, during the year 1840, as compared with the preceding year, but it is believed that a much greater quantity has been smuggled into Sweden. The exportation to Great Britain, has decreased by £16,952, in the year 1840, as compared with the preceding year. This decrease has been attributed to the low prices of iron in the United Kingdom. The commerce of Sweden, with foreign nations, continues to be carried on chiefly in Norwegian vessels. In the ports to the northward of Stockholm, not one vessel of any other nation has been employed in carrying timber to foreign countries, although there has been a very considerable increase in the exportation. The speculation which excites most interest at Stockholm, at present, is that of sending out furniture, and even ready-made houses, to the British colonies in Australia, in the anticipation that the British government will extensively encourage emigration. Cargoes of that description, for several large vessels, are now in preparation, Sweden having great advantages in preparing these articles of good materials, and at a comparatively moderate expense. These wooden houses can be delivered at Australia, at from £30 to £90 sterling each, by which the merchant will gain from 50 to 75 per cent. Those of £90, (one of which I have seen,) contain one sitting-room, 21 feet by 10; three bed-rooms, a kitchen, pantry and hall, all one floor, (of wood,) having glass windows in the English style. The area, occupied by this house, will be about 70 square yards. It is very comfortably and substantially fitted with deal floors, and every convenience for fire and cooking included. A ship can carry out about 60 of these houses, so that her cargo, exclusive of other furniture, would be in value about £3,500 sterling.

The returns of the manufactures of this country, cannot be depended on, as it is well known, that the greater part (in value) given in as Swedish manufactures, is in reality smuggled. The great cotton manufactory of Stockholm, actually imports from England the greater part of the fine cotton twist sold there.

The quantity of iron exported to foreign countries, from Stockholm, during 1841, is about 304,701 skeppunds = 40,289 tons; value, at £1 10s. per skeppund, £456,256 10s. To the north of Stockholm, 80,000 skeppunds = 10,915 tons, value £120,000; making the whole quantity 51,204 tons, and value £576,256 10s.

The royal navy is nearly in the same state as last year, the projects for reducing and increasing, having been severally rejected by the Diet.

For the merchant navy, a number of ships and brigs have been built, at the ports in the Gulf of Bothnia, 4 at Stockholm, and 3 at Calmar; but they are generally sold soon after launching, and, therefore, the tonnage has only increased 15,000 tons, nearly half the amount of tonnage launched, while 10 vessels are at present on the stocks, making 3,000

tons more. Two post-office steamers have been built, one of which is of iron, but they are small vessels, with only 60 horse power.—*Stockholm, 31st Dec., 1841.*

TRADE OF GOTHENBURG.—Gothenburg is situated in the Cattegate, nearly opposite to Skaw, at the mouth of the Gotha, and in 57° 42' north latitude. Population, formerly, said to have exceeded 95,000. It decreased to less than 25,000. Since 1830, the population has so far increased as to be now estimated at nearly 30,000. It is the second trading town in Sweden. In winter, vessels must take pilots on board. Large vessels cannot come up to the city of Gothenburg, but are obliged to remain at a small distance from thence in the roads, whence the goods are conveyed to the warehouses, by means of canals. In this town, are manufactories of cloth and other woollen articles, particularly of the coarser kind; three or four cotton-mills, linen and canvass fabrics, &c.

There is an Exchange, East India House, docks for ship-building, &c. As far back as 1798, there arrived 652 foreign, and 688 Swedish ships, &c.

The following goods were exported from Gothenburg, to foreign places, in the year 1804:—

77,303 ship-pounds iron,	556 barrels of cod,
7,401 “ forged work,	12,378 ells Swedish linen,
2,813 “ steel,	10,662 “ sail duck,
28,114 dozen boards or deals,	2,679 barrels tar,
79,512 barrels salt herrings,	730 “ pitch,
28,589 hispounds mountain moss,	Window-glass for 13,263 rix-dollars.
1,266 barrels smoked herrings,	

There were imported into Gothenburg, in the year 1804, 55,503 $\frac{1}{4}$ tons, barrels of salt, being 29,000 less than in 1803; 148,494 tons, or barrels of grain, or 54,200 less than in 1803. Of East India articles, in that year, there were exported only to the value of 4,964 rix dollars; of fish-oil, scarcely any. To inland parts, there were exported 26,304 barrels of herrings.

The quantity and value of iron and deals, the principal articles of merchandise, exported from the port of Gothenburg, in each of the three years, ending with 1831, was as follows:—

1829.		IRON. 1830.		1831.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Tons.		Tons.		Tons.	
17,567	£184,458	16,433	£172,547	21,639	£227,210
DEALS.					
Dozen.	Value.	Dozen.	Value.	Dozen.	Value.
56,371	£41,000	52,534	£38,400	52,866	£45,075

The principal articles of import into Gothenburgh, are sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton, rice, indigo, train-oil, hides, rum, dyewoods, salt, cotton yarn. The value of these articles, imported in 1829, was £148,750; in 1830, £185,250; in 1831, £180,820.

ART. II.—LABOR, ITS RELATIONS, IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES, COMPARED.

HUMAN labor is the only source of wealth. This is a settled axiom in political economy. Labor acts upon materials, furnished by nature; but nature is gratuitous in her gifts, and it is only when acted on by man, that her productions acquire value in his estimation. This is no very new discovery; it is as old as the time of Locke, who set forth the principle with great clearness. It has been adopted and confirmed by the best modern writers. Labor, then, of the human body or the human mind, has furnished whatever exists of accumulated wealth. It continues, by daily action, to furnish the daily consumption of man, beside laying up a surplus for future use.

Whatever exists under the name of property, wealth or capital, is, therefore, the result or representative of previous labor—an accumulation not wanted for present, but put aside for future use.

Wealth is power. Its influence on society, on the character of man, is the subject of frequent contemplation and examination, in all its aspects. Its possessor is the object of envy and flattery, while, in its original humble state of labor, it is passed by, almost without notice, except sometimes a sigh of pity for its hardships.

Nothing is more striking than the distinction made, more especially in Europe, between labor in possession, and labor in action: in other words, between capital and labor. In Europe, and especially in England, we find the inheritor of wealth, of the accumulated labor of others, looking down with something like contempt, not only on labor itself, in its lowest form of mere manual occupation, but on all those employments whose object is the immediate accumulation of property. The possession, by the accident of birth, of wealth produced by the labor of others, is held vastly more honorable than the creation of wealth by one's own labor.

In the United States, it is quite otherwise. With all our inheritance of British notions and prejudices, there is nothing more striking than the change which has taken place in this country, in the estimation of wealth derived by inheritance, or acquired by the possessor himself. Here, all our wealth has been produced by direct labor. It has grown up in our sight, and it is impossible to attach any higher honor to him who obtains it by accident, than to him who possesses it by his own acquisition.

On the contrary, the inheritor of a fortune in this country, is judged wholly by the use which he makes of it. It gives him no advantage in the public estimation, any further than his own character will sustain itself, independently of this circumstance.

It is not difficult to perceive the causes which have produced this different estimate of the character of labor in action, in connection with individual respectability in the two hemispheres.

It is an interesting inquiry, still more so, is an examination, how far this difference of estimate is amongst the most active causes, in giving an impress to society in America, essentially different from its character in Europe. There is no circumstance, in our institutions, more deserving the attention of the philosophic observer.

In tracing the history of European civilization, we find labor always and everywhere degraded. Under the Romans, labor was performed,

and wealth produced, by slaves. The barbarians who overran the Roman empire, attached no value to any acquisitions, but those of the sword. Under the feudal system, hereditary honors were attached to the possessors of the fiefs, whilst the cultivation of the lands was performed by the serfs, held in an estimation but one degree above the cattle, who were their fellow-laborers.

The present state of England, is the result of the Norman conquest. The followers of the conqueror were permitted to divide that beautiful island amongst them, and from them are derived in succession the splendid and powerful aristocracy of the present day. Their wealth and honors were originally acquired by the sword. It is not surprising that they should continue to attach the highest honor to birth, to an hereditary succession to such honors and such estates. The present aristocracy of England is, undoubtedly, the richest and the most intelligent which has ever existed in any country. Fenced in, by the rights of primogeniture, they have, for centuries, possessed the political power of the country. It is not surprising, that newly-created wealth should there be held in far less estimation, than that which descends from such an ancestry.

This feeling pervades the whole community. The distinctive appellation of *gentleman* and *gentry*, is applied to the inheritance of an estate, especially in lands, which enables the possessor to dispense with labor, with any occupation, for the purpose of deriving profit from it. Even the inheritor of a fortune, so limited as to compel the possessor to a life of celibacy, prides himself as belonging to a caste elevated above the tradesman, with whatever fortune he may have acquired by his own industry. It is true, there are many degrees in the scale of human occupation. The higher offices in the church and the army, furnish convenient support to the younger branches of the nobility, and partake of their honor. The profession of the law produces talent, and trade produces wealth, which occasionally admit their possessors within the much courted pale of the aristocracy. These new comers, however, require a generation or two to pass away, before they can take equal rank, in the public estimation, with the old families. The only occupation, compatible with the highest dignity, is the direct service of the crown in the higher offices of state.

Thus labor, in all its forms, stands in a secondary or degraded state. Nothing can be more abject than the condition of the lowest class of agricultural laborers, or of the manufacturing operatives.

How different this, from the whole fabric of society in America? The founders of the American colonies, brought with them, neither wealth nor titles of nobility. They had no accumulated stores of either wealth or honors, on which to subsist. Nature offered them this fertile domain, on the sole condition of appropriation by labor. Their earliest political institutions, establishing perfect equality, left no avenue open to wealth or power, but labor. Under these circumstances, it followed, of course, that active industry should be in the highest esteem. Industry was the only road to wealth, and wealth is power, in every part of the world. There are instances of fortunes accumulated in large masses, during the life of an individual, but, subject to our laws of equal distribution, they are sure to be absorbed or dissipated, in the course of one or two generations.

In this state of things, it is not surprising that the acquisition of property, by one's own labor and skill, should be held in equal, or even higher estimation, than the inheritance by the accident of birth. It is true, that

the sons of the rich usually receive a better education than their fathers; and we award higher honors to the successful efforts of intellect, than to those of mere industry in the accumulation of wealth. Such an estimation, is, however, wholly founded on personal character.

Manual labor has a position with us, which it has never possessed in any period of the world.

Agricultural labor is, in a very great measure, performed by the owners of the soil and their sons. The universal diffusion of education, places our mechanics higher in the scale of intelligence, than the same class has ever stood in any country. They have the elements of character, which enable them to rise to any position in society.

The high reward of labor, in all its branches, is the great, the important distinction, which diffuses comfort, intelligence, self-respect, through the whole mass of the community, in a degree unknown in the previous history of civilization.

Titles of nobility, we have none. We attach no respect to birth. The highest offices in our little army, and even of our navy, are of no peculiar esteem. There is a scramble for the highest political places. At the same time, political office does not, of course, carry with it a high degree of public estimation. Occupation, labor, is the natural lot of all. The eloquent advocate, the learned divine, the able writer, the successful merchant, manufacturer or agriculturalist, are allotted the highest places in society. These places are only obtained through an active and successful industry. We have no class, as in all the countries of Europe, born to a life of leisure, to honors and distinctions. A few sons of the rich, inherit fortunes, which enable them to dispense with labor or profitable occupation; but they cannot be said to constitute a class, and the wisest of them, by a sort of necessity, adopt a literary or other useful employment. The mere possession of wealth, without personal character, is as little valued in this as in any other country.

It will thus be seen, that the whole fabric of our society is essentially different from any which has preceded it. Society, in England, consists of the favored few, born to ease and independence, constituting the nobility and gentry. To them, everything is subservient; from them, everything takes its tone. Travellers of this class, find in America, a lower civilization in our highest classes, than belongs to the upper class in England. It is true, ours is a working-day world. We cannot adopt the hours, nor many of the customs nor opinions, of a state of existence, which has no counterpart amongst us. The attempt at imitation, which sometimes prevails, is a mistake and a blunder. We should do better to make our manners and opinions conform to our actual position, less influenced by those of Europe. There is enough in our position to be satisfied with—a diffusion of the comforts, and even elegancies of life, through the whole mass of our population, in a degree never before seen. This is the result of an universal and well-paid industry.

Ours is a great novel experiment in politics and civilization. Whatever the result, it is our destiny to make it. It is our mission; our care should be to understand it, and make it succeed. It is an attempt to amalgamate, equalize and improve the whole mass of population, by elevating the lower portions from their usual abject state, and depressing the higher, in dispensing with a privileged aristocracy. The process consists, in

the higher reward and higher estimation of labor, with the permission to enjoy its own fruits.

There is another point of view, in which this difference in the actual condition of our labor, compared with that of Europe, involves most important consequences; that is, in connection with the science of political economy.

The modern school of political economy, is founded on the theory of Malthus on population. That theory, as is well known, supposes a tendency in the human race, to increase in population, in proportion to the means of subsistence; and that that tendency is kept in check, by the deficiency of those means, except during the existence of peculiar circumstances, which form an exception to the general rule. This theory, in its application to fully-peopled countries, with a circumstantial territory, like the British islands, is undoubtedly true; but the manner in which Malthus undertook to account for it, involved the theory in some discredit which does not belong to it. He undertook to account for it, by the different ratios in which population and subsistence naturally increase, applying a geometrical ratio to the former, and the slower arithmetical ratio to the latter. It was a fanciful idea, but wholly false and absurd in its application. With room for expansion, food is increased more rapidly than population, as is abundantly proved in the United States. Where there is no power of expansion, the greater power of increase in food is kept in check, as well as the lesser tendency in population. By this theory of Malthus, population is constantly pressing on the means of supporting life, that is to say, a portion of the human race, in its natural condition in every country, is in an actual state, or immediate danger, of starvation. In this extremity, there is a constant struggle on the part of laborers to obtain employment, as the means of preserving life by their wages. This struggle, is supposed to keep wages at the lowest point which will actually support the life of the laborer and his family. This point is thus taken to be the natural rate of wages.

The history of labor, as far as we can follow it, during the whole course of European civilization, and its present actual state in Europe, and especially in England, furnish but too sad a confirmation of the fact, that this has been, and now is, its actual condition.

This, then, is taken to be the natural state of labor—a power seeking employment beyond the means of finding it, which are limited by the amount of capital devoted to this object in the payment of wages. This low and abject state of labor, is the original principle from which McCulloch, Ricardo, Senior and others, of the modern school of economists, have drawn most important conclusions as the foundation of their system.

Labor is thus an indefinite quantity, limited in its action, by the capital devoted to its maintenance. Without capital to set it in motion, it is an inert mass, useless and impotent. A result of this view is, that the increase of wealth in a community, goes wholly to the owner of the capital as his profits. The laborer, obliged to be content with a subsistence, is not supposed capable of any accumulation. This is the rule, subject, of course, to occasional exceptions. It is, however, on this axiom, as its corner-stone, that the whole modern doctrine of free trade rests. The question is, the increase of national wealth. It being admitted, that profits go wholly to the owners of the capital employing labor, and no part of this accumulation to the laborer himself, it follows, that legislative in-

terference can only change the application of capital from one object to another, without increasing the quantity of labor which it sets in motion, and this change is sure to be from a more profitable application to one less so, since the sagacity of the capitalist, without this interference, would be sure to lead him to the most profitable employment of his capital. Hence is deduced another proposition—that no act of legislation can create wealth.

It requires little observation to perceive, that views founded on such premises, have no application to us. The unlimited quantity of fertile land, placed within the reach of every individual, is the distinguishing peculiarity of our situation, in an economical point of view. This furnishes to labor the easy means of subsistence, and may be considered the controlling cause, whose effects are to be traced through all the ramifications of our society. This establishes the high reward, or wages of labor, elevating the lowest laborer from the position of a mere machine, where the modern school of political economy has placed him, to one in which he becomes, at his own will, the possessor of capital. The labor of a single year, gives to every laborer, if he choose to save his earnings, a very considerable capital. He takes, at his pleasure, a place in society.

It is true, that the United States may be said to form an exception to the general rule, arising from the circumstance of its containing a quantity of unimproved land; but since this condition which forms the exception, this power of expansion, will necessarily continue for one or more centuries, it is sufficient for our present government; and we should be cautious in adopting, as rules of action, theories of political economy, drawn from a state of society so different from our own. They have no application to us.

When we see a house erected out of the clay of our fields, and the wood of our forests, we perceive that there has been a creation of wealth. When we see that this creation has been shared by the brickmaker, the mason and the carpenter, we cannot but laugh to scorn those theories which tell us that labor cannot accumulate capital. We see the thing done before our eyes.

With us, labor is, in fact, the great accumulator. It goes to work, without difficulty, on its own account. It is, therefore, perfectly clear, that that legislation which calls most labor into action, which gives it its fullest scope, is, with us, most productive of wealth. The doctrine of free trade, is founded upon the assumption, that labor is everywhere in excess, waiting to be employed by capital, in itself powerless, dependent, only asking to live. With us, labor assumes a higher tone—it treats with capital on equal terms—it shares in the profits, hand in hand with capital. The protective system rests as its basis, on the principle of an enlarged field for labor, resulting from that legislation which restricts or shuts out the competition of the cheaper and more degraded labor of Europe. The opposition comes from capital, which alleges that this system gives to labor too great an advantage, in the power of levying a contribution in the prices of the commodities consumed by capital. The answer is, that, with us, labor and capital are so mixed together, that, in the general prosperity resulting from an active, well-paid industry, capital is sure to get its share. All writers on political economy, recognise the high reward of labor as indicating the highest measure of general prosperity. It elevates the industrial classes in the scale of society, by giving them a power

and a taste, in the enjoyments of civilized life, and in the cultivation of their minds. With us, it does more. In addition to all this, it enables them to lay by a surplus as capital.

One great advantage, lies in the abundance and cheapness of our lands. This gives to the immediate tiller of the soil, an easier and more abundant subsistence than can be obtained, by the same labor, in any other part of the world. But he requires other enjoyments than food, and the whole question is, how can these be supplied in the manner most conducive to the wealth and happiness of the whole country. It would seem to be a simple proposition, that the application of a portion of our labor to the working up the raw materials which we produce, into the manufacture which we consume, must be the simplest and most direct mode of equalizing and diffusing the peculiar advantage which we possess, in the abundance of food, through all classes of society. As a question of political economy, of the increase of national wealth, the whole consists in inquiry, whether this system does not call into action a greater amount of labor than would find employment without it? The answer would seem to be easy, and plain common sense can hardly mistake it. With the assurance of a home market, both capital and labor set freely to work to supply it.

The question is frequently complicated, by the inquiry, why we should make at home what we can buy cheaper from abroad? This is a question which can only be put by capital. There is nothing cheaper to labor, which is purchased by idleness. A nation can buy nothing cheap, which slackens the arm of its industry. The term cheap, in such a case, has no application. The matter is only confused by reference to a money price. The real question is, the best application of labor.

It is thus apparent, how different is the position of labor, in the United States, in relation to the science of political economy, compared with labor in England. Free trade, in England, is quite a different affair from free trade in the United States. Its great effort, in England, is directed against the corn laws. It is labor, striving for cheaper food, against a landed monopoly. It rests, then, on the same principle, as the protective system with us—the benefit of labor. It is there, resisting a monopoly against itself. It here establishes a monopoly in its own favor, if one may be allowed to apply the term to an object so universal. It will be seen at once, that, both socially and politically, the position of labor in this country, opens a wide field for speculation and observation. We are, in this respect, a world by ourselves. The country of Europe, which approximates nearest to us, theoretically, is France, since the revolution. She has abolished the right of primogeniture, and her peerage is a mere shadow; but with a crowded population, and so many old prejudices remaining, labor will find it a hard struggle to acquire much estimation there. Military glory, military command, will continue to be awarded the highest honors in France, as at all the courts of the continent, as the best security of their thrones.

It is true, the present is a new era in Europe. The last half century has developed industrial power, under the direction of science, in a degree, which has no parallel in previous history. This power has brought, and will continue to bring, into existence, a mass of wealth capable of maintaining a claim for influence, with the landed interest, which has heretofore been supreme. It has already produced a considerable change,

in raising the industrious classes in public estimation. But there is a wide gulf in public opinion, which will continue to separate Europe and the United States, in their estimates of labor and industrious occupation, which will endure as long as their different institutions of government.

ART. III.—OHIO, ITS WEALTH AND RESOURCES.

BUT little over fifty years ago, the state of Ohio, now containing 1,680,000 inhabitants, would have appeared to a person, placed high enough above it to take the whole in at one view, one great level plain, covered over, with slight exceptions of prairie, by one huge forest. When it emerged from the ocean, under which, for ages, it lay, it must have been nearly a horizontal plane, except the northwestern counties, which formed a regular plane inclined to the northeast. When the rivers first began to carry off the water that came from the clouds, they must frequently have been at a loss what course to take, so level was the surface. Accordingly, we find them between their sources and their mouths, boxing the compass, as if determined to visit the north and the south, the east and the west, before the final determination was made to join the Mississippi or the St. Lawrence. There seem to be strong evidences that there has been some change in the elevation of some parts of the state, since the streams were established in their courses. For instance, the highest ground or range of highlands, between the lake and the Ohio, is several miles south of the sources of the streams that flow into the Ohio. However this may be, it is well established, that the tops of all our highest hills are nearly in the same plane, and that they have been made, not by an upheaving force from below, but by the removal of earth between them, by the streams that now run at their base. In other words, our hills are all hills of denudation, or, as Dr. Hildreth calls them, hills of degradation. They are in their original position, but the earth between them has been carried away, to fill up the Gulf of Mexico, and the borders of the lake. That this is so, is proved conclusively by the correspondence of the strata of the opposite hills bordering all our streams. The amount of earth that has been excavated from the great western plane, and carried into the gulf, is enormous. More than 200 miles, have the delta of the Mississippi been pushed into the Gulf of Mexico, making a large territory of country, where once the ocean wave rolled in solitary grandeur. Ohio has had enough carried out of her limits, to have made a stratum fifty feet deep, over the entire surface of the states of Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut.

The lowest point in Ohio, is the bed of the Ohio river, where it leaves the state, which is 415 feet above the ocean at New York, and 149 feet below the surface of Lake Erie. The highest grounds are at Hillsborough, in Highland county, 50 miles east of Cincinnati, and the highland west of Akron, in Summit county, being 560 feet above the lake, and 1,124 above the ocean. Columbus is 200 feet above the lake, and has probably about the average elevation of the whole state. The elevation at St. Mary's, (canal level,) is 278 feet; and at Defiance, (canal level,) 98 feet.

Nearly over the entire surface of the state, where it has not been cut

through by the streams, there lies a deposit of various thickness, from one foot to 100 feet, the last made before it emerged from the waters. This overlays the edges or out-cropping of the various strata beneath, and has taken its shape from those edges, as is shown by its having about the same thickness over the hill-sides, as on the plains. This stratum is known by the name of diluvium, and is sometimes classed among the tertiary strata. The portion of it which lies immediately on the previously formed strata, is commonly blue clay, containing water-worn pebbles of various kinds of rock. Upon this blue clay, commonly rests a bed of yellow clay, also containing water-worn pebbles, and is frequently interstratified with sand. This whole diluvial deposit, is believed to have been made by oceanic currents. The strata, on the out-cropping edges of which it lies, have a general dip to the east and south, and southeast, of from 20 to 30 feet in the mile. The most important of these strata, is a transition limestone, supposed to be equivalent to the mountain limestone of Europe. This is the uppermost rock, in the whole western half of the state, and constitutes the beds of most of its streams. In many places, it crops out, and thus furnishes a building material of the best quality, that may be obtained at small cost of quarrying. The islands in Lake Erie, are composed of, and based on this rock. East of the Huron and Olan-tangy rivers, this lime stratum dips under a stratum of shale, sometimes called clay slate; going farther east, this passes under a stratum of sandstone; still farther east, or rather southeast, the sandstone is overlaid by a conglomerate; this, still farther in that direction, is overlaid by the lower coal series, and this, by a calcario-silicious rock, above which, lies the upper coal series, passing beyond the eastern and southeastern boundaries of the state.

Thus, it appears, that notwithstanding the general level character of the whole state, the strata are so disposed, as to give us most of the valuable minerals to be found in all countries, and many of the most indispensable metals. Nearly one-third of the state, is within the great coal basin, of which Wheeling is near the middle.

In several of the southernmost counties, there are beds of the best iron ore, interstratified with coal and lime rock, which beds are extensive, and capable of furnishing iron to a vast extent. It is estimated, that the beds of workable coal would be sufficient to last 10,000 years, supposing Ohio to use as much as England and Wales now use, with a population of 16,000,000.

In western Ohio, we need never expect to find beds of coal, as our limestone stratum lies below the coal series; but we may have gypsum, and salt and lead. The former is, at present, only known to exist on Sandusky bay, but will probably, hereafter, be discovered in other places. The best soil in the world, is found in those countries, where the mountain limestone is the upper rock stratum. Poland, the midland counties of England and Ireland, are examples. This is an important fact, and nowhere more clearly exemplified than in our western states. It would seem almost superfluous, to speak of the fertile character of the soil of Ohio, but there are some varieties, due to geological formation, which may be properly noticed. That part, which has transition lime rock as its upper stratum, is, of course, possessed of a soil remarkably durable, and well adapted to wheat and grass. This portion embraces nearly half of the state, the eastern line of it commencing at the lake, near the mouth

of the Huron river, and passing in a southerly direction, leaves Columbus a few miles east, and touches the Ohio river in Adams county. All lying west of this line is emphatically a limestone country. A great part of the ten counties constituting the Connecticut reserve, is based on shale and sandstone, and although good land, and capable of producing, with careful culture, all kinds of grain and fruit, suitable to the climate, yet, lacking calcareous matter in the soil, is less fertile than the rest of the state. The middle and southeastern section of Ohio is much more uneven than the western and northern, the streams having carried away the earth to a greater extent, because it was from its nature less able to resist the action of flood and frost. This great section has the debris of the lime strata that lies in the coal series, scattered on all its hill sides and vallies, and mingling with the debris of the beds of shale and sandstone, that lie above and below them, constitutes a soil of great excellence, that has within itself, the renovating power to prevent its exhaustion, under the most constant culture. When thoroughly tested, about seven-eighths of the soil of Ohio will be found well adapted to the permanent production of wheat.

Without entering into minute calculations, or pretending to accuracy, we will now state some other of the natural capabilities of the state. On the southeast and south, it has a river shore 450 miles long, which is visited by steamers, from four to eight months of every year; and on the north it is penetrated by the southern bend of Lake Erie, which gives it a water communication for 200 miles, eight months in the year. Its interior streams, though worthless for navigation, are invaluable as feeders for canals, and for the water power which they almost everywhere afford.

Ohio has 25,000,000 of acres, nearly every acre of which may be cheaply brought into tillage; and its average fertility exceeds that of the best interval lands of primitive countries. If it were all under cultivation in wheat, it might produce 500,000,000 bushels, being nearly five times as much as is grown in the United States. It is fully able to sustain in comfort and happiness 10,000,000 of people; and with that number it would average but 250 to the square mile, or one person to every $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres. In climate, we believe no other state equals it, for mildness and uniformity. Its winter cold and its summer heats are greatly tempered on the north, by the extensive body of water which bounds it in that direction; and in its southern slope it has the benefit of the soft breezes from the Gulf. Taken as a whole, it is not probably excelled, if it is equalled, in the healthfulness of its atmosphere, by any sister state.

Her position among the states, would seem to give her a better title to be called the Keystone than Pennsylvania; for she holds a middle ground between the northeast, and the northwest; and when Canada becomes an integral part of this country, Ohio will be more central than any other state. Before that time arrives, she bids fair to have more natural ways of intercourse, connecting her with the north and south, the east and the west, to the remotest bounds of the nation, than any other of the sisterhood. The Ohio river gives her on the south, cheap intercourse with all the states of the Mississippi basin; extending westward to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, southward to the Gulf, and northward to the falls of St. Anthony. Lake Erie furnishes to her northern counties, still superior facilities for intercourse with the northwest, to the 49th degree of lati-

tude, and towards the northeast to the ocean, and by means of the Erie canal to the eastern states. Her artificial ways, to connect these natural high roads, and to give all portions of her people easy access to them, are honorable to her industry and enterprise. The Ohio canal, begun in 1825, and completed in 1832, is 309 miles long, 40 feet wide at the water surface, and 4 feet deep. Its branches, beginning at the south, are 1st, the Columbus feeder, 9 miles long; 2d, the Hocking canal, 56 miles; 3d, the Muskingum improvement, 91 miles; 4th, the Walholding canal, 25 miles; 5th, the Canton side-cut, 19 miles; and the Mahoning canal, 87 miles; making in all 596 miles of artificial navigation in eastern Ohio, terminating in Cleveland, and touching the Ohio river at Portsmouth, and Marietta. The Mahoning branch, is connected with the Pennsylvania improvements, and with them makes a continuous line of artificial highway to Philadelphia.

The Wabash and Erie canal, from its eastern termination to the junction with the Miami, 68 miles, is more than double the size of the Ohio canal; and thence to the state line, 20 miles, it is 50 feet wide, and 5 feet deep, where it is met by the Indiana portion, of the same size to Fort Wayne. The Wabash and Erie canal, in Ohio, with its side-cuts, is 91 miles long. The Miami canal, which joins it $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles above Defiance, is 170 miles in length, and has navigable feeders—1st, the Sidney feeder, 13 miles; 2d, the Warren county canal, 22 miles; and the Whitewater canal, 25 miles; in all, 321 miles navigable canal within the western part of the state, and terminating at the western extremity of Lake Erie.

From the above, it appears, that when the 35 miles of the Miami canal, now nearly completed, shall be filled with water, Ohio will have, within her borders, including the 3 mile Milan canal, 920 miles of navigable canals, built at an expense of near \$17,000,000. Pretty well for a state but 42 years old. Of McAdamized roads, made in part by the state, there are at present, it is believed, upwards of 800 miles; and of railroads completed, about 80 miles.

Labor to the amount of not less than \$20,000,000, and probably double that sum, has been laid out on common earth roads; so that, in some seasons when they are dry or frozen, they are exceedingly pleasant to travel on, being smooth and level, without the dust so annoying on McAdamized roads. The yearly tax for opening and keeping in repair these common roads, is, probably, with what labor is given, not less than \$1,500,000. It is impossible with the facts that have been collected, to make a very accurate estimate, either of the gross amount of wealth, or the yearly earnings of this state. The statistics obtained in 1840, in connexion with the United States census, are exceedingly imperfect and defective, but they necessarily constitute our main reliance in exhibiting our pecuniary condition.

We propose to give a brief sketch of the wealth of Ohio, giving to the word wealth its popular meaning, which, in our apprehension, will embrace every result of labor that tends to promote the comfort, convenience, and enjoyment of civilized man. The chief wealth of Ohio is in her lands, of which there are 25,000,000 of fertile acres. At \$10 per acre, including all improvements, which we deem a fair average value, this is worth \$250,000,000. The town property is worth \$70,000,000. It will be safe to set down the whole real estate, as worth \$320,000,000. The personal property, including household furniture, carriages, farming utensils, farm-

ing live stock, mechanics tools, and machinery of all kinds, stocks of turnpike, railroad and canal companies, of banks and insurance companies, merchandise on sale, steamboats and other vessels, owned in the state—\$440,000,000. This we are satisfied, is rather under than over the true amount. Estimating the population at 1,650,000, it would be \$267 to each person, and about \$1,400 as the average for each family. In making this final estimate, we have put down the different branches as follows:—Household furniture, \$6,600,000, equal to an average of \$200 to the family; farming utensils \$2,300,000, being an average of \$100, for each farmer; live stock, \$40,000,000, estimating the number of horses and mules at 500,000, neat cattle at 1,500,000, sheep at 3,000,000, and hogs at 3,000,000. The capital employed in the various branches of manufactures, is estimated at \$20,000,000; about \$3,000,000 above the returns in 1840, as exhibited in the sixth census, which we believe was deficient to more than that amount. But without allowing anything for that, it is not too sanguine to estimate the increase of the last four years at \$3,000,000. The capital employed in commerce is greater than most persons, without examination, would suppose. In round numbers we set it down at \$40,000,000, of which \$7,000,000 for foreign trade and commission houses, \$25,000,000 for retail stores, \$5,000,000 for butchers, packers, &c., and the other \$3,000,000 for steamers, canal boats, and other means of transportation. Of the whole \$440,000,000 fixed capital, the farmers probably own some \$260,000,000, the merchants \$100,000,000, the manufacturing interests, \$60,000,000, and the professional men and capitalists, the remaining \$20,000,000. By far the greatest concentration of this capital is in the southwestern portion of the state, in and around Cincinnati. Cleveland and the country around it, is fast coming forward to be the second in the state for wealth and business, if it has not already arrived at that distinction. Zanesville forms the third focus of wealth, and on account of the fine beds of coal and iron in the surrounding country, bids fair, some day, to become extensively engaged in manufacturing. Trumbull, Ashtabula, Geauga, and Portage, are rich in fine cattle and the best productions of the dairy. The southeastern and central counties, constitute, at present, the most productive wheat region in the United States. The Scioto valley is distinguished for its corn, cattle and hogs, which it produces in great abundance. The northwestern quarter of the state is too new to have acquired much wealth of any kind; but when settled, it will be second to no quarter, but the southwest, and it may possibly overtake that beautiful and rich section. Its position, for commerce and manufactures is remarkably good, and its soil will bring forth in abundance all the productions grown in other parts of the state.

It would be an interesting problem to solve, how much of the \$440,000,000 of capital has been created by labor in the state, and how much has been brought in by immigrants; but we have no reliable data to ground a speculation upon. The early settlers, it is well known, came in with very small accumulations from previous labor, but the immigrants of the last fifteen years have brought a large amount of capital with them. At the same time, it must be remembered, that Ohio has sent out a great mass of emigrants farther west, who have carried away no inconsiderable sum, earned on the soil within her borders. A great part, nearly the whole of the \$250,000,000 value, now existing in the land, has been giv-

en to it, by the labor of the settlers and their sons; and the \$70,000,000, now concentrated in her towns, has been mostly created by labor exerted within her limits. The commercial and manufacturing capital, has come mostly from the eastern states and Europe.

Having taken a general survey of the topography, geography and fixed capital of the state, we will now enter into an examination of the annual value of her labor and capital. The subjects on which these are mostly employed, will be taken up in the order adopted in the census returns of 1840. These returns, when not obviously incorrect, we shall adopt as the basis of our calculations, adding the probable increase since they were compiled. The product of her mines is small, as it is but recently that labor has been directed to that branch of business. In 1840, Ohio had 72 furnaces, producing 35,000 tons of cast iron; 19 bloomeries, forges and rolling-mills, producing 7,500 tons of bar iron. The men employed, were 2,300, and the capital invested, was \$1,200,000. Estimating the cast iron at \$30 per ton, (much of it having been made into stoves and other hollow-ware,) and the bar iron at \$50 per ton, the value, in 1840, was near \$1,500,000. If we add 25 per cent for the increase of the four years since, we have the sum of upwards of \$1,800,000, as the product of iron mines in Ohio, in 1843.

In coal, the census returns are evidently defective. The following table shows the increase of receipts of mineral coal, at Cleveland, by the Ohio canal:—

In 1838,.....	73,292 bushels.
“ 1839,.....	134,881 “
“ 1840,.....	172,206 “
“ 1841,.....	478,370 “
“ 1842,.....	466,844 “
“ 1843,.....	387,834 “

The number of bushels raised in the state, in 1839, is put down in the census at 3,500,000. We believe that 5,000,000 would have been nearer correct. Admitting, however, the increase of other parts of the state to equal that which seeks Cleveland for a market, and we shall make a low estimate if we set down the number of bushels raised in 1843, at 12,000,000. At an average of 6 cents the bushel, the value of this mineral will be \$720,000. Of salt, the production, like that of coal, is rapidly increasing. In 1839, it was 300,000 bushels. If we put it at 450,000 bushels, in 1843, at 20 cents the bushel, it will amount to \$90,000.

Of stone, quarried, the census has the yearly value of less than \$200,000. We know some counties, where stone is extensively quarried, that are blank under this head. Among these, are Hamilton and Erie. We have no hesitancy in putting down the value of stone, quarried in the state, at \$800,000, which we believe to be an under estimate. The products of mines, will, put into a table, stand thus:—

Iron,.....	\$1,800,000
Coal,.....	720,000
Salt,.....	90,000
Stone,.....	800,000
Total,.....	\$3,410,000

Next to mines, comes agriculture. The number of horses and mules, is 500,000. If we take one-fourth, as the yearly product, and value them at \$40 each, it will make \$5,000,000. Of neat cattle, there are 1,500,000, worth \$8 each. Allowing one-third, as the annual product, and it amounts to \$4,000,000. The present number of sheep is about 3,000,000. The annual product, in wool and increase, can scarcely be less in value than \$4,500,000. The swine may be set down at 3,000,000, of which 1,500,000 are yearly put into pork, and in that shape are worth \$5 each, making \$7,500,000. Poultry, \$1,000,000; wheat, 20,000,000 bushels, worth \$13,000,000; 250,000 bushels of barley, worth \$160,000; 17,000,000 bushels of oats, worth \$4,500,000; 1,000,000 bushels of rye, \$500,000; 1,000,000 bushels of buckwheat, \$400,000; 40,000,000 bushels of maize, worth \$13,000,000; hops and wax, worth \$30,000; potatoes, 8,000,000 of bushels, \$2,000,000; hay, 2,000,000 of tons, at \$5 the ton, \$10,000,000; hemp and flax, 12,000 tons, \$500,000; tobacco, 7,500,000 pounds, at 5 cents the pound, \$375,000; 5,000 pounds of silk cocoons, \$15,000; 7,000,000 pounds of sugar, at 6 cents, \$420,000; 6,000,000 cords of wood, (by estimate, for the census gives no light on the subject,) at \$1 the cord, \$6,000,000; products of the dairy, (by estimation,) \$9,000,000; products of orchards, \$3,000,000; home-made family goods, \$4,000,000; gardens and nurseries, \$1,500,000. The above, all added together, make the large sum of \$90,400,000. To this should be added 500,000 acres of land, cleared and fenced, at \$10 per acre; making, as the gross earnings of the farmers and gardeners of Ohio, \$95,400,000. The yearly earnings of commerce, in 1840, were estimated, by Professor Tucker, at a little over \$8,000,000. This was evidently too low, being based on the census, which, in some parts, bears on its face, evidence of its defective character. The amount of commerce, in its various branches, on the Ohio river, on the lakes, on her 900 miles of canal, on her MeAdam and other roads, embracing transportation and all the exchanges, by wholesale and retail, over the whole state, was, in 1840, according to the census, but about \$35,000,000. If we put it at \$40,000,000, and its gross yearly earnings at \$18,500,000, it will rather fall short of, than exceed, the true amount.

In the department of manufactures, the census appears to be particularly defective, yet the amount of capital given for the whole state, is less than \$17,000,000. The gross yearly earnings of all branches of manufacture, including mills, houses, ships and boats, we estimate at \$20,000,000. The products of the fisheries, in all the rivers and Lake Erie, would be estimated low, at \$100,000. Those of the forest, of which lumber, pot and pearl-ashes, and skins and furs are the principal, may be safely estimated at \$900,000.

The yearly earnings of the state, then, in the various branches of industry, may be fairly set down as follows:—

Of mines,.....	\$ 3,400,000
Agriculture,.....	95,400,000
Commerce,.....	13,500,000
Manufactures,	20,100,000
Fisheries,.....	100,000
Forest,.....	900,000
Total,.....	\$133,400,000

This is about \$60,000,000 above the estimate of Professor Tucker, and yet we are satisfied that it is rather under than over the true amount. Our estimate is intended to embrace the increase of the four years since the census, on which Professor Tucker's estimate is based. Our estimate makes the yearly earnings of each family \$404, working on an average capital of over \$1,400. To each person in the state, it allows an average of \$80, out of which he must be fed, clothed, educated, &c., and from which, all additions to the fixed capital of the state, must come. The yearly earnings of Massachusetts, are known to amount to not less than \$100,000,000. This is twice as much in proportion to her numbers as those of Ohio. This, we believe, is owing far more to the greater variety of employments, especially manufacturing, than to the superior industry of the people of the bay state. There, profitable employment is given to persons of both sexes, and to every age and condition. In Ohio, women and children have few employments that can be exercised to much pecuniary profit. In fixed capital, too, Massachusetts has greatly the advantage, which she is sure to keep as long as the silly enactments of our legislature are directed against the introduction of foreign capital. A steady course of legislation, favorable to the introduction of capital from the old states and from Europe, would soon put a new face on our industrial affairs, and cover Ohio with the blessings of a durable prosperity.

ART. IV.—MERCHANT SEAMEN.

THE large amount of merchant shipping engaged in the imports and exports of the United States, the capital invested and the number of individuals whose interests are involved in the navigation of ships, induce us to devote the present paper to a brief review of the legal rights and duties of merchant seamen. In prosecuting this labor, we shall only exhibit the more prominent principles that govern those who are employed in our merchant service, either as mariners or masters of ships, without attempting to develop that vast body of complex law bearing upon the subject, and, of course, not adapted to the design of a popular mercantile journal.

It is obvious that, in order to the security of the rights of the owners of the merchant vessels that are continually entering and departing from our ports, by hundreds, as well as that of seamen, the laws regulating the merchant service should be as clearly defined and operative, in every part of the wide ocean navigated by those vessels, as those which govern our rights and duties upon the land. Accordingly, a vast body of commercial law has grown up, deriving its origin from the earliest period in which the sea has been navigated by ships, and it will be our design to exhibit some of its more practical rules, that are the most frequent in their application to common voyages.

The mariner is deemed in the eye of the law, in one sense, a citizen of the world, whose home is on the deep, and entering the service of any nation where he is legally permitted, he can seek the compensation for his labor, at the hands of the law, for his contract is recognised by general jurisprudence. We will, therefore, consider him first on entering the service, and the nature of his contract.

There are certain peculiarities, which govern the contract made with

seamen, entirely distinct from those of the land; and these peculiarities grow out of the necessity of the case, and the singular nature of the marine service. The principal of these, in our own country, relate to the apprehension of the seaman and his punishment, if he fails to render himself on board the vessel in which he is employed, according to his contract, and the infliction of corporal punishment upon him, if he wilfully fails to perform his duty.

Let us now examine the contract made by the seaman with his employers; for, to that contract, there are three parties, the mariner, the master and the owner: the mariner constituting, in legal phrase, the first party to the contract, and the master and the owner the second party.

The maritime law, doubtless, permits the mariner to contract for a sailing voyage on the same terms that he would be permitted to make any contract upon the land. A person of full legal age, twenty-one years, can enter into a contract of this sort, but not a minor or apprentice; and if a minor or apprentice enters into this contract without the consent of his parent or guardian, the sum paid to either of them may be recovered by the latter; or, if a minor child is induced to go a voyage upon the high seas against the consent of the parent, an action for damages will lie against the person who induced him, by the parent.

The master of the vessel is usually employed to hire the seaman, and although in this hiring, he is the agent of the owner, and they have coordinate power, still, if the owner does not dissent, the engagement entered into by the master with the seaman, will be binding on the master. The contract is, however, not made with the person of the master, but with the ship, or rather the owner; and if there is no master, yet the owner may make a contract with the seaman to sail with whatever master may be appointed. Thus, on the one side of the contract is the seaman, and on the other, the master and the owner; the former acting as the agent of the latter, under most circumstances, although the latter is, of course, from his holding the property in the ship, more directly affected by the contract.

The master and owner, on their side, agree by the contract, which is executed in the form of what is denominated "*shipping articles*," or a paper drawn up and signed by all the seamen, usually expressing the terms of the voyage, to pay to the mariners their wages. It is also implied in the contract, that the voyage shall be legal, that the vessel shall be seaworthy, or provided with all the requisites for navigation, and that the voyage shall be definite and certain, without deviation, unless it is absolutely necessary for the safety of the crew, vessel or cargo. It is also a part of the contract, that the seamen shall be treated with humanity, and that they shall be provided with subsistence according to the laws of their own country, unless the contract otherwise expressly provides, or the usages of particular trade otherwise warrant. If the seaman is sick, from causes occurring during the voyage, and not from his own fault, he may be cured at the expense of the ship, and the law requires the master to bring the seaman back to his own country.

The seaman, on his side, by the act of signing the shipping articles, contracts to do all within his power for the welfare of the ship; engages that he is of competent health and knowledge to perform the duties of the station for which he contracts; to be on board at the precise time agreed upon, which, by our own law, constitutes a part of the shipping

articles; and to remain in the service of the ship, until the voyage is completed. If he does not so render himself on board the vessel, he may be apprehended and committed to the custody of the law until the ship is ready to sail. The seaman, moreover, contracts to obey all the lawful commands of the master, to preserve the order and discipline of the ship, and to submit to the same subjection, as a child to a parent, for the purpose of preserving that order and discipline during the voyage.

It is not proposed to enter into a minute description of the "*shipping articles*," a paper that is the ordinary evidence of the contract between the master and the seamen. It usually states the commencement and end of the voyage, and the 3d section of the act of July 20th, 1840, declares, that the articles and list of the crew "shall be deemed to contain all the conditions of contract with the crew, as to their service, pay, voyage and all other things." Although the shipping paper is ordinarily the evidence of the voyage, still, where there is fraud, or mistake in its terms, the usage is for courts to exercise a liberal discretion in favor of the mariner. By the act of Congress, of 1790, it is provided that, if a seaman is taken upon a voyage without the execution of the shipping paper, the master or mariner shall pay to the seaman the highest wages that have been given within three months, next before the time of such shipping; and a later statute, of 1840, declares, that all shipments of seamen made contrary to this and other acts of Congress, shall be void; and any seaman so shipped, may at any time leave the service, and demand the highest rate of wages given to any seaman shipped for the voyage, or the sum agreed to be given to him on his shipment. In the bank and cod fisheries, the contract of seamen with the masters and owners, is required to be in writing, expressing the general terms of the voyage; and in the whale fishery, although no shipping paper is absolutely required by the law, still they are uniformly employed, stipulating, among other things, the terms of the voyage, and the shares or "*lays*" of each officer and seaman on board the ship.

The several modes in which the contracts of seamen are executed, are the hiring by the voyage, by the month, during so long a time as the voyage shall continue, for a share of the profits of a certain described voyage; or for a share of the freight of a certain described voyage, the first two involving the hiring on time, and the last two, the hiring for a stipulated share of the freight or profits.

We now proceed to a consideration of the master's authority over the crew and passengers, and it must be admitted that the responsibilities of masters of vessels are deep and various. The master is employed as the agent of a large amount of property, and the director of a crew of men under circumstances the most difficult, and frequently the most dangerous. Forecast, decision, courage, judgment, are all required during most hazardous periods, in contending with the passions of men, and the equally terrible storms of the sea. Traversing the lonely waste of the ocean, away from succor, with a body of men at his command, with the safety of lives depending on his skill, and valuable cargoes in his custody, he is invested with a power by the law, which, upon the land, would equal almost a despotism, and this from the very necessity of the case. He possesses in fact the same kind of power as is exercised by a parent over a child. He is invested by our own law with the sole government of his ship, with the right of direction, subject however to the legal consequences of the

abuse of his powers. He may, for example, enforce his authority by the infliction of due punishment upon the crew, but if he exceeds the proper limits, he will be liable to an action by the seaman for civil damages, as well as to a criminal prosecution by a statute of the United States. The proper measure of punishment as proportioned to the offence, is to be ascertained by the particular circumstances of the case. The punishment must be also with proper weapons. So also the master has the right to imprison a seaman on board ship, especially when a serious crime has been committed, calling for legal investigation. To the passengers, however, the master stands in a different relation from that with the crew. Although he possesses the right to restrain *them* from violating the order and peace of the ship, he can require them to perform no services, except in time of danger. Even this they can avoid by leaving the vessel if they choose so to do. He is bound to treat them with courtesy and kindness, and a course of conduct, either tyrannical or malicious, will be punished by courts of justice. He is also bound to provide sufficient stores for their use, being responsible for any neglect in this respect.

The duties of the mate are similar to those of the master of a vessel. In the absence of the master he stands in his place, and his ordinary duty is to see that the commands of the master are obeyed, to exercise a general superintendence over the affairs of the ship, to advise the master of that which requires his notice, to attend to the receiving and stowing of the cargo, to attend to the sailing of the vessel while at sea, and to keep the log book, that important evidence in all maritime cases, in which he should enter an accurate and minute journal of the voyage. In fine, he should be a vigilant, dutiful, and finished seaman, and should be competent to discharge the duties imposed upon him. If the master is dead or absent, the mate, as the next highest officer on board, succeeds to his office with all its responsibilities and duties. If he is guilty of gross negligence, involving the loss of cargo, he alone is responsible; and if he interfere with the responsibility of another, he is also responsible. For example, if he undertakes to remove any merchandise, and it is lost, thus interfering with a wharfinger, who, according to usage, is responsible for the safe delivery of goods on board the vessel, the loss thus accruing, by such interference, is to be deducted from the amount of his wages.

Our own law has also provided for the subsistence of seamen, by requiring a certain amount of provisions to be shipped on board of every vessel, of one hundred and fifty tons burthen, bound on a voyage across the Atlantic Ocean, and elsewhere, and in like proportion for shorter or longer voyages. Their right to be cured of sickness, at the expense of the ship, is clear and well established, although it is equally clear that this sickness must occur while in the service of the ship, and must not be occasioned by the faults or vices of the mariner, or while absent on business or pleasure, or without permission. In accordance with the provisions of that act, our own vessels, above a certain tonnage, and bound for any ports beyond the limits of the United States, must be provided with a medicine chest, with all proper directions for the benefit of seamen. Provision has, moreover, been made for sick and disabled seamen, by the erection not only of temporary but permanent hospitals. To that end the law requires that when any one of our ships arrives from a foreign port into one of our own, before she is admitted to an entry, the master or owner must pay into the hands of the collector twenty cents.

per month for every seaman employed; and this, also, is the case in every vessel employed in the coasting trade. This sum is retained out of the wages of the seamen, and constitutes a fund under the management of the President of the United States and directors appointed by him, for the maintenance of marine hospitals, in the several districts.

The law is, moreover, peculiarly strict, regarding marine offences, and we shall now briefly consider the principal offences of this sort. *Barra-try*, it is well known, is a term applied to a breach of duty by the master or mariners, against the owner, relating either to the ship or cargo, and its consideration belongs more especially to the subject of marine insurance.

The penalties for maritime offences act against the offender, either by legal sentences, in courts of law, direct corporeal punishment, or the forfeiture of wages. Among these offences are, destroying and running away with the ship, mutiny, piracy, piratical confederacy, endeavor to commit a revolt, desertion, absence, embezzlement, negligence, drunkenness, and disobedience; all of which are very grave offences, and punishable in a greater or less measure by the law.

As it is the duty of the seaman to adhere to the ship, under ordinary circumstances, until the completion of the voyage, so, also, it is the duty of the master to return the seaman to the port of departure. There are certain general circumstances, and also particular acts on the part of the seaman, which will warrant a discharge. Misconduct on the part of the seaman, amounting to continuous drunkenness, disobedience, negligence, or dishonesty, tending to a radical disqualification or unfitness for duty, would warrant such discharge. But if the seaman offers amends, even in the case of aggravated offences, it is usual to refrain from giving this discharge. By a law of the United States, the master of every ship, bound for a foreign port, is required to deliver to the collector of the port from which he clears, a list of his crew, and to receive a copy of this list, certified by the collector. He is also required to exhibit this list to the first boarding officer, at the first port of the United States to which he shall arrive, and produce the persons named in the list, to the boarding officer, who reports the same to the collector. If a ship or vessel of the United States is sold in a foreign country, and her company discharged, or if a seaman, mariner, or citizen of the United States is discharged, it is the duty of the master or commander, to produce to the consul or vice consul, the commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, the list of his ship's company, and to pay to the officer for every man discharged, three months pay, over and above the wages due to him, two-thirds of which are to be paid to each seaman or mariner so discharged, on his engagement on board of any vessel to return to the United States, and the other remaining third to be returned as a fund for the payment of the passages of seamen or mariners of our own country who desire to return to the United States, and to support American seamen who are destitute in such foreign port. The money is to be accounted for with the treasury every six months. This provision, however, only applies to the voluntary discharge by the master, and not to those cases where the discharge has resulted from inevitable necessity or superior force.

The occurrence of an inevitable disaster at sea, will not exempt the master from the payment of the sum alluded to, unless the vessel can be repaired at a reasonable expense. If the ship is captured, the seamen

have a right to remain by the ship, and await the prize proceedings, and if the crew are discharged while the ship is able to proceed on her way, they will be entitled to their two months pay. The act of Congress of 1840, however, somewhat enlarges the discretionary powers of consuls or commercial agents, in foreign ports, in discharging mariners from their vessels. If application is made by the master and mariner for a discharge, he may give this discharge upon such terms as he can make with the master, in order to exempt the United States from a liability to support the mariner so discharged, and without the payment of any sum of money; and if a mariner has deserted, and is reclaimed by the consul, if it is ascertained that this desertion has been caused by ill treatment, the consul may discharge the mariner, who will be entitled to receive three months pay, besides the wages up to the time of the discharge. The consuls are also bound to provide for the passage of all destitute seamen of our own, found within their districts, to their own country; and the masters of vessels belonging to our own country, are also bound to take such mariners on board their vessels, on terms agreed upon between the parties, not exceeding ten dollars for each person, and under certain other conditions. A law of the United States also prohibits the forcing ashore a seaman in a foreign port, maliciously, and without a justifiable cause, under certain penalties.

We now proceed to a consideration of the master's relation to the ship. The property of the ship being the owners, the majority, of course, have the power of appointing a master, who acts, in relation to the ship, as their agent. If unable to attend to his duties, the master has the power, while in a foreign port, to appoint a substitute, or the consignees of a ship or cargo in a foreign port, have likewise the power to appoint a substitute, (if the master should die, and devolve the management upon themselves,) who assumes all the rights and duties of his predecessor. It appears that the owners have the right to remove the master, who is part owner of a vessel; but if he is removed without good cause, and he is engaged for a particular voyage, they must answer to him in damages. Where, however, he has only a general engagement with the vessel, his relation to the owners would seem to be a mere agency, liable, however, at any time to be revoked. Nor can the master himself, leave the ship in which he has contracted to sail, without being liable in damages, unless the owners desire to keep him from his post, and in that case he must give notice.

In his authority, over the ship, the master is the agent of the owners, and must manage the vessel for their interest. Although bound by their orders, where express orders are given, still, in the absence of those orders, his own authority governs as master of the ship. If the ship has been accustomed so to be let, he can let the ship, to be chartered by another, according to the usual course of its trade, provided that it is in a foreign port. But if it is let to charter in a home port, it must be with the owners' knowledge. The case is the same in the procurement of freight, the master acting as the agent of the owners, their own assent being presumed, if they are present, and make no objections. He may, also, receive goods on board the vessel, as a general ship, and give bills of lading, which will be binding upon the owners when signed by the master; and if a merchant ships goods as freight, he has a lien on the vessel for all damages that they may sustain through the carelessness of the master, or

the unseaworthiness of the vessel, it being hypothecated to him for his damages. But it is necessary, in this case, that the ship should be a general freighting ship. The master of the ship is, moreover, usually empowered to hire the other officers and seamen, unless the power is withheld by the owners.

The master also has the right to order the victualling and repairing of the ship, unless it is shown that the owner, or ship's husband, managed the vessel; and such contracts will be binding on the owners upon two grounds, first, the authority upon which the master acts, as agent for his principal, their owners; and secondly, the fact that they receive the benefits of the contract. He may even borrow money necessary for the prosecution of the voyage, if in a foreign port, and the owner will be responsible. If, however, he cannot otherwise obtain a supply of money for that object, he may resort to the direct hypothecation of the ship, by a bottomry bond. If by the bottomry bond alone, the supply of money can not be procured, the master is empowered to draw bills of exchange upon the owners, collateral to the bond, and the owners are bound to their acceptance. But it is necessary in order to make the owners responsible, that the advances thus made should be necessary supplies for the prosecution of the voyage, or the safety of the ship. But the master cannot resort to bottomry, if there are funds of the owners on board the ship, to which he is first bound to resort, and even if the *master* possesses funds on board, an opinion has been pretty strongly intimated by Mr. Justice Story, that he is bound to apply those funds to the safe prosecution of the voyage. The ship can, however, only be hypothecated in a foreign port, and it was adjudged by the great authority of Chief Justice Marshall, that in our own country, a foreign port was any port out of the state in which the owner resides. If the vessel is wrecked, and becomes so out of repair as not to be navigated, and no money can be procured for that object, or the vessel cannot be repaired but at an expense of half her value, when repaired she can be sold by the master.

In general the owners are responsible for injuries committed by the master in that capacity, as in cases of collusion, discharges of mariners, damages to cargo, in consequence of the want of ordinary care, and embezzlement.

We now come to the personal liability of the master, who is, doubtless, answerable for all the contracts which he makes, connected with the navigation of a ship, as well as on charter parties and bills of lading signed by him. He is, moreover, liable for all damages springing from his own want of skill or care, repairs and supplies, pilotage and wages of seamen. But if supplies and repairs are made upon the exclusive credit of the owner, the master will not be responsible; but ordinary supplies and repairs, ordered by the master, will usually be a valid charge against him. He is also liable for the illegal injuries done by himself and those of his crew, but not for the wilful trespasses of his crew not done within the scope of his commands.

If the master of a ship is at the same time commander and consignee, he stands in two relations, both as agent of the owner and the consignor, and is invested with appropriate duties in these two capacities. Inasmuch as the master and owner are in law common carriers, it is the duty of the master to see that his vessel is seaworthy, provided with a proper crew, and to take a pilot, where a pilot is required by custom or the law, to

stow the goods properly, to set sail in fair weather, to transport the cargo with due care, and to provide against all mishaps but those which arise from the acts of God and the public enemy. So, also, in the power possessed by the master over the cargo, if he cannot obtain funds on a pledge of the ship, he can bind the whole cargo for those repairs necessary for the prosecution of the voyage, or he may sell a part of it for the same purpose. But in this matter he must act with reasonable discretion. He may throw overboard a part of the cargo in a storm to save the ship and cargo, or he may part with a portion of the cargo as a ransom for the remainder, or he may bind the entire ship and cargo for the same object. If, moreover, the vessel is driven into an intermediate port, in a state requiring repairs, and the ship cannot be repaired at all, or without great loss of time, the master may tranship the cargo into another vessel and send it on. If the vessel can be thus repaired, he may wait until the repairs are made; but if the cargo is perishable, and there is no time or chance to consult the proprietor, he may sell a part, or hypothecate the whole, or do the best as in his judgment is for the interest of the whole cargo, or if his own ship becomes disabled, it is the duty of the master to go to a contiguous port, to procure another ship, and if it cannot be found there, he is bound to go no further. Finally, the master must proceed from the port of departure to the port of discharge, in the most ordinary track, without deviation, remain by the cargo, in case of capture, and deliver it to the consignees on the termination of the voyage.

The power of the master in relation to the freight, results from his duties as agent of the owner, and he may receive the freight, retain the goods until the freight is paid, and when arriving at his port of discharge, he may demand his full freight, or if he can procure the money from no other source, he may hypothecate the freight by a bottomry bond. The freight and ship are in fact required to be hypothecated, before the cargo can be touched. Although the master possesses no lien upon the ship for his wages, yet it would seem that he holds such a lien upon the freight; at all events, he has the right to retain it when it once comes into his hands, in order to reimburse himself as a general creditor of the owner.

We now arrive at the consideration of the payment of wages. It is clearly the duty of the mariners to remain by the vessel until the cargo is discharged, it being a part of their contract so to do. When thus discharged, the seamen have a claim to their wages in our own country; and if not paid within ten days after such discharge, they have a right to admiralty process against the vessel. Only one-third of the wages earned can be demanded by the mariner at any port of delivery during the voyage, unless expressly stipulated, and if the ship is lost, or is captured, those wages that were earned up to the last port of delivery, may be recovered by the mariner upon his return home, unless the vessel has earned freight; and unless she has made the entire voyage, wages are not recoverable by the seaman, and inasmuch as they depend upon the safety of the vessel and cargo, and the earning of freight, they cannot be insured. If the vessel is lost on the homeward voyage, and freight was, or might have been earned on the outward voyage, the wages are due at the port of delivery of the outward cargo, "and the port of destination is in general to be deemed a port of delivery for the purpose of wages,

though the vessel may have gone there in ballast." In case of capture, the seamen lose their wages, unless the ship is restored, and in case freight is decreed, even under sentence of condemnation, when their wages are due. In all cases of rescue, recapture and ransom, the wages of mariners are subject to a general average, but in no other cases are they liable to contribution. In case of shipwreck, it would seem that if parts of the ship are saved by the exertions of the seamen, they hold a lien on those parts for some kind and extent of compensation, but this may be considered somewhat in the light of salvage. The general rule is, that freight must be first earned, in order to entitle the seaman to wages.

It would also seem clear, that where the duty of a crew has ceased, and they are discharged from their ship, they may, in some cases, by rescuing the vessel, become salvors; but those cases occur in extraordinary emergencies. When a seaman dies on board ship, wages are usually allowed up to the time of the decease, if the cause of the death occurred, not from his own fault, and while thus shipped; and these wages are recoverable by the representatives of the mariner. In the whale fishery, the representatives of a deceased mariner are entitled to that share of the profits, which the term of his service bore to the whole voyage, according to his contract. If a voyage is broken up, by the fault of the master or owner, full compensation is rendered to the seaman in the nature of damages; so, also, in cases of wrongful discharge, the seaman usually recovers full indemnity in our courts of law.

Sometimes, however, the conduct of the mariner operates a forfeiture of his wages, either in the whole or in part. Sometimes, there is a statute forfeiture, and in that case, where the statute does not cover the offence, the master or owner may fall back upon the original principles of the contract and seek compensation for the damage received, and he may set off the claim for damage against the claim for wages. Total forfeiture of wages, is, however, seldom inflicted, unless the misconduct of the seaman is of an aggravated character, amounting to a breach of the contract, such, for example, as desertion. Embezzlement, negligence, drunkenness and disobedience of orders, usually incurs a forfeiture of less than the entire wages; and, in case of a condonation or a pardon, the mariner is re-established in all his rights, and the forfeiture of his wages is cured by a faithful performance of duty afterwards. In those cases, however, where the offence of the seaman is not aggravated, and punishment has been inflicted at the time, no forfeiture of wages accrues.

We now come to the remedies, possessed by mariners, for the recovery of their wages. The seaman, as has been before intimated, has a lien for his wages, and the master is empowered to sell the vessel, if he cannot otherwise pay the seamen: for it is declared by the *Consolato del Marc*, that the seamen ought to be paid, "*though there remains but a single nail for the payment.*" The nature of the lien held by the seaman upon the vessel, is distinct from a lien as it is understood in reference to other subjects, for it is a special charge upon the ship, and entitled to be paid before any other special charge upon the same thing, and it attaches to the proceeds of the ship, even if converted into money. It is even entitled to be paid before the debts, for which an express hypothecation of the ship may have been given, and can only be extinguished by the destruction of the thing, by payment, or by prescription, or laches, or a renunciation of his rights by the mariner. In the first case, there must be a total destruc-

tion of the thing, for if any part is saved, the original lien adheres to it. The lien, of course, is lost by payment, or in proportion to that amount which is paid. It is also lost, by negligence on the part of the mariner: for example, his permitting a vessel to pass into other hands, when he knew it was thus passing, without making known his claim, would be a waiver of his lien, still, the equitable circumstances of each case must govern. A seaman, also, has a lien upon the freight for the payment of his wages, and this lien can be enforced by seizing it in the hands of the master, or the merchant, before it is paid over: for, as he has his remedy against the last plank of the ship, so, also, he has against the last particle of the freight.

The mariner, moreover, has his remedy against the master, for he can recover his wages of him personally, or he can recover them of the owner or owners of the vessel, or the person who appointed the master and gave him his authority. But in the case of a chartered ship, it would seem that the hirer of the ship or the master whom he appoints, and not the general owner, is responsible for wages; but the last case has not been directly decided.

For those personal injuries, inflicted by the master upon the mariner, such as assaults, batteries or imprisonments, the seaman has his remedy, either by an action of trespass at the common law, or by a libel in the admiralty, in what is technically denominated a cause of damage. So, also, in a wrongful discharge, a cause of action would lie, not only in the special tort committed, but also for the wages upon the original contract of hiring, the wrongful discharge being void.

In order to institute suits in courts of admiralty, it is necessary that the voyage should be on tide waters, and that the service on which suit is brought, should be connected with commerce and navigation. The jurisdiction of those courts in personal suits, embrace claims founded in contract and in wrong, and also those cases where claims, founded in a hypothecary interest of the nature of a lien, are urged. The jurisdiction extends, moreover, to those cases in which shares of fish, taken in the bank and other cod fisheries, and of oil, in the whale fishery, are claimed; and it is a peculiarity of admiralty jurisdiction, that the seamen may unite the claims founded upon their distinct contracts, in one suit, but this only in their demands for wages. The courts of common law, also, take cognizance of mariners contracts, but they are not competent to give the remedy so as to enforce the mariners lien upon the vessel, and they confine their jurisdiction to personal suits against the master or owner, according to the contract made by the employers with the seaman; but in cases of torts that have been committed upon the high seas, and where the form of the action is trespass, or a special action on the case, the common law has concurrent jurisdiction.

We have thus concluded a sketch of the rights and duties of merchant seamen, a body of men that have grown to a vast number, with the rapidly increasing commerce of the country. The very large amount of capital employed in commerce, and the enormous quantity of property afloat upon the ocean, and committed, while thus afloat, to their charge, render their labors and duties those of high responsibility. Exhibiting in their characters, a combination of excellent and evil qualities, they have always been under the especial guardianship and protection of our courts of admiralty, and, as we have already seen, many precautionary measures

have been adopted by the laws for the benefit of those who may be destitute. Nor has philanthropy been wanting, in extending its efforts in their behalf, by establishing for them the means of education and religion. We hope that, as our commerce dots the ocean with its canvass, and crowds our ports, from Maine to Louisiana, with its shipping, the improvement of the seamen will keep pace with its increase; so that those who are made the agents in pouring wealth into the country, may also be the efficient agents in its amelioration.

ART. V.—HISTORY OF BANKS AND BANKING IN ILLINOIS.

BANKS IN ILLINOIS—AT SHAWNEETOWN—AT EDWARDSVILLE—AT CAIRO—RELIEF LAWS—OLD STATE BANK—LATE STATE BANK—ITS HISTORY—PROGRESS AND DECLINE—LEGISLATIVE ACTS RELATIVE THERETO—BANKS GO INTO LIQUIDATION.*

THE cause of heat and cold, in different latitudes, and of rain, hail and snow, in different seasons, says a distinguished writer, with more truth than poetry, are explained by professors of natural science, to our entire satisfaction. The change of climate, the approach of storms and the origin and cause, the course and progress of the wind, are also explained, and the future predicted with some *considerable certainty*. In banking, however, it is otherwise. Like the weather, it is affected by causes which control the latter, and possesses, in an eminent degree, some uncertainties peculiarly its own. While the storm and the tempest rage, and pestilence and famine reign, the fondest hopes that man e'er cherished, are frequently blasted. His property is destroyed by the tempest, or swallowed up by the earthquake; he is exposed alike to the tornado and to the avalanche, the consuming fire, the wasting pestilence, the devouring famine; and an excess of heat or cold, fixes frequently his destiny. In banking, similar contingencies not unfrequently happen; and to these, man's caprice and human depravity, the infidelity of agents and the instability of popular opinion, (banks being the creatures of the latter,) are often to be added. Of the truth of these several positions, historic recollections, especially in Illinois, are decisive.

Men in business, it is said, are like patients in the last stages of the consumption—hoping for a favorable change, but growing worse and worse every day until they expire. If we are to credit reports, said to be authentic—if the defalcations of clerks, agents, cashiers and presidents, with which the public ear has recently been filled, are real—banks, and their officers are worse than formerly, and, like the consumptive patient, in spite of legislation, must shortly expire.

All the banks in Illinois, have ceased to be. Their history is brief, their story is instructive, and the lesson taught will long be remembered.

Under the territorial government, three banks were chartered: one at Shawneetown, one at Edwardsville and one at Cairo. There was also a bank at Kaskaskia. Of the latter, it is needless now to speak; it issued no bills, and of course defrauded no man. We regret our inability to say as much in favor of the others. When these banks were chartered, the

* See Chapter XXIII, Brown's History of Illinois, p. 428. New York, J. Winchester, 1844.

whole population of the state was less than 30,000—a bank for every 10,000 souls. At that rate, Illinois ought now to have fifty banks and upward; and were the losses occasioned by each, to be in the same ratio as before, a part of such losses only would finish the canal.

The bank of Cairo, like the town in which it was located, existed for several years merely in imagination. It was revived in 1836, by speculating men for speculating purposes; flourished, for a short time, with various success, and, at last, like the lamp in its socket, went out of itself and peaceably expired. Its charter was repealed on the 4th of March, 1843.

The banks at Shawneetown and Edwardsville, became deposit banks, and received the public monies arising from the sale of public lands in Illinois, and converted it to their use. The former, accounted in whole or in part; the latter, never. A suit was afterward brought by the United States against the latter, and a judgment for \$54,000 obtained. No part of it, however, has been collected.

The bank at Shawneetown was incorporated on the 28th of December, 1816, by the name and style of "the president, directors and company, of the Bank of Illinois." Its capital, at first, was \$300,000, one-third of which was reserved to be subscribed by the state. It was chartered for twenty years, or until the 1st of January, 1837. It commenced business immediately, and, by the aid of government deposits, acquired an extensive credit, issued and redeemed its bills for several years, and paid specie as late as August, 1821, a considerable time after the Kentucky banks had failed. It finally yielded to the force of circumstances, and settled or compounded with government for its deposits, and remained dormant till the 12th of February, 1835, when an act was passed by the legislature, extending its charter for twenty years after the 1st of January, 1837. The bank was required to pay into the state treasury, for state purposes, one-half of 1 per cent annually, on its capital stock, and in consideration thereof, was exempted from further taxation.

On the 4th of March, 1837, another act was passed, for increasing its capital stock \$1,400,000, all of which was to be subscribed by the state, (the bank consenting thereto;) and in order to raise the necessary funds, state bonds were issued, and the faith of the state was pledged for their payment, with interest, in 1860.

The constitution, adopted on the 26th of August, 1818, declared, that there shall be no other banks or monied institutions in Illinois, but those already provided by law, except a state bank and its branches. It became desirable, therefore, for the legislature (as was then supposed) to receive the Shawneetown bank into close communion, (when its charter was renewed,) to aid the gigantic system of internal improvements about to be commenced.

On the 22d of March, 1819, a bank was incorporated, by the name and style of the "president, directors and company, of the State Bank of Illinois," to continue for twenty-five years, with a capital not exceeding \$4,000,000—a real mammoth, considering our wealth and population—one-half of which was to be subscribed by individuals, and the other half by the state, when "the legislature, thereof, should deem it proper."

No attempts having been made to set this mammoth institution agoing, the charter was repealed at the next session of the legislature, in 1821, and another bank chartered in lieu of it, with a capital of \$500,000, to

be owned by the state, and to be managed and superintended by the legislature.

The act was entitled "an act establishing the State Bank of Illinois." It was a singular specimen of legislation, and deserves, therefore, to be fully considered. The legislature, like others elsewhere preceding it, was actuated apparently by the impression, that paper money could be made to supply every financial want. During the American revolution, when continental money for the first time was issued, to doubt its value or its final redemption, was exceedingly hazardous. It implied a want of patriotism, and many, smarting under the appellation of Tories and speculators, had their stores forcibly broken open, and their goods sold at limited prices, by committees of their neighborhood.

When the army of the revolution was destitute of food and raiment, and almost perishing from want, a patriotic old lady, it is said, exclaimed: "What a shame it is, that Congress should let the poor soldiers suffer, when they have power to make just as much money as they choose!" The paper money of Russia, issued by the emperor, and predicated on taxes—the assignats of France, during the reign of terror and the throes and convulsions of anarchy—the paper money of some of the American states, when colonies of England—the Mississippi scheme of John Law, and the South sea bubble, in England, all of which were "parts of one stupendous whole," ought to have taught our legislature wisdom. The times, however, were perilous. Corn, in 1824, was sold at Cincinnati, for ten cents a bushel; wheat, from twenty-five, down to twelve and a half cents; flour, at Pittsburgh, was, at that time, a dollar per barrel; other produce in the same ratio. A bushel and a half of wheat would buy a pound of coffee; a barrel of flour would buy a pound of tea; and twelve and a half barrels of flour, a yard of superfine cloth. The legislature of Ohio, had passed a law to prevent property from being sold on execution, unless it would bring a certain amount to be fixed by appraisers. Kentucky also adopted "the relief system," and stay laws and replevin acts followed in quick succession. Commonwealth banks, or state loan offices, issued their thousands and their millions; and the creditor had no alternative, but to receive it in payment of his debts, or to await the arrival of better times.

Governor Adair, in his annual message to the legislature of Kentucky, said, that "the paramount law of necessity" had compelled the legislature to adopt measures, against which much could be said; but added, that "a half million of agitated and endangered people had been thus tranquillized, without the infliction of legal justice or the example of violated morality.

In the history of nations, as well as of individuals, there are occasional moments of frenzy, in which every movement baffles all human calculations. The politician, the moralist and the philosopher, are equally surprised. The court of appeals, in Kentucky, immediately declared the relief laws unconstitutional. The people at once divided into two great political parties upon the subject, and the contest was carried on with extraordinary violence. A new court of appeals was established, and the relief laws declared constitutional; and in a few years thereafter, when a sudden and unexpected change came over the scene, preparations were made to defend the records of the new court with powder and ball. In 1826, the

friends of the old court obtained a majority in the legislature, and the whole system was abandoned.

The relief system, it was then conceded, did not effect the object intended—did not produce an equitable adjustment of the affairs of debtor and creditor. In every age of the world, that relation has been one of deep solicitude. In a savage state, it is of but little consequence, because where there is but little wealth, there is no theatre for its display. As soon, however, as man begins to accumulate, and form associations other than what mutual dependence and common danger require, wealth becomes important, and the desire for its accumulation, a prominent feature in our character. Hence, the relation between debtor and creditor, and hence, too, its importance.

It is, however, to be hoped, that so long as a sense of justice shall animate the councils of our nation—so long as our eagle shall maintain its ascendancy in her sky, and the American flag wave in triumph on her shores, no temporary expedients will again be resorted to.

By the act last referred to, a bank was created, to continue for ten years, with a capital of \$500,000, known and distinguished by the name and style of "the president and directors of the State Bank of Illinois." Four branches were established: one in Madison county, at Edwardsville; one at Brownville, in Jackson county; one at Shawneetown, in Gallatin county; and one at the seat of justice, in Edwards county. In addition to the above branches, there was the principal bank also. The president and directors were elected by the Senate and House of Representatives, on a joint ballot; six directors for the principal bank, and five for each of the branches. The cashiers were appointed by a majority of the directors. Its officers were authorized to procure plates, &c., and \$2,000 out of the public treasury were appropriated to defray the expenses. The plates, like those of the Mormon prophet, constituted all of its capital; \$300,000, in bills, were directed to be issued, and distributed in the several districts, in proportion to the population of each. These bills were to be loaned on notes, with mortgage security, and no individual was entitled to a loan for more than \$1,000. The notes issued by the bank, bore an interest of 2 per cent per annum; and the person who effected the loan, paid 6 per cent interest upon his note and mortgage. Its bills were receivable, in payment of taxes, and all debts due to the state, to any county, and to the bank. The notes given for money, were loaned, payable in one year; and on paying 10 per cent of the principal, the maker was entitled to a renewal of his note; and so on, from year to year, until the expiration of the charter, at which time the whole was to be paid. The president of the principal bank, was to have a standing accommodation of \$2,000, on paying 2 per cent therefor, and giving adequate security. The president of each branch, \$1,000, and each director \$750. The cashiers were to receive a salary not exceeding \$800 each.

The twenty-third section of the act, is in these words:—

"Be it further enacted, That all the lands, town lots and other property, belonging to the state, and all the funds, and all the revenue, which now is, or may hereafter become payable to the state, shall be, and the same are hereby pledged for the redemption of the notes and bills, which may be issued by virtue of this act. And the people of the state of Illinois, by their representatives in the general assembly, convened, do hereby pledge themselves, at, or before the expiration of the said ten years, recited in the first section,

and before the final dissolution of this institution, to redeem all such notes and bills as may be presented to them, in gold or silver coins."

The twenty-seventh section of the act, is in these words:—

"Be it further enacted, That no execution shall issue on any judgment, or replevy bond, now in force, or which shall be hereafter rendered, or entered into, until the 1st day of November next. And all executions which shall thereafter issue on judgments, now existing, or that shall be rendered on existing causes of action, or on causes of action which shall accrue before the 1st day of May next, or on contracts entered into before the 1st day of May next, may be replevied for three years from the date of the levy of the execution, unless the plaintiff or the plaintiffs, by him, her, or themselves or agents, shall endorse on the back of the execution, 'That the notes or bills, of the State Bank of Illinois, or of either of its branches, will be received in discharge of the execution.'"

By the thirty-fourth section, certain judgments were required to be entered, "payable in the notes or bills of the State Bank of Illinois;" and by the thirty-fifth section, the school fund, and all specie or land-office money, were required to be paid into the principal bank.

The whole resources of the state, its credit, its capital and its honor, were thus concentrated in this single institution. It had hardly commenced business, before its bills fell to seventy cents on the dollar, and soon thereafter to fifty. They at length fell to twenty-five cents, when they ceased to circulate.

No specie, or none of consequence, was received at the principal bank, or any of its branches.* A currency, composed entirely of irredeemable paper, flooded the country, and expelled the precious metals. The destruction of public and private credit, national torpor, individual ruin, disgraceful legislation and the prostration of morals, followed of course. The above is a mere outline of the calamities that succeeded. Nothing was seen but a boundless expanse of desolation. Wealth impoverished, enterprise checked, the currency depreciated, and all that was indicative of public and private prosperity plunged, apparently, into the vortex of ruin. The farmer had no incentive to industry or exertion. The efforts of the merchant were fruitless, and the energies of the state, to all appearance, were temporarily annihilated. The guilty authors, however, of the mischief, escaped with impunity; while the innocent, the unsuspecting and uncorrupted, were plundered without necessity and without mercy.

This was in a time of peace. It cannot, however, be pretended, that the state bank was the cause of all the misfortunes that followed; it was rather their effect. The difficulties had commenced, previous to its incorporation. The remedy, it is true, was worse than the disease; and instead of healing, it excited the wound, postponed the cure and prolonged the agony.

A special law was afterward passed, to pay the officers of government their salaries in depreciated paper, at its then market price. The members of the legislature received, on one occasion, nine dollars per day for their services. This, of course, became a debt against the state for its whole amount, for the payment of which, its faith and its honor were irrevocably pledged; and when Wiggins made a loan to the state of Illinois, of \$100,000—all of which has since been paid in good faith, and with in-

* At one of the branches, but two dollars in specie were received, both of which were preserved as curiosities.

terest—a considerable portion of the \$100,000 was received from him at par, which had been paid out at fifty cents per dollar. The case is assimilated to one who sells his own notes at 50 per cent discount, and redeems them afterward at par; or, like the market-woman, who, having sold her wares considerably below their cost, and being asked how she made her profits, said, “it was by the amount of her sales.” The state or the individual, who acts thus, must, we apprehend, do a vast deal of business before he will be rich.

The failure of all the banks which had hitherto existed, and the losses which had been sustained, were remembered for some months, and some say, even for years. Emigration, however, began to increase, and property to rise in value. The cupidity of white men saw, and coveted the rich lands on the Upper Mississippi. They had already been ceded to the United States, but the Indians were permitted to enjoy them until they were required for use. A war with Black Hawk, was, therefore, provoked.

Nothing, perhaps, diffuses civilization more rapidly, than the march of armies, (civilized armies, we mean, not barbarous hordes.) Roman civilization kept pace with the flight of her eagles. English civilization has done the same. And in our own country, the establishment of a military post, is a signal for its whole population to advance.

When Black Hawk was making a triumphant tour through the Atlantic cities, in 1833, the sturdy emigrants at the west, unwilling that his broad acres should be converted into a waste, planted them with corn. Others followed in their rear; and when the savage war-whoop yielded to the bugle’s blast, hundreds and thousands of speculators preceded, and followed by an industrious population, resorted to northern Illinois, and the South sea bubble, the Mississippi scheme and the speculations in Maine, were reacted in our very midst.

An English historian once described Chicago, and other towns and villages in its neighborhood; to that description we have nothing to add. Although written of a century and upward since, it would seem as if some modern town had then “sat for her picture.”

In 1835, the reign of speculation commenced, and as bank and speculation went hand in hand, like Adam and Eve as they departed from paradise, the charter of the Shawneetown bank was extended, as we have already remarked, for twenty years; and a new state bank, on the 12th of February, 1835, was incorporated, by the name of the “president, directors and company, of the State Bank of Illinois.” Its capital, at first, consisted of \$1,500,000, with the right to increase it another \$1,000,000; the state was to become a partner, and to have \$100,000 of its stock. On the 4th of March, 1837, an addition of \$2,000,000 was made to its capital, all of which was subscribed by the state. The bank and the state were now firmly united, but whether the bank or the state profited or suffered most by the alliance, it is difficult to determine. Their love for each other, was like the love of Master Slender for Mistress Anne Page, in Shakspeare, “not great in the beginning, and it pleased heaven to decrease it upon better acquaintance, when they had more occasion to know one another.” Its charter was to continue till the 1st of February, 1860, and the bank was required to pay a bonus to the state annually, of half of 1 per cent, in lieu of all taxes and impositions whatever. Previous to this time, on the 16th of January, 1836, a law was passed authorizing

the bank to establish three new branches, in addition to the six originally contemplated. The time for redeeming its paper in specie, without forfeiting its charter, was extended also from ten to fifty days; and as a consideration therefor, the bank was to redeem the loan, commonly called "the Wiggins loan," made by authority of the state, on the 29th of January, 1831, together with the interest which might thereafter accrue on said loan.

By the act of 1837, the fund commissioners were authorized to subscribe the \$2,000,000 of stock, and to issue \$2,000,000 in bonds, for the purpose of raising money to pay for such investment. Difficulties soon began to thicken around the bank. Some of its loans were made to irresponsible persons, esteemed perfectly good when made, but found afterward to be otherwise. The speculating mania in the country having ceased, and many of its debtors becoming insolvent, the bank, of course, participated in their reverses; and, on the 21st of July, 1837, an act was passed to authorize the suspension of specie payments, on condition, however, that the bank should conform to, and comply with, certain terms therein enumerated. These terms were:—

1st. The bank was restricted from making a dividend till it resumed specie payment.

2d It was prohibited from selling, disposing of or paying out, any of its specie, except for change, and in sums under five dollars.

3d. It was to make monthly returns, &c., of its condition.

4th. It was forbidden to increase its circulation beyond the amount of its capital paid in.

5th. It was required to receive and pay out, any funds belonging to the state, free of charge.

6th. Citizens and merchants of the state, on paying 10 per cent on the principal of any notes, were entitled to have them renewed.

7th. The violation of any of the above provisions, exposed the bank to a forfeiture of its charter.

Under the operation of this law, the bank lingered along till the 24th of January, 1843, when, by a legislative act, it went into liquidation.

On the 27th of February, 1841, another act was passed to save the forfeiture of the charter of the Bank of Illinois, at Shawneetown. Certain conditions, however, were imposed; and, among others, that the bank should buy \$200,000 of state bonds, at par, the avails of which, should be applied to the redemption of internal improvement bonds, hypothecated by the fund commissioners, and to the payment of interest on state indebtedness, other than to said bank. On the 3d of March, 1843, the bank at Shawneetown went also into liquidation.*

The question has frequently been asked, whether the protection given by the state to the banks, was of service to the latter? The state had borrowed, and was indebted largely to each, for monies advanced on the faith and credit of the state. The banks were delinquent, and could not, therefore, look danger in the face. They complied with unreasonable terms, probably on that account. The state and the bank were, therefore, in all probability, "a mutual curse" to each other; and the protec-

* This forced loan of \$200,000, which would of course require the issuing of \$200,000 in bills, or the abstraction of so much from its available means, was not calculated to sustain an institution on the verge of bankruptcy.

tion which the former gave the latter, was like that which "vultures give to lambs," covering and devouring them.

On the 24th of January, 1843, an act was passed "to diminish the state debt, and put the state bank into liquidation." The title of the act is somewhat extraordinary. That, however, is of but little consequence if the object be just and reasonable. Some pills, we are told, require gilding to be palatable.

On the 25th of February, 1843, an act was passed to put the Bank of Illinois, (at Shawneetown,) into liquidation. Some of its provisions are also extraordinary.*

After providing for the appointment of three commissioners, the 4th section of the act requires "the said commissioners, or either of them, immediately after they shall have been qualified as aforesaid, to proceed to Shawneetown, and to any other place where the said bank has a branch, and shall then and there take possession of the banking-house of said bank and branches, and also of all the goods and chattels, title-papers, credits, effects, cash and bank bills, belonging to said bank, wheresoever the same may be found."

The 5th section of the act requires the sheriff, &c., "to assist said commissioner or commissioners, and to call to his aid the power of the county, &c.; and if any officer or agent of the bank, or any other person or persons, shall wilfully resist or hinder, or in any wise obstruct the said commissioner or commissioners, or any other person or persons, called to his or their aid, as aforesaid, in performing any of their duties, imposed upon them by the act, he, she or they, shall be deemed guilty of felony, and on conviction thereof, they shall be imprisoned in the penitentiary for a term not exceeding ten years."

The Bank of Illinois, (at Shawneetown,) had been incorporated for several years; had done a large amount of business; had dealt extensively with the state; had performed all the duties which the legislature had required of it; and many individuals had embarked "their little all" in its stock. The bank, however, had yielded to the force of circumstances, and, like others, had suspended specie payments. The legislature, thereupon, without a trial, without a judicial investigation, appointed commissioners, and directed them to proceed immediately to Shawneetown, to take possession of the banking-house and its effects, the notes, the money, and everything belonging to it, and in case its officers resisted said commissioners in doing so, the whole power of the county was to be summoned to their aid; and the officers of the bank, their agents and every other person, even stockholders, whose means of living were all concentrated in its vaults, by this law were declared to be felons, and subjected to imprisonment in the penitentiary, "for a term not exceeding ten years."

The king of England, when the Star Chamber was in all its glory—the autocrat of all the Russias—the turbaned Turk, from whose cimeter the truth of Mohammed's creed had flashed on prostrate nations—would have paused ere they sanctioned an act like this. Fortunately, however, for

* This act, though passed the 25th of February, 1843, was not to be in force until the 3d of March following, and was, therefore, regarded by many, as a kind of "*ruse de guerre*" to bring the bank to terms. Another act being afterward passed, it became inoperative. That circumstance, however, ought not to withdraw our attention from some of its provisions.

the honor and credit of the state, before any action was had in relation to the several matters above referred to, the law was suspended in its operation, and another act passed upon the subject which has since gone quietly into operation.

The 4th article in the amendment of the constitution of the United States, which provides that "the right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated;" and the 7th article in the constitution of this state, declaring "that the people shall be secure in their persons, houses, papers and possessions, from unreasonable searches and seizures;" and the 8th article in said constitution, which declares that "no freeman shall be disseized of his freehold, or in any manner deprived of his property, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land," was thus preserved from violation.

On the 4th of March, 1843, an act was passed "to repeal the charter of the Bank of Cairo." We merely state the fact, because we find it of record, without commenting on the legislative right to repeal charters, that being at present out of our province. The bank, however, was, at the time, useless; and its annihilation, in some way or other, was consequently demanded.

On the 25th of February, 1843, an act was passed "to reduce the public debt \$1,000,000, and to put the Bank of Illinois into liquidation." The title to this act is liable to the same objection as the other. That, however, is of but little importance. Other principles and other considerations, are involved; and however reluctant we are to enter into a discussion of those principles, a regard to historic truth renders it imperative. Witnesses in courts of justice, are required to tell not only "the truth," but "the whole truth;" and sins "of omission," are sometimes equally heinous with those "of commission."

The 7th section of the act "to diminish the state debt, and put the state bank into liquidation," is in these words:—

"Section 7. The State Bank of Illinois shall, within three days after the passage of this act, signify its acceptance of the provisions of this act, by writing, signed by the president and cashier, under the seal of the bank, and to be filed in the office of the secretary of state. And the said bank shall, within five days after the passage of this act, deliver to the governor acting in behalf of the state, an amount of state bonds, scrip, and other evidences of debt, without interest, equal on their face to the sum of \$2,050,000, reported by the bank to be on hand, on the 1st of December, 1842; in which event, the governor is hereby authorized, on the part of the state, to assign to the bank, \$2,050,000 of bank stock, owned by the state in said bank; and all the interest of the state in the assets of the bank, real, personal and mixed, except so much of the assets as the state may be entitled to, as the holder of \$50,000 of the stock of said bank; in which event, also, the directors in said bank, except the commissioner aforesaid, shall be withdrawn."

The 1st section of the act "to reduce the public debt \$1,000,000, and to put the Bank of Illinois into liquidation, is in these words:—

"Section 1. The governor shall be authorized to negotiate a sale of the stock held by the state in the Bank of Illinois, to said bank upon the following terms: That is to say, that the bank shall surrender to the governor, for the use of the state, as an equivalent for said stock, an amount of the liabilities of the state, equal on their face to the sum of \$1,000,000; one-half of said amount to be surrendered as aforesaid, within five days after the passage of this act, and the residue, with 6 per cent interest thereon, from the date of sale within twelve months after the passage hereof."

The 17th section of the act, last aforesaid, is in the words following:—

"Section 17. If the bank shall accept of the foregoing provisions of this act, and shall go into liquidation as aforesaid, then, and in that case, the provisions of an act entitled 'an act to put the Bank of Illinois into liquidation,' shall be suspended for, and during the term of five years, from and after the 4th day of March, 1843, and no longer; and for the purpose of enabling the bank to signify such acceptance, and to go into liquidation as aforesaid, the operations of the provisions of this act, the title of which is above recited, shall be, and the same are hereby suspended for the period of thirty days, from and after the passage hereof."

When the state bank was incorporated, the private stockholders, especially the small ones, paid in cash the whole amount of their stock. When the state became a partner, instead of paying cash for her stock, she gave her bonds for \$3,100,000, and authorized their sale to raise the necessary funds. When the state became a stockholder in the Bank of Illinois, at Shawneetown, she gave her bonds in lieu of money. The Bank of Illinois sold a portion of these bonds when the credit of the state was current, and received their full value. This furnished, of course, a part of her capital. Whether the State Bank of Illinois did the like, we are unadvised. The bonds of the state, being in New York and in London, and "as plenty as blackberries," in both places, and being the sport of brokers, of bankers and of bankrupts, it is difficult to ascertain whether the bonds given up in 1843 to be cancelled, were the same that were issued in 1837. The acts before referred to, require "an amount of state bonds, scrip, or other evidences of debt." If the bonds issued in 1837, were sold at par, as they might have been, and as several millions in fact were; and others purchased at thirty, forty or fifty cents upon the dollar—when the credit of the state had fallen so low—a speculation either was, or might have been made, of \$1,000,000 or \$2,000,000, by the bank or its officers, by individuals or speculators. Whether such was, or was not the fact, we neither assert nor deny, having no evidence to predicate a charge of that nature upon, or to repel it.

In 1843, when the State Bank and the Bank of Illinois went into liquidation, their bills were worth in market about 50 per cent. They had, at that time, a large amount of state bonds, and state indebtedness on hand. They had a large amount of debts, good, bad and indifferent, due them—several thousand acres of land, which they had received in satisfaction of judgments, obtained in favor of the banks against individuals. The State Bank had also a banking-house at Springfield, erected at an expense of some \$50,000, after the bank had suspended payment.

It is not singular, therefore, that public indignation should have been excited against the banks; nor is it strange that such indignation should have reached our legislative halls.*

Some doubts have recently been expressed, whether the cancelling of \$3,050,000 of state bonds, and the transfer of an equal amount of bank stock by legislative acts, was doing justice to the billholders, or to the stockholders who had paid cash in full for their stock, while the state, like other speculating stockholders in eastern cities, had given her bonds or stock notes only; it becomes as imperative upon us as upon a grand juror, to speak "without fear, favor, affection or hope of reward," upon the subject.

That the cancelling of so much of our public debt was desirable, all

* Notwithstanding the apparent severity which characterizes the several acts above mentioned, it is more than probable that the billholders and the stockholders are gainers by their operation. That the speculators are, there can be no doubt.

admit. That it was expedient, if it could be done without a sacrifice of principle, is admitted also. Expediency, however, is a dangerous word, especially in legislative bodies. Its banners, as Burke once said of the French revolutionists, are too frequently stolen from the altar of God, and its allies congregated from the abyss of hell."

The same question was once agitated in a public assembly at Athens, and a decision was thereupon had against the doctrine of expediency. Although the proceedings of an Athenian assembly, we admit, are not of high authority, "its fierce democracy" having been, as we are informed, ruled and governed at times by demagogues, lessons may be learned from its history replete with instruction.

Aristides, who, during his whole life, was exceedingly poor—notwithstanding he held some of the highest offices in the state, and was the friend and companion of Alexander and Pausanias, of Miltiades and Themistocles—by a series of virtuous actions, had acquired the name of "the Just." Themistocles, whose reputation for integrity was not equally apparent, (although Napoleon cites him for a model,) having once said in a public assembly at Athens, "that he had thought of an expedient which would be salutary to the state, but its success would depend upon its being kept a secret," was commanded to submit it to Aristides, and to abide his decision.

Aristides, having heard Themistocle's proposal, returned to the assembly and said, that "nothing could be more advantageous than the project of Themistocles, and at the same time, nothing could be more unjust."

Themistocles was thereupon ordered to abandon his scheme. It is needless, perhaps, to inform our readers, that the project of Themistocles was to burn the fleet, "not the bonds,"* of the confederates, (allies and friends of the republic,) to secure the ascendancy of Athens.

'Tis needless, perhaps, to say more in relation to our bonds. They have been destroyed by the joint action of the bank and the legislature, and our debt has thus been reduced \$3,050,000.†

Had those bonds been the notes of individuals, given for stock in 1837, and lain dormant in the bank till it became insolvent, and had they been given up by the bank to be cancelled on the assignment of so much stock, in an institution acknowledged to be bankrupt, Judge Lynch‡ would have erected his throne on Capitol Square, in Springfield; a thousand jurors, without a summons, would have appeared at his bar; a sentence of condemnation would have been pronounced against the stockholders, and the officers thus offending; and, in less time than was consumed in destroying the Bastille, the banking-house at Springfield, erected at so much expense, would have been levelled with the dust—not one stone would have been left upon another.

The act, however, was a legislative act. The people were interested in the reduction of the debt, and truth and justice were drowned by "mock hosannas to the Son of David."

Men, in their corporate capacity, do that of which, as individuals, they would be ashamed. Lord Coke, in speaking of corporations, said "they had no souls, and therefore could not be excommunicated." There is,

* The state bonds were afterward burned on the capitol square, in Springfield.

† Fifty thousand dollars of stock, is still held by the state.

‡ Judge Lynch's courts have been described too often, to require a definition here, or a description of the "*modus operandi*?" in these courts.

however, a bar, to which legislators are amenable—the bar of public opinion; and, although public opinion may sometimes be wrong, “its sober second thought” is generally right. The legislature of Georgia once burned their records, and the legislature of Illinois may, perhaps, yet profit by their example.

The above remarks are not intended as an apology for the banks. Our experience in banking has been unfortunate. A want of capital, in some instances, and a want of integrity in others, (not but that many excellent men—men of principle and character, have been thus engaged,) have subjected this community to more than they can bear. The bubble has burst, and left nothing but “ruins and demagogues.”

Banks, in many cases, are a public convenience. Bills are preferable, frequently, to specie. The millions, however, which have been lost by fraud and by counterfeiting, will long be remembered. Those losses have seldom happened to the wary. The broker, the speculator and the man who deals in his thousands, are seldom “their victims.” The hard laboring man, the unwary, the credulous and those living remote from towns and cities, are generally the sufferers. The duty of the legislature to protect the latter is imperative.

Whatever, therefore, may be the action of the legislature hereafter, in relation to the State Bank or to banking generally, the protection of those whose circumstances require its aid, will, it is hoped, now and forever, be the objects of its watchful care.*

ART. VI.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

BRIEF NOTICES OF MERCHANTS, DISTINGUISHED IN THE EARLY OR REVOLUTIONARY HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY.

THOMAS C. AMORY.

THOMAS C. AMORY, was a citizen of Boston, and educated for the profession and business of a merchant. His father and others of the name, were merchants of high standing and extensive business; and it is no small praise to say of any one, of whom it may be said with truth, that he was one of the first class of merchants in that place. For several generations, the Boston merchants have been of high and honorable characters. They were industrious, enterprising and honest, in their dealings. They have made money, but most of them made it honestly. Their style of living was not so expensive and extravagant as at present; but there was convenience, comfort and competency, in their dwellings, at the social board and in their general manner of living. Thomas C. Amory, ranked among the most honorable merchants in Boston, forty years ago. He died in 1812, at the age of forty-five. There were, indeed, many others, who were highly esteemed for their probity and fair dealing, and who, at the same time, gradually accumulated large estates. Mr. Amory was particularly beloved by his intimate acquaintances, for his upright and benevolent conduct, and for the manifestation of the social affections.

* The History of Illinois, from its First Discovery and Settlement to the Present Time. By Henry Brown, Counsellor at Law. New York, J. Winchester.

He died in the career of successful business, and surrounded by the endearments of family connections. Jonathan Amory was a younger brother of the former, and had a degree in Harvard College, in 1787. He engaged in mercantile pursuits, and was greatly esteemed for probity and fair dealing, for benevolent and honorable feelings.

HON. JONATHAN BELCHER.

JONATHAN BELCHER was governor of Massachusetts about ten years, from 1730 to 1740. He was a native of Boston, and his father was a citizen of great wealth and respectability, a friend to religion, an honorable merchant and an honorable counsellor. The son received his public education in Harvard College, where he took his first degree in 1699. He was a good scholar, and had quite a literary taste, but gave his attention to trade and commerce, as his father had done, and not without success. Mr. Belcher early visited Europe, and became acquainted with literary and political characters of influence. When he returned to Boston, he resumed his business as a merchant, but took an interest in political affairs; was chosen a representative from Boston, and afterwards had a seat at the council. In 1730, Mr. Belcher succeeded Governor Burnet as chief magistrate of Massachusetts.

Burnet was not very popular, and had a long dispute with the House of Representatives respecting his salary. Belcher had again visited England, and when he found that Burnet would probably not be continued in office, he applied for it through his friends and received the appointment. At first, the people were pleased that a native of the province was to be their governor; but he had a similar dispute with the general court as his predecessors had. Mr. Belcher was also governor of New Hampshire, that province being included in his commission for Massachusetts. He opposed the issue of paper money, in 1733, and that rendered him obnoxious to speculators and bankrupts. At a later period, he was appointed governor of New Jersey, and removed to that colony in the year 1739. He died in 1757, at the age of seventy-six, and was greatly lamented for his many virtues and useful public services. He was esteemed as a pious man, and some thought him an enthusiast. He was a great admirer of Whitfield.

HON. THOMAS CUSHING.

THOMAS CUSHING received his first degree in Harvard College, 1744. He soon after engaged in trade, and was a respectable merchant in Boston, then a place of commerce with foreign countries, and the largest seaport in New England. In the year 1761, he was chosen a member of the general court, in Massachusetts, for Boston, and elected speaker the first year he held a seat in the assembly. His father, who was also a very respectable inhabitant of Boston, occupied that station twenty-seven years before. Mr. Cushing, the son, was one of the representatives of Boston for fourteen years, till the revolution, and most of the time presided in the house. He had much influence with his fellow-citizens, and with the members of the general court; and yet he did not rank with Otis, or S. or J. Adams, in political knowledge or in public debate. The people had great confidence in his patriotism, at the critical period of 1764-'74, for he was decided and judicious. The ministerial party of those years, did not indeed fear him so much as they did the other patriots

just mentioned. In 1774, he was one of the five delegates from Massachusetts, chosen to attend a Continental Congress to consult on measures for the preservation of the rights and liberties of the British North American colonies, then assailed by an arbitrary administration in England. He was also returned as a member of that august assembly, for several succeeding years. When the Constitution of Massachusetts was adopted, in 1780, Mr. Cushing was chosen lieutenant-governor; and re-elected in 1781 and 1782. His station entitled him to respect, and he was esteemed as a sincere patriot and an honest merchant. Like most of the patriots of that period, he was a public professor of religion; and his life corresponded to his faith and profession. He died in 1788, at the age of sixty-five.

HON. TRISTRAM DALTON.

TRISTRAM DALTON was a citizen of Newburyport, and born in that vicinity. He prepared for college under Master Moody, the able teacher in Byfield Academy, and was graduated at Harvard University, in 1755. He studied law, but early engaged in commercial pursuits. In the political dispute with England, he ranked among the whigs of the day, and was one of the leading patriots in the county of Essex, though there were many choice spirits in that part of the province. He was often elected to the House of Representatives and the Senate of Massachusetts, and was also a member of the Continental Congress and of the Senate of the United States. In all these important stations, he had the character of an able and faithful public servant. He was also distinguished for his courtesy and polished manners, and he paid more attention to dress than great men usually do; but, perhaps, more attention was bestowed on dress and manners, sixty and seventy years ago, than at present. It seems to have been expected of men of wealth and in public office. The opinion of Addison probably then prevailed, that neatness was nearly allied to the moral virtues. Mr. Dalton had the reputation of a good general scholar, and was an original member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He lived to an advanced age, and was one of the principal officers in the custom-house, in Boston, for several years near the close of his life.

HON. THOMAS DAVIS.

THOMAS DAVIS was a native of Plymouth, Massachusetts, and was born about the year 1758. His father was concerned in trade and fishery, in that place, and though he gave one son—Hon. Judge Davis, of Boston—a collegiate education, Thomas had no better means of acquiring knowledge in his youth, than a common school, provided for children of all classes of the people. This defect, however, was in a great degree remedied, by personal application and study. With much propriety, he may be said, therefore, to be a self-taught man. Diligence, industry and sobriety, were displayed in his conduct in very early life. The business of his father, probably led him to give his attention to trade and navigation, and to subjects connected with commerce. He soon became distinguished for his information on mercantile affairs, and as an accountant; and discovered all that accuracy, good judgment and method, which are important in all departments of business, and especially in commercial pursuits. He became concerned in navigation and in the fisheries, and trade to the

West Indies, soon after his years were such as to render it proper he should engage in business for himself. It soon appeared that he was accumulating property, slowly, perhaps, but surely; and this is to be chiefly attributed to regular habits, to industry and diligent attention to the business in which he had engaged. And who can justly expect to accumulate property or to prosper in business, without diligence, method and persevering efforts? At an earlier age than is usual, he was chosen a representative to the general court, for his native town; and after a few years, he held a seat in the Senate, to which he was elected by his fellow-citizens, who had witnessed in his course so much good judgment, uprightness and fidelity, as to deserve their entire regard and confidence.

Mr. Davis was chosen a member of the Senate, from Plymouth county, at several annual elections, and was then appointed president of an insurance company in Boston—the second company of that character in that ancient town. In this station, he was continued till his death, in 1805, at the age of forty-eight. Few men in the community, during the last generation, were so much esteemed and confided in, as Mr. Davis. He was accurate, judicious and faithful, in the various stations which he occupied. The interests of others might be entrusted to him with perfect assurance of his care and fidelity; and his conduct, both in public and private, furnish an example which may be safely followed, and fully prove that, by diligence, sobriety and integrity, a young man may justly expect a competency, if not great wealth, and will certainly secure the esteem and respect of his fellow men.

ART. VII.—THE NATURE AND EFFECT OF PROTECTIVE TARIFFS.

THE report of a bill in Congress, at the last session, to modify the tariff law of 1842, offers a timely opportunity to present some inquiries in regard to the nature of protective tariffs, and their effect upon the industry in the development of the resources of the country.

Although not among those who heartily approved of the tariff of 1842, we had some faint hopes that, subject as we might be to some inconvenience and oppression thereby, our revived business prosperity would not so soon fall into the disarrangement ever caused by a change of policy in government. Such changes are particularly to be lamented on account of their moral influence. Small and sure gains, make industrious, frugal and persevering men. Interfere with these, and you find the weak oppressed and trodden down, while the strong grasp with reckless avidity, utterly regardless of consequences, at so much more as will be required to ensure to them a competency, if not wealth. It should be, then, the strong and earnest voice of all good citizens, that some policy be adopted by government that may have as much permanence as is consistent with the transitory character of human laws.

It is a serious question, whether the most popular theories of politicians and the restrictive systems that have at various times been adopted, are, or can be, in their nature, of this stable quality? It is no easy matter to introduce artificial regulations of industry and commerce, so that all parties, all trades and every section of our widely-diversified country, can all and equally, be the recipients of justice. It is not our purpose, at this

time, to show the inconsistency of partizan doctrines, or to point out the partiality of all attempts at governmental protection. There is a deeper and firmer ground to be sought for, would we find a sure basis upon which we may build a sound policy.

We look for this, only, in the natural economy of the earth. Every clime affords its peculiar contribution, to be used and exchanged for its own and the general good. In this beautiful diversity of products, we learn a lesson of deep significance which the acquaintance with artificial theories cannot efface. There is involved a condition, to supply and receive, that cannot be disregarded. It is this which binds the whole race of mankind into one great brotherhood, and renders a rapid commercial interchange of commodities requisite for the well being of the whole. Interfere with this harmony of nature's order, which provides for all nations the highest prosperity, and for individuals all the necessaries, the comforts and the luxuries of the world, and you introduce confusion in national intercourse, and inequality into the conditions of men. The simple truths of political economy are lost sight of, and the wildest vagaries, and the most inexplicable enigmas are offered in their place; while a practical refutation is going on about us, where human beings starve in the very midst of plenty.

We have no desire to indulge in Utopian theories, but we cannot rid ourselves of the impressive lesson taught by the providence of the Creator himself, nor enough deplore the short-sighted wisdom which would set this aside and substitute in its place imaginary expediency. We are in a mood even to deny, theoretically, that any government has a legitimate right to interfere with the industry of its subjects. Protect our persons, protect our rights, but, if you please, leave us to manage our own professions, and molest us not in the pursuit of honest wealth. It is, moreover, rank fallacy, to suppose that any artificial regulation of production and commerce can be of any permanent duration. Forced or encouraged out of their natural and congenial channels, endless legislating is required to sustain and regulate them. The restrictive policy has ever grown out of the difficulties and misfortunes of other nations—has been caused by short supplies, wars, revolutions and the colonization of distant states. Looking to the present condition of the world, and considering the great philanthropic projects for the civilization and amelioration of the human race, there seems little wisdom in continuing to calculate upon the frequent occurrence of scourging calamities.

The calculations, in regard to the future welfare of nations, are to be founded upon far other premises. The world is at peace. The ideas are becoming prevalent, that there is sufficient room for all men and all nations; that man may be used for other purpose than to be butchered; that he has powers that may be successfully used for his own welfare and happiness, and for the aid of his fellow man; that the welfare of the race depends much upon the well being of each and every individual. England may hold on to her odious corn laws, with increased tenacity, and retain her authority over her rebellious subjects at the point of the bayonet; China may draw closer about her that impenetrable robe of exclusiveness, and pass gradually out of existence through the stagnation that is penetrating to her very core; Spain may continue that protective policy that is fast driving all enterprise and progress from her shores; even the Sandwich Islanders might impose the duty of prohibition upon all for-

eign imports, and smack, with increased zest, their rancid whale-oil, hew on with their stone hatchets, poke the earth with their rude wooden utensils, cover their nakedness with uncouth woven mats, and stride about their little domains with the pride of conscious independence; yet we prophecy that all such restrictions of commerce are ultimately destined to be abolished, and when viewed in the history of the past, will have the appearance of lingering remnants of barbarisms that are now fast disappearing from the earth before the march of improvement of the race.

As we have before stated, we stand in fear of all sudden changes in the policy of government. Many evils can be more easily tolerated than the direful disarrangement that invariably follows the hasty adoption of new, or the abolition of old systems. Yet we cannot blind ourselves to that liberal policy which is certain to be brought about by the increase of general intelligence, the world at peace, the progress of the arts, and the more frequent communication of all nations. This state is to be prepared for, and of all governments now existing, it accords with admirable propriety with the spirit of ours to take the lead. Is there really so much to fear? If we are not utterly mistaken in our notions of this matter, that nation which soonest founds its policy upon the natural economy of the world, will be the first to reap its rich fruits. In the nearest approach to this great practical truth, we have some idea of what may be. It is the voice of all history and all experience, that trade has been most prosperous where it has been most free. When repressed by restrictions, we have seen it avoid the most fertile and best situated countries, and flee to some barren coast that boasted not of custom-houses and prohibitions. An eloquent writer has said—"It was free trade that reared the splendors of Tyre upon a miserable islet; that raised the glories of Palmyra in the midst of a sandy desert; that built the marble palaces and churches of Venice upon shoals which scarcely rise above the surface of the Adriatic; that fixed wealth and letters upon the frowning rocks of Amalfi; and that so overflowed the marshes of Holland with riches and inhabitants, that the latter built their fine cities upon piles, and encroached upon the domain of the ocean."

No principle of political economy, in fact, is more undoubtedly true than this,—that the resources of a nation will be most rapidly developed, and its prosperity built upon the surest basis, by the absence of all interference of government with its commerce and industry.

It is true that the wealth and prosperity of a nation is hereafter to depend very much upon its natural facilities. An extensive and rich territory, deep and safe harbors, lakes, navigable rivers, and great water privileges, these are indispensable. Yet the race is no longer to the Alexanders, the Neros and the Napoleons. It is to the wise, industrious and skillful. Who can discover a new compost to enrich the field, who can produce a new species of fruit or grain, who can bring the greatest power of nature to bear most economically upon human industry, who can invent the cunningest machine, who can in any way contribute to the well being and progress of the race? These, each and all, are to be the distinguished men, and these are they who will reap the richest rewards.

In this light what chance has our country in the great competition of nations? Favored by a broad and rich territory, stretching far over different climes, and possessing a fertility unequalled, it is no difficult matter to produce bread stuffs sufficient to feed the whole human race. Our

shores are laved by the waters of every ocean. Our navigable rivers flow deep and wide from the most inland parts. Our mountains pour down the foaming stream for the manufacturers use. Nothing seems wanting in the natural resources of our favored land. And the character of our population, too, is that best fitted to turn all facilities to use. Active, enterprising at home, known and represented abroad. Where is the land that has not been seen and trodden upon by Americans, where the sea that has not been navigated by American ships? Can we be told of any chance for discovery or speculation, that multitudes of our countrymen are not ready at once to enter upon? All things are to be proved, if all do not afford a profit. Our national character may be derided by foreign tourists, who have not the capacity to comprehend it, merely because we are ignorant of, or undervalue those artificial customs which grow out of, inequality or indolence. There is something more to be done here than to learn conventional life. We have no oppressive systems to be revolutionized, nor long festering corruptions to be eradicated. No national debt hanging like an incubus upon our prosperity. Here is real and true freedom and equality. Here is everything to encourage enterprise in individuals, every requisite to found national success.

Are we to be reminded that the rapid development of our national resources is to be attributed to the very policy that we deprecate?—that the manufactories could not have been put in operation without that protection under which they have grown so strong? It is not our purpose at this time to disapprove of all the influences from this source, although we have some doubts as to the general benefit upon the country. Certain it is, that some of the most serious changes and commercial distresses can be traced to the partial and oppressive effect of the protective system. A few years since, so large a duty was levied on cotton and woollen manufactured goods, that it amounted nearly to prohibition. The immediate consequence was, much capital and industry was transferred from its accustomed channels to manufacturing. There followed a host of attendant evils on this change. The deserting of other employments, the change of habits, the oppression of those classes whose pockets furnished the means of paying for this protection of monopolies. Yankee Jonathan's wits soon taught him that this manufacturing was a game that more men could play at, and vigorously fell to. Competition reduced the price of labor and the profits of the work, and high prices lessened the consumption and demand. The manufacturer was completely hedged in by tariffs, still was he in a sinking condition, and cried out lustily for more protection. He could not stand up under the system, he could not exist without it, and failed. This was not caused by any foreign competition; it was no more than the legitimate effect of the restrictive system carried out.

We hesitate not to say that we recognise somewhat of the same features in the present state of manufacturing. The tariff of 1842 gave the business a new impulse. Capitalists moved at first with great caution, but all philosophical prudence is easily dissipated by the reports of eight, ten, and twelve per cent semi-annual dividends. Old companies make more money than they dare divide. New companies are going into operation, whose capitals are counted by millions. The demand for goods, of every description, after the past period of poverty, has created a brisk trade. It remains to be proved whether this protected industry can be

managed in such a manner as not prove its own ruin, and the cause of much trouble to all who are in any way connected with it.

We are not prepared, under the existing artificial regulations of manufactures and commerce, to declare openly, at this time, for free trade. We fear all sudden changes: but we contend for that liberalizing spirit, which looks forward to the future—to an unrestricted commercial intercourse throughout the world. As far as is consistent with the safety of our industry, let our country take the lead. Deliver us from all high protective tariffs. Favor no particular industry at the expense of other equally necessary callings. Let such duties as are levied upon foreign imports, bear equally upon all kinds of industry, and every section of the country. Encourage all commerce that will facilitate an acquaintance with all nations, that will enable us to dispose of that immense surplus of produce and manufactures that is yearly increasing in our land. Let all change in the restrictive policy be downward, in so gradual a manner as may not cause distress, but perseveringly in this direction, until, as a nation, we can rely entirely upon our great resources, and our skill and industry in their improvement, for the welfare of our people. H. J. B.

ART. VIII.—THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

SIR—The receipt of FORTY-THREE communications, ineffectually attempting to solve my "Question for Accountants," in your last number, has placed me in possession of the absolute existence of facts, with which I have long since been but partially impressed, namely, that the generality of our *public teachers* of book-keeping, and, as a legitimate consequence, our *private accountants*,* are lamentably deficient in a *thorough* knowledge of the theoretical laws and practical adjustment of complex accounts, more particularly those connected with partnerships and their dissolutions, &c.

This opinion is either founded in fact, or it is not. If the affirmative position be tenable, what unenviable feelings must it generate in the minds of such merchants as have noticed the article in question, particularly when they reflect, not on the *probable*, but *certain* blunderings with which their accounts must be occasionally bolstered up, in order to present plausible but erroneous *closures*, fraught with nothing more commendable than uncertain or unmeaning efforts at adjustment. If the negative, how ridiculous the assumptions of the censor.

Let none of your *generous* readers (amongst whom, I rejoice to hope, many of my courteous respondents are to be found) do me the injustice to suppose, that my object in arraigning their pretensions is to elevate my own at the expense of theirs. No, sir; my only motives at the outset were, and since have been, to ascertain, if possible, the true state of the

* The remark of our correspondent, relative to teachers and private accountants, we are disposed to consider as altogether too severe. A student of Mr. Jones, an accomplished teacher of book-keeping and penmanship, has, we may state on the authority of Mr. Jones, solved the question of Mr. Wright, but declines submitting it to that gentleman. The solution of B. Carrick or E. L. H., or both, will appear in the October number of this Magazine.—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

particulars conceived, and of the facts now elicited, under the anxious hope, that erroneous conceptions, in matters so vitally important, may, by a laudable industry, supported by a praiseworthy vigilance, be speedily applied by all concerned, as the first and only proper step toward the attainment of a remedy for so pernicious an evil.

As, in all human probability, some, or any of your or my correspondents may feel disposed to controvert the justness of my opinion, whether in the premises or conclusion, I shall merely observe, that I know not a more effectual mode of testing the merits of the discrepancies, thus necessarily at issue, than that of submitting, under the *real* signature of the party so conceiving, a practical representation of his *accounts*, (apart from a *tale of his method*,) when, as a matter of course, I shall follow the precedent by exhibiting my objections on the one hand, my proofs on the other. To the result of this proposal, I am intuitively instructed to believe that your politeness will be no barrier.

To recognise, individually, the tenor of the several communications received by me on this occasion, and to comment on each, would be to trespass unnecessarily, as well as ungenerously on your valuable pages. To one gentleman, who signs himself "An Unemployed Book-keeper," my disposition must, however, undergo an exception, if for no other reason, than to acknowledge his *brief* communication, embracing *only nine* closely written and ruled pages of most appropriately selected *foolscap*, all occupied in the adjustment of what he properly denominates my "simple question!" Having, with *elaborate* skill, and with a subtile ingenuity which would have added another plume to the brow of Aristarchus himself, pointed out to my dull perception the difference between *closeing* (as he writes it) accounts and *adjusting* them; and having, with all the assumed gravity of a modern Stagyrite, shown me the "important bearing" which my indiscriminate use of these words must have on the solution of the question submitted, he winds up, by *sagaciously* informing me, that I can entertain "no hope of *closeing* my books or *having* them closed for me, till I (or somebody for me) *sells* off the merchandise on my hands, and that, too, at such a rate, as to cover my losses hitherto incurred!"

Of "An Unemployed Book-keeper," I am induced to say that he occupies his *proper position*. His *left-handed* knowledge of his once assumed profession, entitles him to no other; inasmuch, as his *debts* occasionally become his *credits*, and *vice versa*. His *wit* and his *orthography* are well chosen companions, and pronounce him at once a rare genius. The one hobbles on worn out crutches, the other totters on crazy stilts. His prudence is, however, commendable—it has taught him to conceal his proper name.

How strange that no *two* of your correspondents agree, either in details or aggregate results! The doubting, or laudably inquisitive, can be satisfied of this fact, on application to the subscriber at 219 Mulberry-street.

With great respect, I am sir, your obliged and obedient servant,

J. W. WRIGHT.

P. S. I am much gratified to be able to say that, since the above was written, I have received a correct solution to the question from a gentleman who signs himself B. Carrick, of 45 Front-street. Should no true adjustment of the question be presented by any other of your readers before the 20th proximo, I shall submit the accounts, correctly balanced, both as to order and result.

The goods going up the canal, are partly for consumption in this state, and partly to go to other states, and exhibit (the figures) the improved state of business in Boston and New York, on western account. There is no means of ascertaining what proportion of goods paying tolls at Albany and Troy, comes from Boston, over the railroad. The proportion is, however, large, and constantly increasing. This western trade increased, in 1843, to a considerable extent over the previous year; and the direction which it took, is seen in the following table:—

	1842. Tons.	1843. Tons.	Decrease.	Incr'se.
To western states,.....	20,525	32,798	12,273
Left on the Erie canal,.....	39,400	41,237	1,837
" Champlain,.....	10,395	13,152	2,757
" Oswego,.....	9,245	11,607	2,362
" Cayuga,.....	6,760	6,310	450
" Chemung,.....	1,210	1,347	187
" Crooked Lake,.....	1,137	1,496	359
" Chenango,.....	3,082	2,883	199
" Genesee Valley,.....	2,459	2,856	397
Total tons,.....	94,213	113,686	19,473
Tolls,.....	\$453,568	\$566,144	\$112,576

The increase was largest in the exports to other states, it appears; and those exports formed 30 per cent of the whole amount of merchandise shipped at tide-water. The increase in the tolls at that point are, it appears, this year, \$82,627; being 15 per cent of the whole tolls of last year, levied on merchandise ascending the canal. It is much to be feared that the arrangements for supplying the western states with goods, across the lakes, are prepared in a manner and on a scale which will greatly interfere with the tolls of the canal, as well as with the federal revenues, and the profits of the manufacturers.

The advancing prices of goods and merchandise are now such as to tempt, in a great degree, the cupidity of the smuggler; whose illicit trade is eminently favored by the facilities offered along the whole lake frontier. One of the most efficient means of checking the growth of that trade, is to extend the means of internal communication, and thereby of lessening the cost of transportation to market. It appears, from the above statements, that over \$226,400 of tolls were derived from goods passing through the canal, from Boston and New York, for winter consumption, in 1843. The amount derived from tolls on western produce, coming through the canals to market, is \$604,319; and during the present year, the revenues derivable from the same sources will be near \$1,000,000—equal, at 6 per cent, to the interest on a capital employed in the transmission of the goods to market, of \$16,600,000. This large revenue is derived from a business of less than eight months in the year. It is highly probable that the construction of the Erie railroad would open a local business fully equal to the whole expenses of the road, and obtain a large proportion of the western trade, in addition to considerable revenues derivable from passengers. The road can be completed by a subscription of little over \$6,000,000, and be to the mines of Pennsylvania a far more efficient protector from foreign minerals than ever a tariff, with a fluctuating currency, can be; inasmuch as it will reduce the cost of transportation to market in a degree that will defy foreign competition.

The increase of business creates slightly an enhancement in the value of money. On the other hand, the individual and government deposits in the vaults of the New York banks, are still increasing. Since January, 1843, the upward tendency of the bank movement has been very apparent. In July, 1842, exchanges were very low, and in favor of New York, from all points of the world. An influx of specie then commenced, which resulted in an addition of \$23,000,000 to that in the banks, and in circulation. This long continued accumulation of the precious metals soon stimulated the institutions into a dis-

position to push their loans; and every successive quarterly return, from that period, shows several millions added to the outstanding debts due the banks. The following table gives the leading features of the institutions, up to August 1st:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.							
Jan'y,	Capital.	Loans.	Stocks.	Specie.	Bal. due bks.	Circul'n.	Deposits.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1831,	27,555,264	57,689,704	395,809	2,657,503	4,310,936	17,820,408	19,119,338
1836,	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	6,224,646	3,892,314	21,127,927	20,088,685
1837,	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	6,557,020	2,630,569	24,198,000	30,883,179
1838,	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	4,139,732	2,025,292	12,460,652	15,221,860
1839,	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	9,355,495	1,222,158	19,373,149	18,370,044
1840,	52,028,781	67,057,067	5,464,120	7,000,529	1,031,419	14,220,304	20,051,234
1841,	51,630,280	69,230,130	6,738,000	6,536,240	1,302,000	18,456,230	20,678,279
1842,	44,310,000	56,380,073	10,291,239	5,329,857	883,099	13,949,504	17,063,774
1843,	43,950,137	52,348,467	12,446,087	8,477,076	7,771,112	12,031,871	19,100,415
August,							
1843,	43,019,577	58,593,081	12,320,987	14,091,779	10,611,940	14,520,843	24,679,230
November,							
1843,	43,369,152	61,534,129	11,665,311	11,502,789	4,941,076	17,213,101	27,387,160
February,							
1844,	43,649,887	65,418,762	11,052,458	10,086,542	5,343,347	16,335,401	29,026,415
May,							
1844,	43,462,311	70,161,068	10,362,330	9,455,161	6,650,315	18,365,031	30,742,289
August,							
1844,	43,443,005	71,623,929	10,648,211	10,191,974	7,743,594	18,091,364	28,757,112

During the eighteen months which have elapsed since January, 1843, it appears that the banks have increased their loans by the important sum of \$20,000,000, or half their aggregate capital. As most of the paper so discounted matures within a circle of sixty days, the increase represents a sum equal to \$120,000,000, added to the business paper of the state. The demand for money, to meet bank debts, is now \$70,000,000 every sixty days, where it was but \$52,348,467 in Jan., 1843—being an increase of 40 per cent in the demand; yet the value of money has not been materially enhanced, because the demand has been freely met by the increasing liabilities of the institutions. The increase in bank loans, from 1831, when the expansion commenced, to 1837, when the explosion took place, was \$22,000,000, only; but in that period an important amount was added to the bank capital, and the nature of the loans was very different from those now created. The proportion of accommodation paper, or that not represented by actual transactions, was larger, and the borrowers were of small capital, and depended on renewals for a continuation of their movements. The flexibility of the bank credits was by this means greatly lessened; and the means of the banks being more beyond their control, they had not the ability to realize with sufficient rapidity to meet the demands upon them. In 1839, the banks had again extended their loans, but the nature of the paper had undergone a change; so that, notwithstanding a powerful combination in that year was formed to compel a suspension, by promptly enforcing large payments in specie, it proved entirely powerless. The institutions could promptly meet all demands, simply by ceasing to loan. The sound paper regularly maturing, afforded ample funds to meet their own obligations, as fast as presented. Very much of the same nature are the present assets of the banks; and while that is the case, the mere fact that the amount of loans is larger, does not argue that the position is less safe. No matter how great, soever, is the amount to be paid in a given time, if the sum to be received is equal to it. There is no extra demand for money, nor will its price be affected. When, however, the institutions, having payments to make, are deprived, through the necessity of renewal, of a part of that which should be returning to them, through the maturity of notes, they become immediately embarrassed—a part of the active capital is taken out of the circle of operations, and the value of money becomes advanced, which only enhances the evil, until explosion follows. The discount of long

renewable paper is a prolific source and instrument of overtrading; by which we understand, in a general sense, the purchase of more goods for the consumption of a country, or part of a country, on credit, than its annual productions and exports will pay for. When that is the case, bank means are brought into requisition to supply the place of products for export, and specie goes abroad. This year, the imports have been large; but they have been paid for mostly in cash, at the time of purchase, or sent here on consignment, to be paid for when sold. In the latter case, the time of the remittance is at the option of the agent; and that moment is chosen when it can be done at the least expense, or when bills are cheapest.

The tendency of the banking movement has been rapidly expanding in the last eighteen months. If we take a table of the immediate liabilities and cash means, for several periods, this result will be the more apparent, as follows:—

IMMEDIATE MEANS AND LIABILITIES OF THE BANKS OF NEW YORK.

	<i>Liabilities.</i>				
	May, 1833.	Jan., 1843.	Nov., 1843.	May, 1844.	Aug., 1844.
Net circulation, ..	\$5,632,818	\$7,143,884	\$12,952,055	\$14,987,410	\$15,349,205
Deposits,	18,411,860	19,100,415	27,389,160	30,742,289	28,757,122
Canal fund,	1,010,210	1,495,888	1,157,203	1,506,167	1,210,794
Banks,	5,372,635	4,941,514	6,650,803	7,744,118
U. States,	1,645,320	2,238,083	3,674,171
Total,	\$25,054,888	\$33,112,822	\$48,085,252	\$56,124,752	\$56,735,410
	<i>Means.</i>				
	May, 1833.	Jan., 1843.	Nov., 1843.	May, 1844.	Aug., 1844.
Specie,	\$9,355,495	\$8,477,076	\$11,502,789	\$9,455,161	\$10,191,974
Cash funds,	960,037	2,273,131	3,102,856	5,999,952	4,916,862
Total,	\$10,315,532	\$10,750,207	\$14,605,645	\$15,455,113	\$15,108,836
Total liabilities, ..	25,054,888	33,112,822	48,085,252	56,124,752	56,735,410
Excess liabilities, ..	\$14,739,356	\$22,362,615	\$33,479,607	\$40,689,639	\$41,626,574
Loans,	57,903,043	52,348,467	61,514,129	70,061,068	71,643,929

In January, 1843, it is apparent that the banks, owing to the general stagnation of business, and indisposition to borrow, were in a stronger position than even at the time of their resumption, in May, 1833, in the face of the combined southern suspension. Since January, 1843, the amount of specie has been large—increasingly so—with exchanges from all points in favor of New York; and the movements of the banks show a corresponding increase of their liabilities, which, in eighteen months, have increased 80 per cent, nearly, or \$23,000,000; while the cash means have increased only \$5,000,000. The loans of the institutions have shown a corresponding extension, and are now at a point higher than they have reached since the suspension of specie payments, in 1837. The disposition of banks to multiply, and extend their operations, under the new law of this state, is very perceptible. The August report of the comptroller shows an increase of seven new institutions, as compared with the May report. These are mostly individual concerns, of small capital, designed to put afloat a part of the surplus capital of the owners, to use in their individual business. At the great west and south, the contraction in banking has been very great; and the business of sections, for its facilities, leans more upon the banks of New York, giving greater scope to their movements, with more comparative safety.

The state of the currency throughout the Union, as a great whole, is in a most unusually contracted state. Of the banks in eighteen states, reported nearest to January, 1844, the results were as follows:—

Circulation,	\$50,328,587	Nett circulation,	\$39,491,363
Capital,	148,096,486	Specie,	43,899,678
Notes on hand,	10,737,224	Loans,	193,936,751

Of the amount of notes on hand, a portion were checks and cash items. The nett circulation was about \$41,000,000, or near \$3,000,000 less than the specie on hand—a most extraordinary position of affairs, and eminently indicative of the blight which, in the past few years, has overtaken paper credits.

In the present state of affairs throughout the commercial world, it would seem that specie, at all the great commercial centres, is a mere drug. The quantities lying idle in bank at Paris, London, and New York, at latest dates, were as follows:—

Silver in Bank of France, July 1st,.....	\$48,750,000
Gold “ “ England, “	74,880,000
“ “ in banks of New York, August,.....	9,100,000
Total, three cities,.....	\$132,730,000

This is an enormous amount, lying absolutely dead and useless; and the quantity of gold is apparently on the increase. Recent advices from London state that the supply of gold from the Russian mines has reached the enormous sum of £4,000,000 annually, and that Russia has begun to “scatter her gold” through Europe. The mines of the Ural mountains are very prolific, and yield a rich ore, worked at small expense, by the serf labor of Siberia. Of this gold, \$1,500,000 has been, within a few months, received in London and Germany, in exchange for goods and iron for the great railroad now in process of construction, from St. Petersburg to Odessa. The continuance of so large a supply of gold, for any length of time, must have the effect of reducing the relative value of gold to silver; and, under our present laws, of inducing an import of the former with an export of the latter metal. The old legal proportion of gold to silver, was fifteen to one; and, practically, that was found too low. It restrained the circulation of gold; and, by causing it to be at a premium, induced its export to Europe, where it speedily assumed other shapes. Finally, in 1834, the legal value of gold was increased 6 68-100 per cent, by reducing the weight and fineness of the gold contained in an eagle. The effect of this law has been to induce the import of gold, and the export of silver. Should the actual value of gold now become reduced in the market, through the effect of increased supply, the drain of silver may be inconveniently large. It was known, formerly, that the discovery of the mines of America diminished the value of both gold and silver, throughout the world. This fact was made evident in a general rise of prices, diminishing the value of a money rent. The mines of Russia may now have the same effect on gold; in its relation to silver, and diminish the value of rents and annuities, and lighten taxation in those countries where gold alone is the legal tender, and increase them in those where silver is the standard.

The currency of Russia has, for a long time, consisted mostly of paper roubles, first issued by the great Catharine; and subsequently, from increase of quantity, they became miserably depreciated—more particularly when the invasion of Napoleon compelled the government to have recourse to that means of raising supplies. This medium of circulation, in that despotic country, although very oppressive to the people, has been far too useful to the government to be dispensed with. However, on the 1st of January, 1840, a ukase was issued, ordering that, thereafter, all accounts should be kept in silver roubles, and quotations for foreign exchange to be made in that medium. This produced a demand for silver, which has had the effect generally of raising its value, throughout the world—an effect which is heightened by the increased supply of gold from the Russian mountains. The accumulation of that metal at all the great commercial centres, as indicated above, is very remarkable; more particularly so, when we consider that the circulation of paper credits is far less than it has been at some former periods, when more gold apparently was in circulation, or at least not accumulated in bank vaults.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

CASES IN THE UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, (NEW YORK,) BEFORE
JUDGE BETTS.*

RIGHTS AND REMEDIES OF FOREIGNERS.

John A. Barry's case, April 24, 1844.—This case, because it presents points of interest in respect to the rights and remedies of foreigners, in the United States tribunals, is reported, although no questions of commercial law are involved in it. John A. Barry is a native and resident of Nova Scotia. He intermarried with the daughter of an American citizen in this city, and after his marriage resided some time in Nova Scotia with his wife, and then moved to this city with his family, and went into mercantile business here. Two children were born of the marriage here, during that period. At the expiration of two or three years, he broke up business in this city, and removed to Nova Scotia; but his wife being unwilling to return with him, it was afterwards arranged between them that she should remain in her father's family for a time fixed between the husband and wife; keeping the infant daughter with her to that time, and the son so long as his father consented to his remaining. Shortly after, he took his son with him to Nova Scotia; and, at the expiration of the time limited, demanded his daughter, and also required his wife to return to her home. The daughter was not given up, and difficulties between him and his wife became so serious, that she refused to live with him. A writ of habeas corpus was sued out by him before the chancellor, against his wife and her father, demanding the restoration of the child. The chancellor decided that the child should remain with its mother, it being an infant, and requiring her nurture, &c. Another writ was shortly after sued out before a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, and he decided against the restoration of the child. An appeal was taken to the Supreme Court of the state, from this last decision; and it was by that court reversed, upon the ground that the father was by law entitled to the child. This judgment was removed to the Court of Errors, and was there reversed. Another writ of habeas corpus was taken out before a judge of the Superior Court; and he, following the decision of the chancellor, refused to award the custody of the child to the father. This latter decision was, by the father, appealed to the Supreme Court, and reversed there, upon the doctrine declared in the previous decision. This latter judgment was removed to the Court of Errors, and was by that court again reversed. At the last term of the Supreme Court of the United States, the father applied to that court for a habeas corpus. The petition was denied, because the court has no original jurisdiction over the subject. A petition was then filed by him in the Circuit Court of this circuit, praying the writ against his wife and her mother, with whom she is residing since the death of her father; and that the custody of the child, (still under seven years of age,) be awarded to him. The case was argued at great length by the petitioner; and in rendering its decision, the court discussed all the main points presented in the petition and argument, and decided:—That the habeas corpus prayed for is a prerogative writ, emanating from the common law, by which the government, as *parens patrie*, takes to itself the guardianship of infant children, and exercises an authority in their disposal paramount to that of their natural parents. That no such common law prerogative is vested in the government of the United States, or any of its courts. That the true interpretation of the act of Congress of September 24, 1789, section 14, which authorizes the courts of the United States to issue writs of habeas corpus, limits them to cases of commitment or

* Reported expressly for the Merchants' Magazine.

detention, under color or claim of authority from the United States; or if not, and the writ may issue in this court in behalf of any party entitled to sue here, yet that, in respect to matters touching the domestic relations and institutions of the state, the decisions of the highest tribunal of the state supply the law of the subject, and that same law must be administered in the United States Court. That, by the law of the state so declared, the alien father of an infant daughter, under seven years of age, is not entitled, by any fixed legal right, to have the custody of such child awarded him, on habeas corpus against its mother. The habeas corpus was accordingly denied. It is understood the petitioner intends removing the case to the Supreme Court of the United States, at its next term.

VIOLATION OF PATENT.

Stephens vs. D. & W. Felt, May 11, 1844.—This was an action for the violation of the plaintiff's patent for the manufacture of blue writing ink, or a blue liquid for staining paper, &c. The cause occupied the court from April 21 to May 11, numerous witnesses having been examined on both sides—on the part of the defendants, to prove a discovery and use of the article prior to the patent; and on the part of the plaintiff, to counteract that evidence, and prove he was the first and original discoverer, and that the defendants had wilfully violated his right, and to a great extent. The discovery consisted in the application of oxalic acid as a solvent to Prussian blue, by which a combination of the two substances is effected, and the blue is held suspended after being dissolved. It was proved that the discovery is highly valuable, and that the article is in extensive use in this country, as a writing fluid and a dye; and evidence was given tending to prove that the defendants had simulated the plaintiff's label, and had applied these simulated labels to bottles, or had used bottles before filled and labelled by the plaintiff; and, in vending their manufacture, had represented it to be that of the plaintiff. The judge instructed the jury that—

1. The true construction of this patent is, that it secures an improvement in the use in combination of oxalates, or oxalic acid, and Prussian blue, in the manner pointed out in the specification, for the purpose of manufacturing a coloring matter, and rendering the color more applicable to dyeing, staining, and writing.
2. The patent is valid to this end, if the proofs show that the plaintiff is the first and original inventor of the composition claimed, and that it is useful for the purposes described in the patent.
3. A claim in the patent for more than plaintiff was the first and original discoverer and inventor of, will not avoid it as to that which is new; and if his process in the separate preparation of either of the ingredients named in his patent was before known and used, yet, if his combination of them is new, and the result produced is new and useful, his patent is valid.
4. A mere abstract discovery or knowledge, by others, of the preparation of Prussian blue, as described in the patent, or the properties and effect of oxalic acid, in combination with Prussian blue, unless such knowledge was in actual practical use prior to plaintiff's discovery, will not defeat his patent.
5. Any prior discovery, and practical use of the subject patented, however small and limited such use was, will defeat the patent, unless such use was secret, and confined to the knowledge of the discoverer alone.
6. The patent will be defeated if the proofs show that the coloring fluid claimed thereby has been before produced by the same combination of ingredients, whether the product was intended for or applied to the same purpose and use as that contemplated by plaintiff, or not; or whether or not the product was less complete and perfect, in all respects, than that of the patentee.
7. If the plaintiff's patent is sustained, the use of labels by the defendants, counterfeiting his, affords no ground for damages in this action. The jury must give damages only to cover the injury sustained by the plaintiff by means of the manufacture and sale, by defendants, of coloring matter, made in violation of his patent. The jury found a verdict for plaintiff, \$2,000 damages.

ACTION TO RECOVER DUTIES EXACTED AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Wetzlar vs. Swartwout, May 27, 1844.—This was an action to recover back \$2,787 45, and interest, duties exacted at the custom-house, on the importation, by the plaintiff, of various invoices of brown linens. The collector charged duties on the goods as *colored*, and the plaintiff insisted that they were *unbleached* linens, and duty free. These goods were imported between the 31st of December, 1833, and the 30th of June, 1842; and evidence was offered to show that the dark brown of the goods arose from the manner of rotting the flax. For the United States, it was claimed that the goods had been dyed or stained. The judge charged the jury that, by the act of July 14, 1832, section 2, article 24, a duty of 15 per cent was imposed on bleached and unbleached linen; but, by the fourth section of the act of March 2, 1833, these articles are made free, if imported after the 31st of December, 1833, and prior to the 30th of June, 1842; and that the provisions of the latter law would apply to these goods, if they are of the quality therein specified. The testimony of the plaintiff is offered in a double point of view. First, to prove that the goods are the color of the rotted flax; and second, that if any coloring matter is mingled with the water in which the flax is rotted, the fact is unknown to the trade, and that the article is always bought and sold in market, and known in commerce as unbleached linen. If either fact is proved to the satisfaction of the jury, the plaintiff is entitled to a verdict; for the goods would not be liable to duty, though subjected to a staining process, if their known denomination in commerce was still that of unbleached linen. Verdict for plaintiff, \$3,217 99.

ACTION TO RECOVER DUTIES PAID ON IMPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE.

Paton, et al., vs. Curtis, May 30, 1844.—This was an action to recover back \$255 88, duties paid on the importation of "worsted window lines, and mohair cord." The lines were charged with the woollen duty, as being a manufacture from wool; and the cord was also charged the like duty, as bindings. The plaintiff protested against the payment of duties, claiming that the lines and cords were free, as non-enumerated articles. Testimony was offered on both sides—the plaintiff proving that the lines were worsted, sometimes entirely; sometimes woven hollow, and enclosing a small wire, or small twine of linen, tow, cotton, or hemp; and that they are bought and sold, and known in commerce as worsted articles. That the cord was also wholly worsted, though known in trade by the name of mohair cord. The defendant insisted—1. That the lines were woollen, and subject to woollen duty; or, 2. That the lines, having inner strings of linen or cotton, are in part composed of cotton or linen, and are thus subject to the duty on these articles. 3. That the mohair is known as bindings, and subject to a specific duty as such. The court charged the jury that the tariff acts were to be understood as making a distinction between wool and worsted; so that a duty imposed on woollen goods would not, under that name, apply to worsted goods. If the jury are satisfied, upon the evidence, that the lines were manufactured from worsted, the plaintiffs are entitled to enter them free of duty, there being no description of dutiable articles in the act applicable to them. Nor does the fact, if proved, that they are woven round a linen or cotton string, bring them within the duties laid on those articles; first, because the duty is imposed by the tariff laws on linen as an entire article, and not where it forms only a part of the manufactured thing; and secondly, the interior string, or filling, if of cotton, does not, upon the evidence, appear to constitute a component part of the lines, in the sense of the duty acts; for each part is a complete and perfect fabric in itself, and is in no way changed or varied by being used in union with the other. But, thirdly, this point is no way material; for, in the present case, there is no proof that any cotton string was found in these lines. So, as to the mohair cord, if that is its known appellation in commerce, it is free of duty, although it be made of wool, or be used as bindings; for, when the name of articles known and established in trade is not specified in the tariff acts, they are regarded as non-enumerated. The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs.

BOTTOMRY BONDS—THE BRIG BRIDGETON.

A bottomry bond was given by the master of the brig, at Pensacola, to secure the sum of \$2,179 18-100, stated in the bond to have been advanced by the obligee, for the necessities of the vessel. The master also, at the same time, drew a bill on the owner, for the same amount. It was proved that the vessel required some repairs and supplies, but the evidence on the part of the claimant showed that not over \$350 was required for these purposes. There was no proof, other than the recital in the bond, that the master had no other means for obtaining the money, or that the full sum advanced by the obligee was necessary for the outfit of the brig. It was contended for the libellant that the bond was prima facie evidence of the necessities of the brig, and of the inability of the master to procure funds otherwise, and was sufficient to entitle him to a decree for the amount. It was further urged, that the evidence produced by the claimant established the existence of a necessity on the part of the vessel, and that the lender was not bound to examine into the extent of that necessity, but rightfully confided in the representations of the master. Judge Betts decided that when parties came in, and contested the validity of a bottomry, the bond, of itself, was not sufficient evidence upon which to found a decree. If the old rule is not to be regarded in full force—that the bottomry holder must prove a necessity equal to the sum loaned, and that the master had no other resources than a bottomry loan to supply it—still, the doctrine has never been established, that the mere assertions of the master, oral or written, were sufficient to support a bottomry. All the mischiefs which the law has sedulously endeavored to restrain or counteract, as likely to result from the exercise of this extraordinary power by ship-masters, would be tolerated and encouraged if a bottomry bond was to be enforced in admiralty on the mere proof of its execution. The judge further remarked, that upon this ground he had refused to decree in behalf of the bond at the first hearing; but, upon the suggestion of the libellant, that he was taken by surprise, and wished an opportunity to furnish additional evidence, the cause was kept open for further proofs. That the new proofs offered by the libellant removed the difficulty only in part, as he proved no necessity for a bottomry, nor was it indeed shown, by his own clerks, that money to the amount secured by the bond had been advanced, or what, if any, maritime interest was reserved. The judge stated that he considered the true rule to be, that a bottomry holder must prove, by evidence extraneous of the bond, the existence of a necessity on the part of the vessel; and at least by bills and vouchers, if no higher evidence, the sums advanced by him; and, if the maritime interest is included in the face of the bond, and not designated by it, the rate of premium or interest exacted. That, in this case, there is no proof of the amount of marine interest reserved, the bond being taken for a gross sum; and that, upon all the circumstances in proof, the bond ought to operate only as a hypothecation of the vessel, for the amount actually required for her repair and outfit; and, as the testimony showed that the sum did not exceed \$350, the decree was granted for that amount, with interest and costs, and the bond pronounced against as to the residue.

ACTION ON A CHARTER-PARTY.

Burgess vs. De Zaldo.—This was an action on a charter-party of the brig *Virginia*, from New York to Cuba and back, executed between the libellant (the owner) and the defendant. The agreed affreightment was \$1,100, one-half of which was to be regarded earned and due on the discharge of the outward cargo, or the other half to be paid on the discharge of the homeward cargo. It was stipulated that the defendant should advance to the captain, at Havana, "sufficient for his sundry expenses" at that port. The outward cargo was safely delivered, and the defendant's correspondent at Havana paid the captain, from time to time, as he required money, the whole \$550 due; \$288 of which was applied to the necessities of the brig, \$155 25 remitted the libellant, and \$106 75 retained, and appropriated by the master. On the return of the vessel to this port, the owner set-

tled with the master for the voyage, and took his promissory note for \$200, due from him to the vessel, and discharged him from his command. The defendant shipped, for return cargo, a large quantity of cigars, (4,500,) and three quarter boxes of which were crushed and destroyed on the homeward voyage, by occasion of perils of the sea; and all the residue, with the exception of one quarter box, were safely delivered to the defendant. On the discharge of the vessel, one quarter box was found without mark, and was deposited in the public store; and the delivery was short of the contents of the bill of lading one quarter box, of a specified mark. The libellant claimed the recovery of the whole stipulated freight, less the \$288 expended on the brig at Havana, and \$155 25 paid him; and contended that the further payments to the captain were without authority, and the loss must be borne by the defendant. The defendant insisted that the charter contract had not been fulfilled, as the libellant failed to deliver at this port the cargo shipped on board at Havana; and that he was not bound to pay any freight without an entire delivery of the cargo. If the decision of the court should be against him on the general defence, he claimed credits for \$550, paid at Havana; also, for the entry charges of the vessel, on her return to this port, and for \$25 cash, paid the master here, on his return; and for the value of the cigars destroyed on the voyage, and the quarter box not delivered. The court (Judge Betts) decided that the charterer was not an insurer of the cargo, and that his contract was performed on his part by the delivery of the cargo in the condition it was on arrival here, as defendant was bound to bear all losses from perils of the sea; and that the transportation of the number of quarter boxes of cigars called for by the bill of lading satisfied the bill of lading, though one box was without the designated mark; it not appearing that any other person claimed it, or had laden on board similar boxes. The court farther decided, that the captain was appointed by the charter-party to receive at Havana money necessary for his expenses; and, independent of that, he was, by the law maritime, the agent of the owner in foreign ports, if no other one was specially appointed or designated, in respect to the reparations and supply of the vessel; and that the defendant rightfully paid to the master, on his requisition, at Havana, the sums claimed as credits, and was not answerable for their proper application by the master. The court farther decided, that if the payment of \$25 to the master, in this port, by the defendant, was without authority, yet, as it had been in part applied in payment of the mate's wages, and as the libellant had not disavowed the payment to the defendant, and had subsequently settled with the master, and taken his obligation for the money, he had ratified the payment, and the defendant was entitled to credit therefor. Decree for the libellant, (after such allowances,) for \$502 03-100, and costs.

LOAN—HYPOTHECATED STOCK.

In the Circuit Court, (New York).—Farmers' Loan and Trust Company *vs.* Samuel B. Jewett. The company brings action to recover \$8,000, being the amount of a loan in 1838, for which Mr. Jewett hypothecated 120 shares Southern Life Insurance and Trust Company stock, worth at the time \$12,000. The loan, it is said, was on certificates of deposit, at one year's date, at 5 per centum interest, which were below par in the market. The obligation on which the suit is brought, is a promise to pay any deficiency after the sale of the stock at the broker's board, and to pay 7 per cent for the loan. This, it is contended, is usury. Also, that the company never offered the stock for sale, but let it run down in their hands. The non-sale was shown to be in accordance with the written request of Mr. J., who wished that it might not be sold, as it would be sacrificed. The stock, when first pledged, paid regular dividends. Verdict for plaintiff, \$10,109; subject to the opinion of the Supreme Court.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.
COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, communicating the annual statements of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for the last quarter of the calendar year, 1842, and the first two quarters of the year 1843, has been printed. It will be noticed that the present report embraces only nine months. This occurs in consequence of an act passed August 26, 1842, changing the fiscal or commercial year, so that it will hereafter commence on the 1st day of July, and end on the 30th day of June of the succeeding year, instead of commencing on the 1st day of October, and ending on the 30th of September. The next annual report will, therefore, be complete for one year, (i. e., from July, 1843, to June 30th, 1844.) That report will be laid before Congress at its next session, and we see no reason why it should not be printed immediately thereafter; at least before the commencement of 1845. The importance of prompt information touching our commerce and navigation, is not properly appreciated, either by the department or the government printer. In Great Britain, the annual reports corresponding with our own, are made up to the 5th of January in each year, laid before Parliament, and published before the expiration of a week. The British government publish, in addition, quarterly reports. We receive, from our correspondent in Paris, the "Tableau General Du Commerce de la France," although a quarto volume, much larger than our treasurer's report, for the same year, long before the United States annual report reaches us from Washington. The acknowledged industry and efficiency of Mr. Spencer led us to hope that this delay would have been remedied; and we have no doubt that such would have been the case, had he continued in the department. We trust, however, that Mr. Bibb, the new secretary, will take the matter in hand; as the chief value of these documents, to the great commercial interests of the country, consists in their prompt and early publication.

In accordance with our custom, we now proceed to lay before our readers a summary and tabular view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, as derived from the annual report before us. From this report, it appears that the exports during the nine months ending 30th June, 1843, have amounted to \$84,346,480; of which \$77,793,783 were of domestic, and \$6,552,697 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, \$60,107,819 were exported in American vessels, and \$17,685,964 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$4,945,817 were exported in American vessels, and \$1,606,880 in foreign vessels. The imports during the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843, have amounted to \$64,753,799; of which there were imported in American vessels \$49,971,875, and in foreign vessels \$14,781,924. 1,143,523 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,268,083 tons cleared, from the ports of the United States. 534,752 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 523,949 tons cleared, during the same period.

The registered tonnage, as collected in the register's office, is stated at...	1,009,305.01
The enrolled and licensed tonnage, at.....	1,076,155.59
And fishing vessels, at.....	73,142.33

Tons,.....	2,158,602.93
------------	--------------

Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to.....	2,085,460.60
There were employed in the whale fishery,	153,374.86

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States, during the nine months ending on the 30th June, 1843, viz:—

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

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Summary statement of the value of the Exports, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the nine months commencing on the 1st day of October, 1842, and ending on the 30th day of June, 1843.

THE SEA.

Fisheries—	
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,.....	\$381,175
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,).....	116,042
Whale and other fish oil,.....	803,774
Spermaceti oil,.....	310,768
Whalebone,.....	257,481
Spermaceti candles,.....	243,308
	<hr/>
	\$2,112,548

THE FOREST.

Skins and furs,.....	453,869	
Ginseng,.....	193,870	
Product of wood—		
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,.....	\$1,026,179	
Other lumber,.....	211,111	
Masts and spars,.....	19,669	
Oak bark, and other dye,.....	39,538	
All manufactures of wood,.....	391,312	
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,	475,357	
Ashes, pot and pearl,.....	541,004	
	<hr/>	
	2,704,170	
		<hr/>
		3,351,909

AGRICULTURE.

Product of animals—		
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,.....	1,092,949	
Butter and cheese,.....	508,968	
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,.....	2,120,020	
Horses and mules,.....	212,696	
Sheep,.....	29,061	
	<hr/>	
		3,963,694
Vegetable food—		
Wheat,.....	264,109	
Flour,.....	3,763,073	
Indian corn,.....	281,749	
Indian meal,.....	454,166	
Rye meal,.....	65,631	
Rye, oats, and other small grain, and pulse,.	108,640	
Biscuit, or ship bread,.....	312,232	
Potatoes,.....	47,757	
Apples,.....	32,825	
Rice,.....	1,625,726	
	<hr/>	
		6,955,908
		<hr/>
		10,919,602
Tobacco,.....		4,650,979
Cotton,.....		49,119,806
All other agricultural products—		
Flax-seed,.....	49,406	
Hops,.....	123,745	
Brown sugar,.....	3,435	
Indigo,.....	198	
	<hr/>	
		176,784

MANUFACTURES.

Soap, and tallow candles,.....	407,105
Leather, boots and shoes,.....	115,355
Household furniture,.....	197,982
Coaches, and other carriages,.....	48,036
Hats,.....	39,843
Saddlery,.....	17,653
Wax,.....	137,532
Spirits from grain,.....	21,395

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Beer, ale, porter, and cider,		44,064	
Snuff and tobacco,		278,319	
Lead,		492,765	
Linseed oil, and spirits of turpentine,		29,434	
Cordage,		22,198	
Iron—pig, bar, and nail,		120,923	
“ castings,		41,189	
“ all manufactures of,		370,581	
Spirits from molasses,		117,537	
Sugar, refined,		47,345	
Chocolate,		2,032	
Gunpowder,		47,088	
Copper and brass,		79,234	
Medicinal drugs,		108,438	
			2,786,048
Cotton piece goods—			
Printed and colored,	358,415		
White,	2,575,049		
Twist, yarn, and thread,	57,312		
All other manufactures of,	232,774		
		3,223,550	
Flax and hemp—bags, and all manufactures of,		326	
Wearing apparel,		28,845	
Combs and buttons,		23,227	
Brushes,		4,467	
Billiard-tables and apparatus,		415	
Umbrellas and parasols,		4,654	
Leather and morocco skins, not sold per lb.,...		26,782	
Printing-presses and type,		20,530	
Musical instruments,		6,684	
Books and maps,		23,643	
Paper and stationery,		51,391	
Paints and varnish,		28,994	
Vinegar,		7,555	
Earthen and stone-ware,		2,907	
Manufactures of glass,		25,348	
“ tin,		5,026	
“ pewter and lead,		7,121	
“ marble and stone,		8,545	
“ gold and silver, and gold leaf, ..		1,905	
Gold and silver coin,		107,429	
Artificial flowers and jewelry,		3,769	
Molasses,		1,317	
Trunks,		2,072	
Bricks and lime,		3,883	
Domestic salt,		10,262	
			3,630,647
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,		470,261	
Other articles,		575,199	
			1,045,460
Total,			\$77,793,783

VALUE OF THE DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER.

The following table exhibits the value of the goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported from the United States; distinguishing the value in American and foreign vessels, and also the value exported to each foreign country, and to the dominions of each power, for the three quarters ending 30th of June, 1843:—

Whither Exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To each Power.
Russia,.....	\$293,677	\$16,190	\$309,867	\$309,867
Prussia,.....	120,702	101,337	222,039	222,039
Sweden and Norway,.....	3,420	14,961	18,381	49,609
Swedish West Indies,.....	31,228	31,228	
Denmark,.....	8,635	66,022	74,657	746,815
Danish West Indies,.....	667,199	4,959	672,158	
Hanse Towns,.....	827,788	2,071,160	2,898,948	2,898,948
Holland,.....	1,536,933	161,394	1,698,327	2,018,183
Dutch East Indies,.....	90,239	90,239	
Dutch West Indies,.....	204,937	204,937	
Dutch Guiana,.....	24,680	24,680	
Belgium,.....	1,322,238	351,986	1,674,224	1,674,224
England,.....	26,716,513	10,432,582	37,149,095	45,428,811
Scotland,.....	1,082,729	1,280,625	2,363,354	
Ireland,.....	184,287	24,215	208,502	
Gibraltar,.....	175,125	43,126	218,251	
Malta,.....	6,436	6,436	
British East Indies,.....	237,576	237,576	
Cape of Good Hope,.....	30,055	30,055	
Australia,.....	57,805	57,805	
Honduras,.....	92,278	92,278	
British Guiana,.....	68,915	47,230	116,145	
British West Indies,.....	1,958,854	373,455	2,332,309	
British American colonies,.....	1,393,557	1,223,448	2,617,005	
France on the Atlantic,.....	9,561,732	822,846	10,384,578	
France on the Mediterranean,...	1,186,294	1,186,294	
French West Indies,.....	280,491	1,337	281,828	
French Guiana,.....	45,374	45,374	
Miquelon, and French fisheries,.	5,215	5,215	
Bourbon, &c.,.....	29,245	29,245	
French African ports,.....	1,532	1,532	
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	48,602	1,498	50,100	
Teneriffe, and Canaries,.....	7,099	7,099	
Manilla, and Philippine islands,.	57,743	57,743	
Cuba,.....	2,710,020	216,902	2,926,922	
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	437,876	4,158	442,034	
Portugal,.....	56,843	2,253	59,096	
Madeira,.....	37,649	37,649	
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	8,569	8,569	
Cape de Verd islands,.....	52,227	52,227	
Italy,.....	485,765	55,735	541,500	
Sardinia,.....	108,091	108,091	
Sicily,.....	6,085	26,473	32,558	
Trieste, and Austrian ports,.....	341,885	118,355	460,240	
Turkey, Levant, &c.,.....	108,465	108,465	
Hayti,.....	596,270	14,526	610,796	
Texas,.....	99,949	5,291	105,240	
Mexico,.....	833,388	74,357	907,745	
Central Republic of America,...	34,469	34,469	
New Granada,.....	72,009	72,009	
Venezuela,.....	443,153	39,924	483,077	
Brazil,.....	1,514,710	53,874	1,568,584	
Cisplatine Republic,.....	219,576	219,576	
Argentine Republic,.....	168,083	168,083	
Chili,.....	869,883	869,883	
China,.....	1,755,393	1,755,393	
West Indies, generally,.....	93,065	2,347	95,412	
South America, generally,.....	98,713	98,713	
Europe, generally,.....	36,066	36,066	
Asia, generally,.....	253,861	253,861	
Africa, generally,.....	249,194	31,866	281,060	
South Seas, and Pacific ocean,...	58,961	58,961	
Total,.....	\$60,107,819	\$17,685,964	\$77,793,783	\$77,793,783

The total value of our domestic exports, for the nine months, amounts, as will be seen by the footing of the foregoing table, to \$77,793,783. Of this amount, \$45,428,811 were exported to England, and her dominions in the four quarters of the globe; leaving only \$32,364,972 of exports for all other countries and dominions.

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER.

The following table exhibits the value of goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, for the nine months commencing 1st of October, 1842, and ending 30th of June, 1843; distinguishing the total value to each foreign country, and to the dominions of each power, and also the value in American and in foreign vessels:—

Value of Merchandise exported to each Country.

Whither Exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	To dom. of each Power.
Russia,.....	\$72,785	\$4,141	\$76,926	\$76,926
Prussia,.....	6,261	12,069	18,330	18,330
Sweden and Norway,.....	13,628	2,179	15,807	18,153
Swedish West Indies,.....	2,346	2,346	
Denmark,.....	6,510	6,510	81,050
Danish West Indies,.....	73,920	620	74,540	
Hanse Towns,.....	89,833	303,151	392,984	392,984
Holland,.....	226,535	11,605	238,140	352,701
Dutch East Indies,.....	103,742	103,742	
Dutch West Indies,.....	10,819	10,819	296,485
Belgium,.....	260,815	35,670	296,485	
England,.....	198,796	907,268	1,106,064	1,473,024
Scotland,.....	2,000	12,657	14,657	
Ireland,.....	1,180	1,180	538,387
Gibraltar,.....	37,847	350	38,197	
Malta,.....	11,471	11,471	469,796
British East Indies,.....	140,136	140,136	
Australia,.....	11,232	11,232	10,993
Honduras,.....	16,304	16,304	
British Guiana,.....	695	695	186,721
British West Indies,.....	5,405	20,266	25,671	
British American colonies,.....	55,173	52,244	107,417	118,938
France on the Atlantic,.....	307,846	133,732	441,578	
France on the Mediterranean,....	83,701	83,701	68,014
French West Indies,.....	13,108	13,108	
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	240	240	42,574
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,....	3,925	3,925	
Manilla, and Philippine islands,.	54,435	54,435	37,713
Cuba,.....	399,754	121	399,875	
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	11,321	11,321	564,192
Portugal,.....	1,538	1,538	
Madeira,.....	3,856	3,856	18,497
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	621	621	
Cape de Verd islands,.....	4,978	4,978	84,944
Italy,.....	169,412	17,309	186,721	
Sicily,.....	51,871	51,871	118,938
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,	98,923	20,015	118,938	
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt,.....	68,014	68,014	37,713
Hayti,.....	41,308	1,266	42,574	
Texas,.....	36,885	828	37,713	564,192
Mexico,.....	555,787	8,405	564,192	
Central Republic of America,....	18,497	18,497	84,944
New Granada,.....	89,944	84,944	
Venezuela,.....	96,656	3,769	100,425	223,704
Brazil,.....	218,765	4,939	223,704	

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE U. STATES, etc.—Continued.

Whither exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	To each Power.
Cisplaine Republic,.....	\$75,549	\$75,549	\$75,549
Argentine Republic,.....	94,026	94,026	94,026
Chili,.....	179,580	179,580	179,580
China,.....	663,565	663,565	663,565
West Indies, generally,.....	125	125	125
Europe, generally,.....	140	140	140
Asia, generally,.....	267,296	267,296	267,296
Africa, generally,.....	21,659	530	22,189	22,189
South Seas, &c.,.....	18,805	18,805	18,805
Total,.....	\$4,945,817	\$1,606,880	\$6,552,697	\$6,552,697
Entitled to drawback,.....	\$1,914,993	\$1,027,731	\$2,942,724	\$2,942,724
Not entitled to drawback,.....	3,030,824	579,149	3,609,973	3,609,973

Of the foregoing value of foreign exports from the United States, \$3,096,125 were admitted into the United States free of duty; \$1,889,257 paid duties ad valorem, and \$1,567,315 paid specific duties; of which \$2,942,724 were entitled to drawback, and \$3,609,975 were not entitled to drawback. Of the total amount of foreign goods exported, (\$6,552,697,) \$1,473,024 were sent to England, and her dominions throughout the world.

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER.

In the following table of the goods, wares, and merchandise of foreign countries, imported into the United States, for the nine months ending 30th of June, 1843, the value in American and foreign vessels is distinguished, as also the value to the dominions of each foreign power:—

Whence imported.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	From dom. of each Power.
Russia,.....	\$742,803	\$731,603	\$11,200	\$742,803
Sweden and Norway,.....	227,356	48,900	178,456	278,674
Swedish West Indies,.....	51,318	51,318	
Danish West Indies,.....	485,285	470,834	14,451	485,285
Hanse Towns,.....	920,865	12,234	908,631	920,865
Holland,.....	430,823	359,355	71,468	815,451
Dutch East Indies,.....	121,524	121,524	
Dutch West Indies,.....	230,571	223,771	6,800	
Dutch Guiana,.....	32,533	32,533	171,695
Belgium,.....	171,695	114,782	56,913	
England,.....	26,141,118	14,637,732	11,503,386	28,978,582
Scotland,.....	128,846	44,064	84,782	
Ireland,.....	43,535	43,535	
Gibraltar,.....	23,915	16,809	7,106	
Malta,.....	27	27	
British East Indies,.....	689,777	689,777	
Cape of Good Hope,.....	31,192	31,192	
Australia,.....	44,910	44,910	
Honduras,.....	136,688	136,688	
British Guiana,.....	43,042	34,216	8,826	
British West Indies,.....	837,836	538,798	299,038	
British American colonies,.....	857,696	541,969	315,727	
France on the Atlantic,.....	7,050,537	6,756,403	294,134	7,836,137
France on the Mediterranean,....	609,149	546,746	62,403	
French West Indies,.....	135,921	112,040	23,881	
French Guiana,.....	40,411	40,411	
Miquelon, and French fisheries,..	119	119	6,980,504
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	49,029	48,474	555	
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	415,069	343,880	71,189	
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,....	15,058	8,963	6,075	
Manilla, and Philippine islands, ..	409,290	409,290	
Cuba,.....	5,015,933	4,883,185	132,748	
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	1,076,125	1,072,199	3,926	

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER—Continued.

Whence imported.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	From each Power.
Portugal,.....	\$46,713	\$40,243	\$6,470	71,369
Madeira,.....	7,160	7,160	
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	12,783	12,783	
Cape de Verd islands,.....	4,713	4,713	
Italy,.....	394,564	377,797	16,767	394,564
Sicily,.....	169,664	155,856	13,808	169,664
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,	72,957	72,957	72,957
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt,.....	182,854	182,854	182,854
Hayti,.....	898,447	885,998	12,449	898,447
Texas,.....	445,399	444,463	936	445,399
Mexico,.....	2,782,406	2,621,052	161,354	2,782,406
Central Republic of America,....	132,167	132,167	132,167
New Granada,.....	115,733	115,133	600	115,733
Venezuela,.....	1,191,280	1,082,880	108,400	1,191,280
Brazil,.....	3,947,658	3,644,723	302,935	3,947,658
Cisplatine Republic,.....	121,753	121,753	121,753
Argentine Republic,.....	793,488	766,333	27,155	793,488
Chili,.....	857,556	857,556	857,556
Peru,.....	135,563	135,563	135,563
China,.....	4,385,566	4,385,566	4,385,566
Asia, generally,.....	445,637	445,637	445,637
Africa,.....	353,274	327,454	25,820	353,274
South Seas, and Pacific ocean,...	45,845	45,845	45,845
Uncertain places,.....	623	623	623
Total,.....	\$64,753,799	\$49,971,875	\$14,781,924	\$64,753,799

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statistical View of the Commerce of U. States, exhibiting value of Exports to, and Imports from, each foreign country, from 1st October, 1842, to 30th June, 1843.

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

Countries.	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	Value of imports.
Russia,.....	\$309,867	\$76,926	\$386,793	\$742,803
Prussia,.....	222,039	18,330	240,369
Sweden,.....	18,381	15,807	34,188	227,356
Swedish West Indies,.....	31,228	2,346	33,574	51,318
Denmark,.....	74,657	6,510	81,167
Danish West Indies,.....	672,158	74,540	746,698	485,285
Holland,.....	1,698,327	238,140	1,936,467	430,823
Dutch East Indies,.....	90,239	103,742	193,981	121,524
Dutch West Indies,.....	204,937	10,819	215,756	230,571
Dutch Guiana,.....	24,680	24,680	32,533
Belgium,.....	1,674,224	296,485	1,970,709	171,695
Hanse Towns,.....	2,898,948	392,984	3,291,932	920,865
Hanover,.....
England,.....	37,149,095	1,106,064	38,255,159	26,141,118
Scotland,.....	2,363,354	14,657	2,378,011	128,846
Ireland,.....	208,502	1,180	209,682	43,593
Gibraltar,.....	218,251	38,197	256,448	23,515
Malta,.....	6,436	11,471	17,907	27
British East Indies,.....	237,576	140,136	377,712	689,777
Australia,.....	57,805	11,232	69,037	44,910
Cape of Good Hope,.....	30,055	30,055	31,192
British African ports,.....
British West Indies,.....	2,332,309	25,671	2,357,980	837,836
British Honduras,.....	92,278	16,304	108,582	136,688
British Guiana,.....	116,145	695	116,840	43,042
British American colonies,.....	2,617,005	107,417	2,724,422	857,696
Other British colonies,.....
France on the Atlantic,.....	10,384,578	441,578	10,826,156	7,050,537
France on the Mediterranean,.....	1,186,294	83,701	1,269,995	609,149

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Countries.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.			Value of imports.
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	
Bourbon,.....	\$29,245	\$29,245
French West Indies,.....	281,828	\$13,108	294,936	\$135,921
French Guiana,.....	45,374	45,374	40,411
Miquelon, and French fisheries,...	5,215	5,215	119
French African ports,.....	1,532	1,532
Hayti,.....	610,796	42,574	653,370	898,447
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	50,100	240	50,340	49,029
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	415,069
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,.....	7,099	3,925	11,024	15,058
Manilla, and Philippine islands,...	57,743	54,435	112,178	409,290
Cuba,.....	2,926,922	399,875	3,326,797	5,015,933
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	442,034	11,321	453,355	1,076,125
Portugal,.....	59,096	1,538	60,634	46,713
Madeira,.....	37,649	3,856	41,505	7,160
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	8,569	621	9,190	12,783
Cape de Verd islands,.....	52,227	4,978	57,205	4,713
Italy,.....	541,500	186,721	728,221	394,564
Sicily,.....	32,558	51,871	84,429	169,664
Sardinia,.....	108,091	108,091
Trieste,.....	460,240	118,938	579,178	72,957
Turkey,.....	108,465	68,014	176,479	182,854
Morocco, &c.,.....
Texas,.....	105,240	37,713	142,953	445,399
Mexico,.....	907,745	564,192	1,471,937	2,782,406
Central America,.....	34,469	18,497	52,966	132,167
Venezuela,.....	483,077	100,425	583,502	1,191,280
New Granada,.....	72,009	89,944	161,953	115,733
Brazil,.....	1,568,584	223,704	1,792,288	3,947,658
Argentine Republic,.....	168,083	94,026	262,109	793,488
Cisplatine Republic,.....	219,576	75,549	295,125	121,753
Chili,.....	869,883	179,580	1,049,463	857,556
Peru,.....	135,563
South America, generally,.....	98,713	98,713
China,.....	1,755,393	663,565	2,418,958	4,385,566
Europe, generally,.....	36,066	140	36,206
Asia, generally,.....	253,861	267,296	521,157	445,637
Africa, generally,.....	281,060	22,189	303,249	353,274
West Indies, generally,.....	95,412	125	95,537
Atlantic ocean,.....
South Seas,.....	58,961	18,805	77,766	45,845
Sandwich Islands,.....
Uncertain places,.....	623
Total,.....	\$77,793,783	\$6,552,697	\$84,346,480	\$64,753,799

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES WITH DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

Statistical View of the Tonnage of American and Foreign Vessels, arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, from the 1st day of October, 1842, to the 30th day of June, 1843.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered U. S.	Cleared U. S.	Entered U. S.	C'd U. S.
Russia,.....	8,213	4,163	271	271
Prussia,.....	2,173	1,905
Sweden,.....	816	780	4,781	488
Swedish West Indies,.....	721	949
Denmark,.....	465	418	1,714
Danish West Indies,.....	24,248	23,036	3,660	358
Holland,.....	16,512	23,239	1,477	2,660
Dutch East Indies,.....	701	2,890
Dutch West Indies,.....	7,801	3,794	124	248
Dutch Guiana,.....	3,540	3,066

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES WITH DIFFERENT COUNTRIES—Continued.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Ent. U. S.	Cl'd U. S.	Ent. U. S.	Cl'd U. S.
Belgium,.....	11,580	20,708	2,081	8,529
Hanse Towns,.....	7,090	13,937	34,600	42,075
Hanover,.....	1,277
England,.....	273,622	329,935	166,360	163,174
Scotland,.....	10,041	12,764	14,473	18,848
Ireland,.....	221	982	12,581	2,197
Gibraltar,.....	1,942	6,941	308	1,568
Malta,.....	378	214
British East Indies,.....	5,661	5,415
Australia,.....	299	590
Cape of Good Hope,.....	406
British African ports,.....	415	125	446	279
British West Indies,.....	51,879	75,962	33,905	14,388
British Honduras,.....	3,156	7,425	65	708
British Guiana,.....	2,290	6,145	5,716	2,094
British American colonies,.....	209,808	202,607	214,112	233,092
Other British colonies,.....	363	93
France on the Atlantic,.....	95,566	110,171	8,629	11,171
France on the Mediterranean,.....	11,322	18,167	275	418
Bourbon,.....	562
French West Indies,.....	13,874	24,006	6,417	103
French Guiana,.....	1,173	737
Miquelon, and French fisheries,...	216	1,329	226
French African ports,.....	284	362
Hayti,.....	16,468	16,606	307	717
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	10,636	2,298	1,843	302
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	6,636	479	1,010
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,....	300	486	211
Manilla, and Philippine islands,...	4,615	1,401
Cuba,.....	117,847	136,338	7,069	4,897
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	33,245	18,361	171	340
Portugal,.....	6,240	2,557	2,414	543
Madeira,.....	493	1,657
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	1,257	742	345
Cape de Verd islands,.....	335	1,302	167
Italy,.....	3,143	3,350	527	1,117
Sicily,.....	10,588	565	1,544	680
Sardinia,.....	1,705	1,951	954	260
Trieste,.....	5,239	8,679	1,782
Turkey,.....	2,853	1,533
Morocco, &c.,.....	1,022	375
Texas,.....	16,927	16,185	165	927
Mexico,.....	23,826	22,727	1,606	2,360
Central America,.....	1,896	1,802
Venezuela,.....	9,991	8,030	1,176	884
New Granada,.....	1,096	1,245	260
Brazil,.....	32,466	32,066	2,179	1,395
Argentine Republic,.....	6,836	2,144	200
Cisplatine Republic,.....	2,755	6,858	393
Chili,.....	3,186	5,378
Peru,.....	277	446
South America, generally,.....	755
China,.....	13,460	13,532
Europe, generally,.....
Asia, generally,.....	823	4,513
Africa, generally,.....	4,613	3,960	420	140
West Indies, generally,.....	142	15,038	169
Atlantic ocean,.....	5,543	3,897
South Seas,.....	32,396	26,549
Sandwich islands,.....	1,220	593
Uncertain places,.....
Total,.....	1,143,523	1,268,083	534,752	523,949

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, commencing on the 1st of October, 1842, and ending on the 30th of June, 1843.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.						VALUE OF IMPORTS.			
	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN PRODUCE.			Total of domestic and for'gn produce.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.				
Maine,.....	\$656,855	\$23,577	\$680,432	\$161	\$2,298	\$2,459	\$682,891	\$197,673	\$52,587	\$250,260
New Hampshire,...	43,061	1,598	44,659	75	40	115	44,774	5,836	2,453	8,289
Vermont,.....	141,834	141,834	28,137	28,137	169,971	38,000	38,000
Massachusetts,.....	4,128,830	301,851	4,430,681	1,620,310	354,216	1,974,526	6,405,207	8,066,249	8,723,203	16,789,452
Rhode Island,.....	105,292	105,292	555	555	105,847	155,611	147	155,758
Connecticut,.....	306,950	273	307,223	307,223	229,112	1,729	230,841
New York,.....	11,093,244	2,349,990	13,443,234	2,393,458	925,972	3,319,430	16,762,664	27,360,920	3,995,620	31,356,540
New Jersey,.....	8,033	8,033	2,588	2,588	10,621
Pennsylvania,.....	1,948,644	123,301	2,071,945	275,065	7,938	283,003	2,354,948	2,630,521	130,109	2,760,630
Delaware,.....	94,362	4,128	98,490	192	192	98,682	1,752	2,933	4,685
Maryland,.....	2,152,593	667,621	2,820,214	176,705	18,637	195,342	3,015,556	2,179,119	300,013	2,479,132
Dist. of Columbia,...	183,451	101,312	284,763	185	185	284,948	62,075	33,367	95,442
Virginia,.....	1,810,915	143,595	1,954,510	2,637	18	2,655	1,957,165	155,681	31,381	187,062
North Carolina,....	168,535	2,564	171,099	171,099	108,739	2,237	110,976
South Carolina,....	5,034,953	2,719,199	7,754,152	2,249	4,408	6,657	7,760,809	1,084,653	210,056	1,294,70
Georgia,.....	2,791,968	1,730,433	4,522,401	4,522,401	146,316	61,116	207,439
Alabama,.....	7,022,248	4,135,212	11,157,460	11,157,460	239,068	121,587	360,652
Mississippi,.....
Louisiana,.....	21,516,337	5,137,587	26,653,924	443,511	292,989	736,500	27,390,424	7,156,961	1,013,054	8,170,015
Ohio,.....	10,956	109,152	120,108	120,108	9,454	1,320	10,774
Kentucky,.....	8,145	8,145
Tennessee,.....
Michigan,.....	262,994	262,994	262,994	76,175	195	76,370
Missouri,.....
Florida,.....	625,764	134,571	760,335	174	179	353	760,688	59,815	98,817	158,632
Total,.....	\$60,107,819	\$17,685,964	\$77,793,783	\$4,945,817	\$1,606,880	\$6,552,697	\$84,346,480	\$49,971,875	\$14,781,924	\$64,753,799

Commercial Statistics.

STATEMENT—Continued.

280

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	TONNAGE ENTERED THE UNITED STATES.											
	AMERICAN VESSELS.				FOREIGN VESSELS.				TOTAL AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,.....	149	27,197	1,093	56	497	36,490	1,994	46	646	63,687	3,087	102
New Hampshire,....	8	2,093	76	7	50	2,230	110	58	4,323	186	7
Vermont,.....	99	15,538	450	144	99	15,538	450	144
Massachusetts,.....	685	150,309	7,517	266	568	47,840	3,120	1,253	198,149	10,637	266
Rhode Island,.....	55	11,726	656	7	3	498	27	58	12,224	683	7
Connecticut,.....	70	15,956	907	12	17	1,964	97	87	17,920	1,004	12
New York,.....	1,808	418,524	20,650	1,102	992	177,984	12,424	82	2,800	596,508	33,074	1,184
New Jersey,.....
Pennsylvania,.....	221	42,419	1,835	147	34	5,525	256	55	255	47,944	2,091	202
Delaware,.....	2	221	14	2	233	13	4	454	27
Maryland,.....	187	37,134	1,608	68	14,464	705	255	51,598	2,313
Dist. of Columbia, ..	24	4,559	212	2	19	2,521	136	6	43	7,080	348	8
Virginia,.....	75	16,271	663	16	2,915	148	91	19,186	811
North Carolina,....	156	19,722	972	14	11	1,471	76	167	21,193	1,048	14
South Carolina,....	172	39,028	1,697	73	116	41,055	1,502	262	288	80,083	3,199	335
Georgia,.....	63	18,919	743	78	43,017	1,576	141	61,936	2,319
Alabama,.....	138	48,892	1,831	96	56,648	1,962	234	105,540	3,793
Mississippi,.....
Louisiana,.....	839	261,802	9,909	233	90,450	3,754	1,072	352,252	13,663
Ohio,.....	18	1,514	72	46	5,060	250	64	6,574	322
Kentucky,.....
Tennessee,.....
Michigan,.....	2	63	5	21	1,892	75	23	1,955	80
Missouri,.....
Florida,.....	101	11,636	774	22	2,495	230	123	14,131	1,004
Total,.....	4,872	1,143,523	51,684	1,830	2,889	534,752	28,455	451	7,761	1,678,275	80,139	2,281

Commercial Statistics.

STATEMENT—Continued.

TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES.											
	AMERICAN VESSELS.				FOREIGN VESSELS.				TOTAL AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS.			
	No.	Tons.	Crew.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
Men.			Boys.	Men.			Boys.	Men.			Boys.	
Maine,.....	329	60,453	2,418	169	494	35,974	1,963	45	823	96,427	4,381	214
New Hampshire,...	5	1,018	47	12	51	2,256	111	56	3,274	158	12
Vermont,.....	93	15,359	441	144	93	15,359	441	144
Massachusetts,.....	669	138,295	7,242	96	566	49,253	3,192	1,235	187,548	10,434	96
Rhode Island,.....	43	7,645	470	7	43	7,645	470	7
Connecticut,.....	67	14,113	868	52	19	2,743	129	86	16,856	997	52
New York,.....	1,684	384,281	18,839	1,106	961	174,374	12,279	84	2,645	558,655	31,118	1,190
New Jersey,.....	1	130	7	1	130	7
Pennsylvania,.....	241	41,573	1,909	174	34	5,899	268	51	275	47,472	2,177	225
Delaware,.....	13	1,949	96	3	3	366	19	16	2,315	115	3
Maryland,.....	222	41,473	1,930	70	15,431	745	292	56,904	2,675
Dist. of Columbia,.,	34	5,242	241	6	19	3,001	156	6	53	8,243	397	12
Virginia,.....	168	34,943	1,483	21	4,353	219	189	39,296	1,702
North Carolina,.....	233	30,411	1,475	7	11	1,292	73	244	31,703	1,548	7
South Carolina,.....	261	71,400	2,797	129	123	43,191	1,577	232	384	114,591	4,374	361
Georgia,.....	131	43,055	1,633	76	42,033	1,462	207	85,088	3,095
Alabama,.....	200	79,107	2,904	96	55,900	1,988	296	135,007	4,892
Mississippi,.....
Louisiana,.....	808	292,473	10,887	220	80,697	3,317	1,028	373,170	14,204
Ohio,.....	15	1,245	61	47	5,170	258	62	6,415	319
Kentucky,.....
Tennessee,.....
Michigan,.....	5	439	20	17	1,507	59	22	1,946	79
Missouri,.....
Florida,.....	68	3,479	374	20	509	161	88	3,988	535
Total,.....	5,290	1,268,083	56,142	1,905	2,848	523,949	27,976	418	8,138	1,792,032	84,118	2,323

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement exhibiting a Condensed View of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1843.

DISTRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed ton- nage. <i>Tons and 95ths.</i>	Total ton- nage of each dist.
Passamaquoddy,	Maine,.....	2,589 80	5,287 75	7,877 60
Machias,	"	2,406 79	12,318 59	14,725 43
Frenchman's Bay,	"	1,460 01	19,412 36	20,872 37
Penobscot,	"	4,346 25	19,568 34	23,914 59
Belfast,	"	10,787 62	23,035 34	33,823 01
Waldoborough,	"	15,481 27	34,953 38	50,434 65
Wiscasset,	"	4,803 23	8,654 20	13,457 43
Bath,	"	36,117 32	15,284 09	51,401 41
Portland,	"	40,161 38	16,011 35	56,172 73
Saco,	"	1,435 75	2,255 13	3,690 88
Kennebunk,	"	5,418 04	2,420 55	7,838 59
York,	"	2,071 91	2,071 91
Portsmouth,	New Hampshire,.....	13,918 61	8,790 75	22,709 41
Burlington,	Vermont,.....	2,762 86	2,762 86
Newburyport,	Massachusetts,.....	14,362 04	5,324 29	19,686 33
Ipswich,	"	2,378 22	2,378 22
Gloucester,	"	3,254 14	12,799 12	16,053 26
Salem,	"	22,519 52	11,397 63	33,917 20
Marblehead,	"	1,521 27	7,343 50	8,864 77
Boston,	"	165,482 69	37,116 44	202,599 18
Plymouth,	"	8,086 05	9,102 53	17,188 58
Fall River,	"	3,393 76	6,526 54	9,920 35
New Bedford,	"	83,056 69	17,024 74	100,081 48
Barnstable,	"	5,626 81	35,823 39	41,450 25
Edgartown,	"	7,200 82	1,619 28	8,820 15
Nantucket,	"	27,840 15	6,502 62	34,342 77
Providence,	Rhode Island,.....	13,646 86	5,787 28	19,434 19
Bristol,	"	10,746 16	3,029 36	13,775 52
Newport,	"	6,873 82	5,542 37	12,416 24
Middletown,	Connecticut,.....	723 89	9,340 09	10,064 03
New London,	"	25,118 60	10,272 64	35,391 29
Stonington,	"	1,729 81	3,214 28	4,944 14
New Haven,	"	4,570 82	6,041 73	10,612 60
Fairfield,	"	9,265 94	9,265 94
Champlain,	New York,.....	2,510 15	2,510 15
Sackett's Harbor,	"	4,991 84	4,991 84
Oswego,	"	7,420 47	7,420 47
Niagara,	"	112 08	112 08
Genesee,	"	249 05	249 05
Oswegatchie,	"	987 01	987 01
Buffalo Creek,	"	17,939 80	17,939 80
Sag Harbor,	"	16,841 29	6,047 21	22,888 50
New York,	"	237,240 29	259,725 27	496,965 56
Cape Vincent,	"	2,970 30	2,970 30
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey,.....	18,969 70	18,969 70
Bridgetown,	"	372 65	10,020 77	10,393 47
Burlington,	"	3,951 92	3,951 92
Camden,	"	6,408 76	6,408 76
Newark,	"	266 04	8,743 72	9,009 76
Little Egg Harbor,	"	5,263 18	5,263 18
Great Egg Harbor,	"	9,382 04	9,382 04
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,.....	39,445 84	64,894 59	104,340 48
Presqu'isle,	"	2,766 55	2,766 55
Pittsburgh,	"	4,942 69	4,942 69
Wilmington,	Delaware,.....	2,266 77	3,805 93	6,072 75
Newcastle,	"	4,248 53	4,248 53
Baltimore,	Maryland,.....	41,245 41	33,580 20	74,825 61

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.
Statement exhibiting a Condensed View of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1843.

DISTRICTS.	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. <i>Tons and 95ths.</i>	Total tonnage of each dist.
Oxford, Maryland,.....	9,631 59	9,631 59
Vienna, ".....	336 75	12,053 69	12,390 49
Snow Hill, ".....	6,511 17	6,511 17
St. Mary's, ".....	1,442 47	1,442 47
Town Creek, ".....	1,539 57	1,539 57
Annapolis, ".....	2,678 21	2,678 21
Georgetown, District of Columbia, ..	2,288 11	6,521 67	8,809 78
Alexandria, ".....	7,267 36	3,450 21	10,717 57
Norfolk, Virginia,.....	10,345 87	7,581 04	17,926 91
Petersburg, ".....	2,346 31	1,072 14	3,418 45
Richmond, ".....	4,326 35	2,920 51	7,246 86
Yorktown, ".....	2,906 51	2,906 51
East River, ".....	2,309 84	2,309 84
Tappahannock, ".....	501 93	4,445 81	4,947 79
Folly Landing, ".....	2,764 77	2,764 77
Yeocomico, ".....	3,091 69	3,091 69
Cherrystone, ".....	1,377 67	1,377 67
Wheeling, ".....	1,212 34	1,212 34
Wilmington, North Carolina,.....	10,410 41	3,530 46	13,940 87
Newbern, ".....	1,954 40	2,094 62	4,094 07
Washington, ".....	1,404 23	2,387 01	3,791 24
Edenton, ".....	158 03	618 74	776 77
Camden, ".....	1,257 71	7,856 17	9,113 88
Beaufort, ".....	1,563 85	1,563 85
Plymouth, ".....	808 34	948 41	1,756 75
Ocracoke, ".....	1,282 19	914 60	2,196 79
Charleston, South Carolina,.....	10,841 05	9,870 74	20,711 79
Georgetown, ".....	320 94	543 89	864 88
Beaufort, ".....
Savannah, Georgia,.....	2,728 80	6,715 85	15,444 73
Sunbury, ".....
Brunswick, ".....	835 94	779 61	1,615 60
Hardwick, ".....
St. Mary's, ".....	28 79	310 20	339 04
Pensacola, Florida,.....	995 16	751 69	1,746 85
St. Augustine, ".....	407 89	212 46	620 40
Apalachicola, ".....	1,700 86	3,183 60	4,884 51
St. Mark's, ".....	92 20	92 20
St. John's, ".....	197 00	197 00
Key West, ".....	1,794 27	710 38	2,504 65
Mobile, Alabama,.....	6,646 58	9,447 85	16,094 48
Pearl river, Mississippi,.....
New Orleans, Louisiana,.....	49,957 60	99,452 06	149,409 66
Teche, ".....	657 09	657 09
St. Louis, Missouri,.....	13,589 38	13,589 38
Nashville, Tennessee,.....	4,813 08	4,813 08
Louisville, Kentucky,.....	5,093 18	5,093 18
Cuyahoga, Ohio,.....	13,679 58	13,679 58
Sandusky, ".....	2,656 73	2,656 73
Cincinnati, ".....	11,675 13	11,675 13
Miami, ".....	1,446 57	1,446 57
Detroit, Michigan,.....	12,259 59	12,259 59
Michilmackinac, ".....	430 60	430 60
Total,.....	1,009,305 01	1,149,297 92	2,158,602 93

VESSELS BUILT IN EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1843.
Statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the three quarters ending on the 30th June, 1843.

States.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps & canal-boats.	Steam-boats.	Total No. built.	TOTAL TONNAGE. Tons. 95ths.
Maine,.....	25	21	25	71	15,120 90
New Hampshire,.....	1	1	...	2	233 76
Massachusetts,.....	20	2	15	3	...	40	9,974 01
Rhode Island,.....	1	1	119 80
Connecticut,.....	...	1	1	6	4	12	1,063 80
New York,.....	5	2	9	103	5	124	13,298 68
New Jersey,.....	9	8	2	19	1,480 01
Pennsylvania,.....	3	3	2	35	20	63	6,739 72
Delaware,.....	...	1	1	...	1	3	245 63
Maryland,.....	4	1	33	...	1	39	3,678 91
District of Columbia,	11	...	11	276 13
Virginia,.....	1	...	5	2	1	9	693 77
North Carolina,.....	...	3	18	21	2,000 19
South Carolina,.....	1	1	2	206 13
Georgia,.....	1	1	45 09
Ohio,.....	6	...	25	31	5,194 69
Tennessee,.....	2	2	322 27
Kentucky,.....	11	11	1,664 18
Missouri,.....
Alabama,.....	1	1	...	2	144 24
Michigan,.....	4	1	...	5	304 89
Mississippi,.....	6	1	1	8	288 05
Florida,.....	5	5	522 42
Total,.....	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617 77

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DREW'S PLAN FOR PREVENTING SHIPS FROM BECOMING HOGGED.

A most ingenious model has fallen under our observation, (says the United Service Journal, London,) of which Captain Drew is the inventor, for strengthening ships of war, so as to make it all but impossible they shall become hogged. To steam vessels of the larger class, the adoption of this simple and comparatively inexpensive machinery, will prove of most vital importance. The immense weight of the engines requisite for a steamship, render her more than ordinarily liable to break amidships. Captain Drew's plan was, we are told, suggested by the ingenious and admirably effective operation, lately performed on the *Penelope*. The grand feature of his project is to relieve a steam vessel from the vast weight of machinery amidships, and to throw it upon two distant parts of the ship, much more capable of sustaining it; and if there be any one vessel to which such an adjunct will be more especially necessary than another, it is the *Penelope*, whose machinery will be placed exactly in the space occupied by the sixty feet of timber which remains to be added to its length. Captain Drew's plan consists of two longitudinal pieces of timber, firmly trussed together, constructed on something like the principle of the arch of a bridge, which will be capable of bearing an immense weight. These bearers are to be covered by a platform for the machinery, of four inch plank; so that the strongest part of the vessel will, in future, be that which has hitherto proved the weakest. It is well known that the unfortunate *President* was broken-backed before she left the British channel, on her last trip, from the immense weight of her machinery amidships; the undoubted cause of her melancholy catastrophe. The owners of the *British Queen* are, we

are told, about to cut her in two, for the purpose of avoiding a similar catastrophe; and it is well known that the long steam vessels running in Canada seldom last more than five or six years, from the same cause. If, therefore, Captain Drew's plan should realize the expectations we have formed of it, it cannot fail of proving of most vital importance to the navy at large, and to steamships in particular. We had almost forgotten to notice another important advantage that will be gained by Captain Drew's plan. The circumstance of the machinery being placed upon a platform that will be, to some extent, elastic, will obviate, in a great degree, that constant jar, which is so trying to the timbers of a steamship, and so inconvenient to its occupants. We have the greater pleasure in speaking of this invention as we think it deserves, inasmuch as we have understood that Captain Drew has no interested motive in placing it before the public. He seeks no patent, and desires no reward beyond the credit of being instrumental in preserving not only valuable property, but human life from destruction. We need hardly add that this is precisely the sort of projector in whose opinions we are inclined to repose the greatest confidence.

DESCRIPTION OF A SHOAL OFF ST. CROIX.

The Rev. Wm. C. Woodbridge, the geographer, in viewing the astronomical observatory of Major Lang, surveyor-general of the island of St. Croix, learned that there was a shoal off the east end of the island, not laid down in the charts, but on which the breakers were sometimes heard, as well as seen, from that elevated spot. Finding, subsequently, that it was unknown to most American captains, and that the ship in which he had sailed found herself unexpectedly upon it, he requested an account of it from Major Lang, which we give below:—

MAJOR LANG'S REMARKS ON THE EXTENSIVE BANK E. N. E. OF THE EASTERN EXTREMITY OF ST. CROIX.

The eastern point of St. Croix is in lat. 17. 45. 30. N., lon. 64. 34. W. The eastern point of Buck island, lat. 17. 47. 18. N., lon. 64. 36. 40. W. A. Lang's observatory, (elevation 440 feet,) lat. 17. 44. 32. N., lon. 64. 41. W.

Full nine nautical miles N. E. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E., from the E. end of St. Croix, and about eleven nautical miles E. by N. from the E. point of Buck island, commences the eastern extremity of an extensive bank, or shoal, the northern limits of which round off thence to the N. W., soon afterwards stretch westerly, inclining at last to the southward of a westerly direction, towards Buck island eastern shoals, with which it may be considered as connected. The northern edge of this shoal is a narrow coral ledge, of several miles in length, on which five and a half fathoms of water is the least depth yet found—the more common depth being six, six and a half, and seven fathoms.

Along the whole line of the northern edge, and to the very eastern extremity of the bank, where there is not less than seven fathoms water, I have observed the sea to break in an awful manner, during severe gales of wind; and sometimes, also, in moderate weather, during the great northerly ground-swell, which occasionally sets in during the winter months.

A line of direction drawn from my observatory, E. 24. 15. 30. N., passed through the shortest part of the northern edge of this coral ledge, through its whole length, until it approaches the eastern limits of the shoal, where it rounds off to the S. E. and S., as far as the bearing E. 15. 50. N. from my position. I consider its most eastern part to bear from my observatory E. 17. 20. N., which will place it in lat. 17. 49. 25. N., lon. 64. 24. 40. W. from Greenwich, having there seven fathoms and a half; which, in coming from the eastward, you at once strike, from an ocean depth. At this spot, the E. end of St. Croix is distant nine and three-quarters nautical miles, and the E. end of Buck island about eleven and a half nautical miles. In approaching the northern edge of the shoal from the northward, you at once get from an ocean depth upon its shoalest part; passing which, and standing to the S., the water gradually deepens, on a clear sand bottom, during the short time taken in crossing the bank, when standing in this direction.

The bearings from my position are given from the true meridian, taken from my astronomical circle. The bank is the resort of many whales during spring and summer.

PRIVILEGE OF AMERICAN WHALE SHIPS AT NEW ZEALAND.

Information has been received at the department of state, at Washington, (July 25th, 1844,) from the United States Consulate at the Bay of Islands, New Zealand, that the governor of that colony has been pleased to permit, at its instance, American whale ships to land their cargoes of oil in the ports of New Zealand, for exportation either to England or the United States; thereby giving the ships an opportunity of refitting, without the delay or exposure of returning to the United States.

A change has recently been made in the port dues of Sidney, N. S. W., which, as regards whale ships, is illustrated by two visits of the Tuscaloosa, of New Bedford—one previous, the other subsequent to the change. On the first, she paid £22 8s. 2d.; on the second, £10 19s. 2d.; of which £6 might have been saved, had she not taken a pilot.

A PRACTICAL LIFE PRESERVER.

A very simple instrument has just been introduced here, called the "Liancourt Nautilus." For convenience and safety, it is as perfect as possible. It is a harmonicon, without the musical part. It consists of two oval tin plates, as large as a man's hand, connected by a spiral wire, capable of being extended to the length of three feet. This wire is covered by a water-proof bag, or sleeve, the ends of which are sealed to the plates. The whole affair, when compressed together, is about five inches long, by four thick. Through one of the tin plates is a hole, closed by a clapper on the inside. Take a plate in each hand, and draw them apart to the length of the bag, and the machine is inflated. The wire keeps the bag distended, so that the air would press out very slowly, even if a small hole were to exist. It has been adopted already, by the admiralty service of both France and England.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

A LUCRATIVE COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

It is stated in the Liverpool Journal, of June 22d, 1844, that in the most distressing period of the cotton trade, 1841, and when the relations with China were anything but settled, a Manchester merchant formed the resolution of speculating in 30,000 pieces of low shirtings, for which the purchaser paid 6s. 8d. per piece; the whole outlay being just £10,000. The entire of this large purchase, as to numbers of pieces, if not in amount, were shipped to Manilla, where the goods arrived most opportune. A quick sale took place; and the returns, after paying all costs and charges, netted rather over £20,000. Bills for such an amount were then out of the question, and the proceeds were invested in silk. The silk, too, proved an equally good spec; the lucky owner having again doubled his investment; i. e., sold the silk for more than £40,000. Perhaps a more fortunate speculation is not on record; and all this, too, was accomplished, it is said, in less than twelve months.

COMMERCIAL VALUE OF OLD PAINTINGS IN ENGLAND.

A sale of rare pictures, by the great masters, took place recently, at Messrs. Christie's rooms, King-street, St. James's, London, (Eng.,) late the property of Mr. John Prentice, of Great Yarmouth; and, though the collection only numbered sixteen subjects, they were of the highest class, the total sum realized being nearly 19,000l. Rubens's "Judgment of Paris" produced 4,000 guineas, and "Lot and his Daughters leaving Sodom," 1,600 guineas; both purchased by Mr. Eastlake, curator of the National Gallery.

THE GUANO TRADE.

This new branch of commercial enterprise is attracting the attention of the British government; and it has been stated in Parliament that it had already been of signal benefit to the declining mercantile marine of England, more than six hundred vessels being now engaged in the trade. It will, we presume, awaken the commercial spirit of the northern states, as it will undoubtedly open to their citizens a profitable branch of trade, which they are never slow to embrace.

The small island of Ichaboe, on the west coast of Africa, lat. 26 deg. 18 min. S., long. 14 deg. 58 min. E., is said to be covered with this manure, to the depth of thirty feet. The island is small, being not above one mile in circumference. In the month of December last, there were twenty ships in the harbor, or road formed between the island and the main land, beside a dozen more in search of the island. The article itself cost not a farthing, and it is estimated in England to be worth £8 per ton, or about 18 10 cents per lb. Genuine guano, it is believed, has never been found except on places seemingly of volcanic origin, and almost always in situations where gannets, penguins, and seals, are in the habit of resorting. The space on the west coast of Africa, from Orange river, in lat. 28 deg. 23 min. S., long. 16 deg. 22 min. E., to Hallam's Bird island, in lat. 24 deg. 38 min. S., long. 14 deg. 22 min. E., lies between the British and Portuguese possessions in Southern Africa, and is claimed by no nation; and, consequently, any adventurer may have guano for the taking.

It is stated, in the Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, that the birds on the island of Ichaboe are a kind of penguin, and cannot fly to any distance, if at all, their wings being a kind of fin. It is believed that the captain of the vessel, (said to be Mr. Parr, of the Anne, of Bristol,) who brought the guano, was the first human being who set foot on the island, there being no harbor, and a heavy surf. On walking on it, he could scarcely set his foot without treading on the birds, and they took no notice whatever of him, except pecking at his feet, he being barefoot; and, on a gun being fired, they merely fluttered a good deal, and made much noise. There is no fresh water, it is believed, for some hundreds of miles along the coast, and no rain. A writer in the last Nautical Magazine very facetiously says:—"Some persons in Liverpool, it is said, allege that they have possessed the sovereignty of the Guano islands; but, as there are no human inhabitants upon them, and the natives of the adjacent continent (who are described as civil and harmless) have neither boat nor canoe, the 'soi disant' sovereigns must have contracted with a King Penguin, had the contracts stamped by a Fur-Seal, and witnessed by the requisite number of Gannets."

That the trade is beginning to awaken the commercial spirit of the United States, is evident from the fact that the ship Orpheus arrived at Baltimore, in July last, with four hundred tons of guano; and Captain Wickham S. Havens, of the Thomas Dickinson, brought a quantity from one of the islands, on his return to Sag Harbor, Long Island.

The Newburyport Herald says that the ship Shakspeare, of 747 tons, is now fitting out at Lewis's wharf, Boston, for the coast of Africa, to load with guano. Several English vessels sailed from New York, last week, for the same destination. Guano is worth in England \$60 to \$80 per ton, and an immense trade has grown up there in the article, no less than 700 English vessels being engaged in the business at last dates.

We see, by an advertisement in the American Agriculturalist, that J. M. Thorburn & Co., of New York, have received, by a late arrival from Liverpool, a few hundred weight of the Ichaboe guano, pure as imported from Africa, being taken direct from a ship that arrived at the Liverpool docks. Some idea of the value of the article may be gained from the fact that it is sold by Mr. Thorburn, in New York, at \$6 per hundred pounds, or \$1 per sixteen pounds, and from \$60 to \$80 per ton, in England.

We notice, in late English papers, an apparatus advertised, by which it is stated that

any one can, in five minutes, form a pretty accurate estimate of the value of guano. The immense increase of shipping now employed in England in this trade, seem to prove two things:—First, that the experiments there, this season, have convinced the most skeptical of the immense value of this manure; and, secondly, that there is no doubt of vessels obtaining cargoes; for those who have so recently returned from the African coast would certainly not go back, if there was any chance of the quantity being exhausted; and the accounts of the crews, to this effect, would have deterred others; lessening, instead of increasing the number of vessels—so that, if we do not now get plenty of guano, of the right kind, to supply our agriculture next year, it will be our own fault.

It is stated in the city article of a late number of the *London Times*, that a new use has been discovered of the article guano, which was never anticipated. Hitherto, it has been merely looked upon as applicable to agricultural purposes, but now the rumor goes that it may be employed in the manufacture of a certain color.

The *Liverpool (Eng.) Times* says:—"The guano trade has already greatly relieved British shipping, and put an end to the ruinous competition for freights, which had then for some time existed; but we had not, at that time, any idea of the number of vessels which have gone to the African coast in search of this new manure. We have since learned that it is not less than 600, at the lowest estimate; and that some persons even estimate it as high as 800, a great number of them being very large ships. It is, therefore, no wonder that the taking up so many vessels at good freights, and the withdrawing them from the usual trade, has had a good effect on freights, and on the demand for shipping everywhere."

THE FRESH FISH TRADE OF BOSTON.

It affords us pleasure to record, in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the successful commercial enterprises of the nation; especially when the tendency of such operations is to diffuse the comforts and innocent luxuries of life, and place them within the means of all classes of society. The ice trade of Boston, it is well known, has become not only an important branch of commerce, affording employment to many of that worthy class of men who earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, but has enriched the first adventurer in the trade, besides furnishing the inhabitants of tropical climates with one of the greatest luxuries nature yields.

The following statement, derived from the *Boston Morning Post*, gives a pretty good idea of the progress of the fresh fish trade of Boston, and is worthy of record in the pages of a work designed to furnish a history of the various movements in commercial industry, and shadow forth the spirit and genius of an enterprising people. It also illustrates the commercial advantages of the railroad system, so successfully adopted by the citizens of Massachusetts:—

"The season in which fish are taken, for the purpose of being forwarded fresh to New York and Philadelphia, and the cities of the interior, generally extends from the 1st of December to the 1st of May. This year, however, it did not close until about the 1st of June. The fish caught are principally halibut, cod, and haddock. Messrs. Holbrook, Smith & Co., on Commercial street, (who were among the first, and are still the principal dealers,) have politely furnished us with an account of their sales for the past season, and estimates of the sales of others engaged in the business; from which it appears that there were brought to the city and sold, by the firm named, 934,000 pounds of halibut, and 386,000 pounds of cod and haddock; by others, 92,000 pounds of halibut, and 322,000 pounds of cod and haddock. Total, 1,734,000 pounds. Of this quantity, there was forwarded to Philadelphia, by Messrs. Holbrook, Smith & Co., of halibut, 8,874 pounds; to New York, of halibut and cod, mostly the first, 164,428 pounds; to Albany and Troy, 100,000 pounds. Forwarded by other dealers, to New York, 83,300 pounds; to Albany and Troy, 50,000 pounds. Total amount forwarded to four cities, 405,602 pounds.

The average number of vessels engaged in the halibut fishery has been about 30, and in the cod and haddock fishery the same number; making 60 in all. The average number of men employed has been about 400, and the amount of tonnage 3,000 tons. The city market boats, and the fish caught by them, it will be observed, are not included in this statement. The vessels are owned principally on Cape Ann and Cape Cod, and a more active and temperate set of men than their crews can nowhere be found. The cold water principle is fully carried out among them. The length of their voyages varies from six days to a fortnight, and the vessels are so constructed as to admit of a constant flow of the sea water into a part of their holds, in which *the fish are brought alive to the wharves*. The importance to which the trade has attained is undoubtedly attributable, in a high degree, to this circumstance; as it is the perfect freshness of the fish that gives them their greatest value. Every morning, upon the arrival of the vessels, the halibut are hauled upon deck, and killed. They are then immediately packed in boxes, with ice, and despatched to the several railroads, so that, on the evening of the same day, or the next morning, they may be smoking upon the tables of Albany or Troy, two hundred miles in the interior, as fresh and delicate as the fish eaten on the sea shore. One vessel will sometimes bring in 400 halibut, weighing from 50 to 200 pounds each, and the scene of slaughter which ensues is indescribable. Blood literally streams from her scuppers; and the fish are cut up and packed with such celerity, that their muscles continue to quiver after the last nail is driven into the box. In all other respects, the trade is conducted (especially by the principal house engaged in it) with remarkable prudence and energy; and we doubt not that it will continue to extend, as increased facilities are afforded, and ever go to illustrate the manner in which the iron roads bind our Union together, by making the people of the east and the west, the north and the south, necessary to each other."

LAFITTE, THE FRENCH BANKER;

OR, A FORTUNE MADE BY PICKING UP A PIN.

Important results often follow from the most trifling incidents. A remarkable case of this kind is related in an English paper, respecting Lafitte, the French banker, and which was the foundation of the immense fortune he afterwards accumulated. When he came to Paris, in 1788, the extent of his ambition was to find a situation in a banking-house; and to attain this object, he called on M. Perregeaux, the rich Swiss banker, to whom he had a letter of introduction. This gentleman had just taken possession of the hotel of Mademoiselle Gurmard, which had been put up in a lottery by that lady, and won by the fortunate banker. It was to this charming habitation, which has since been demolished, that M. Lafitte paid his first visit in Paris; and, as it were, took his first step in the Parisian world. The young provincial—poor and modest, timid and anxious—entered by that gateway which had witnessed so many gayeties in the last century. He was introduced into the boudoir of the danseuse, then become the cabinet of the banker, and there modestly stated the object of his visit.

"It is impossible for me to admit you into my establishment, at least for the present," replied the banker; "all my offices have their full complement. If I require any one at a future time, I will see what can be done; but, in the meantime, I advise you to seek elsewhere, for I do not expect to have a vacancy for some time."

With a disappointed heart, the young aspirant for employment left the office; and while, with a downcast look, he traversed the courtyard, he stooped to pick up a pin which lay in his path, and which he carefully stuck in the lappel of his coat. Little did he think that this trivial action was to decide his future fate; but so it was. From the window of his cabinet, M. Perregeaux had observed the action of the young man. The Swiss banker was one of those keen observers of human actions who estimate the value of circumstances apparently trifling in themselves, and which would pass unnoticed by the majority of mankind. He was delighted with the conduct of the young stranger. In this simple action, he saw the revelation of a character. It was a guarantee of a love of order and economy, a certain pledge of all the qualities which should be possessed by a good financier. A young man who would pick up a pin, could not fail to make a good clerk, merit

the confidence of his employer, and obtain a high degree of prosperity. In the evening of the same day, M. Lafitte received the following note from M. Perregeaux:—

“A place is made for you in my office, which you may take possession of to-morrow morning.”

The anticipations of the banker were not deceived. The young Lafitte possessed every desirable quality, and even more than was at first expected. From simple clerk, he soon rose to be cashier, then partner, then head of the first banking-house in Paris; and afterwards, in rapid succession, a Deputy, and President of the Council of Ministers, the highest point to which a citizen can aspire. On what a trifle does the fortune of a man sometimes depend! But for the simple incident of the pin, M. Lafitte would, perhaps, never have entered the house of M. Perregeaux; another employer might not have opened to him so wide a field of action, and his talents and intelligence would not have led to such magnificent results. Little did M. Perregeaux think that the hand which would pick up a pin was that of a man generous to prodigality in doing good—a hand always open to succor honorable misfortune. Never were riches placed in better hands; never did banker or prince make a more noble use of them.

SMELTING COPPER ORE IN THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

DEAR SIR—I was much pleased with a letter which appeared in the last number of your excellent periodical, from George Ditson, Esq., Vice-Consul of the United States at Neuvitas, on the subject of the copper mines of Cuba; suggesting, also, the great benefit which would accrue to the manufacturing, as well as the commercial interests of the country, by the establishment of smelting works in the neighborhood of New York; in which opinion, I perfectly agree with him.

As New York is the great emporium of American commerce, it is consequently the port where most of the foreign, as well as American copper ores, are sent, to be shipped to England, for smelting. No better place, therefore, could be selected for the establishment of copper works, than somewhere in this neighborhood; and, in my opinion, Red Hook Point, near the south end of the Atlantic dock, would be a most eligible location; as there is every facility there for discharging cargoes of copper ore, as well as coal for smelting it, and ample space for the erection of suitable buildings, not only for smelting the ore into cakes, but for drawing the copper into bars, and rolling it into sheets. The establishment of copper works would also give an impulse to *copper mining operations throughout the Union*, as there would then be a ready market for all the American copper ore raised, without sending it to England to be smelted; and, by amalgamating American ores with foreign, better copper, (as to the temper and malleability of it,) could be made, than from one kind of copper ore, only. Moreover, the copper made here could be sold cheaper than that which is imported; as the freight and insurance on the ore sent to England, as well as on the manufactured copper sent back again, would be saved—independent of the duty on the ore, (£4 10s. per ton,) and the other heavy charges upon the importation of it into England. I think these are good and sufficient reasons for the establishment of copper works near New York; and coming, as they do, from one who was formerly engaged as a mineral broker in England, and is *practically acquainted with the modus operandi* of sampling, assaying, roasting, and smelting copper ores, they may be well worthy of the consideration of those who feel interested in the matter. The establishment of such works, independent of the great advantage they would be to the country in a national and commercial point of view, would also be a very profitable investment of capital, for those who might embark in the undertaking; and, hoping soon to see them in operation,

I remain, dear sir, yours, respectfully,
J. T. BAILEY.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

GIGANTIC COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

A highly important hydraulic work has been projected, and is now in rapid progress of execution, as we learn from Murray's Hand-Book for Travellers in France, that will vie with our far-famed and magnificent Croton works, that now supply the commercial emporium of our country with an abundance of pure water. It is under the able direction of Montricher. The canal that is to supply Marseilles, will derive its water from the Durance, near to the suspension bridge at Pertuis; and this will be conducted by open cutting and tunnelling, for a distance of fifty-one miles, through a most mountainous and difficult country, until it reaches the arid territory of Marseilles, where it will be employed for the supply of the city, as well as for irrigation, and giving activity to various branches of industry which require water-power. The section and fall of this canal is calculated to pass eleven tons of water per second; and its levels are so disposed, that this quantity of water will arrive near to the city, at an elevation of four hundred feet above the level of the sea. Perhaps no work of this description has been attempted, either in ancient or modern times, more hardy in its conception, or more really useful in its effects. Three chains of limestone mountains are already pierced by the ten miles of tunnels which are required to conduct this stream; and an aqueduct, which is to convey it across the river Arc, (about five miles from Aix,) is now in construction. Its elevation above the river will be two hundred and sixty-two feet. The design for this gigantic structure is in excellent taste; and as a work of art, it will not suffer comparison from the famous Pont du Gard, which it will much surpass, both in altitude and size. The estimated cost of this canal is upwards of twenty millions of dollars, and this sum is raised by the city of Marseilles, without aid from government. The profit to the stockholders, arising from this work, will be principally from supplying water for irrigation; as the value of land in such a climate is quadrupled, if water can be applied to it.

AMERICAN FUR COMPANY'S STORES.

The St. Louis Reveille furnishes the following brief sketch of the stores occupied by the American Fur Company, at St. Louis, which gives a slight idea of the extensive manner of conducting the fur trade:—

“The present are two large, fire-proof structures, recently built, but with one door of connection, which, in case of fire, may be closed up with double iron shutters, fitting airtight in the wall; so that one building may burn, and the other remain cool as an ice-cellar. Spacious vaults and cellars, constructed of native rock, range beneath the front warehouse; and offices of convenience extend under the sidewalk of the street, having a subterranean let-off cut through the solid rock to the river. Through this, runs the superflux of rain from the roofs, after the cisterns are supplied; and thus a high state of cleanliness is constantly preserved. Upon the first floor, ranging level with the street, are the director's rooms, and clerk's offices, together with an immense iron apartment, imbedded in brick, with vents in the wall for heat to escape, and sitting upon a solid foundation of stone. *Ætna* might belch lava upon it, and the books would be safe! Above that, is an extensive room, running the whole length of the building, where huge bales of blankets, furs, boxes of hardware, and other necessaries of the trade, are stored. The floors above are divided into various wholesale and retail stores, some exclusively for traders, others for Indians. The large trader is led to one store, the poor trapper to another, and the Indian to another. There is no great subtlety and skill required in managing well the complicated peculiarities of the trade. The rear warehouse presents the appearance of an immense factory. A great number of men are constantly in active employ, sorting and arranging skins; packing, pressing, and putting them away in bales—a machine being used, in the operation of pressing, similar in principle, though smaller, of course, than a New Orleans cotton press.

"HE WILL NEVER MAKE A MERCHANT."

The morality of a distinguished divine of the present day, that the making the best of one's knowledge in buying and selling, or, in other words, the seller's taking the advantage of the purchaser's ignorance, is quite questionable; or, more plainly, to use the language of the Author of the only standard of morality in Christendom, it is not "doing to others as we would they should do to us." If, however, the ministers of Christianity inculcate such a standard, is it surprising that there are occasionally to be found persons engaged in trade who, like the dry-goods merchant mentioned in the following recital of an actual occurrence, boldly admit that an honest boy "will never make a merchant?"

A gentleman from the country placed his son with a merchant in — street. For a time, all went on well. At length a lady came to the store to purchase a silk dress, and the young man waited on her. The price demanded was agreed to, and he proceeded to fold the goods. He discovered, before he had finished, a flaw in the silk; and, pointing it out to the lady, said, "Madam, I deem it my duty to tell you there is a fracture in this silk." Of course, she did not take it. The merchant overheard the remark, and immediately wrote to the father of the young man, to come and take him home; "for," said he, "he will never make a merchant." The father, who had ever reposed confidence in his son, was much grieved, and hastened to the city, to be informed of his deficiencies. "Why will he not make a merchant?" asked he. "Because he has no tact," was the answer. "Only a day or two ago, he told a lady, *voluntarily*, who was buying silk of him, that the goods were damaged; and I lost the bargain. Purchasers must look out for themselves. If they cannot discover flaws, it would be foolishness of me to tell them of their existence." "And is that all his fault?" asked the parent. "Yes," answered the merchant; "he is very well in other respects." "Then I love my son better than ever, and I thank you for telling me of the matter. I would not have him another day in your store for the world."

AN INSTANCE OF COMMERCIAL INTEGRITY.

Are the instances of merchants who fail in business, pay a per centage, and are released from their *legal* obligations, and who afterwards succeed, and voluntarily come forward, and cancel the *moral* obligation, of paying to the uttermost farthing of their indebtedness, so rare, that we see it occasionally announced as an exception to the general rule? or is it want of future success, and inability to liquidate such obligations? We have frequently had occasion to record, in the pages of this Magazine, examples of commercial integrity; and it affords us pleasure to add another to the list, which we copy from the New Bedford Bulletin. "We learn with much gratification," says the Bulletin, "that the late esteemed firm of George O. Crocker & Co., of this town, which suspended payment, and made an assignment about two years ago, having outstanding liabilities, announce that, by reason of subsequent success in business, and through the aid of their friends, they are now ready to meet the deficit of said firm, principal and interest, amounting to rising thirty thousand dollars; and that all demands against them are adjusted as fast as they are presented. Such instances of commercial honor and high-minded integrity are but too rare, and cannot be too highly commended. We envy these gentlemen the proud satisfaction which they must feel in thus being able to render justice to their creditors, and wish them what they eminently deserve—a career of increased prosperity in their future enterprises."

ERRATA.—In the article on "Labor—its Relations, in Europe and the United States, compared," commencing on page 217 of the present number, on page 218, fifteen lines from the top, for "they have," read "it has;" same page, 23 lines from bottom, for "courted," read "coveted." On page 220, 1st line, for "permission to enjoy," read "assurance of enjoying." Same page, 13th line from the top, for "circumstantial," read "circumscribed." On page 222, 4th line from top, for "one," read "our."

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Curiosities of Literature, and the Literary Character Illustrated.* By I. C. D'ISRAELI, Esq., D. C. L., F. S. A. With *Curiosities of American Literature.* By RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This book is a most valuable acquisition to our standard library literature, and both editor and publishers deserve credit for the manner in which they have respectively discharged their duties. We have inadvertently omitted to notice the appearance of this work for some time; and we have now the pleasure of saying that its success since publication has been fully equal to what was anticipated. The sale has been good, and regularly increasing; and shows that the taste for valuable and costly works is steadily reviving. The first portion of this book—the “*Curiosities of Literature,*” by D’Israeli—has been, for a long time, popular with the public, both in Great Britain and the United States; and we assure our readers that the moiety added by Mr. Griswold is quite worthy of the place it occupies. American literature, although as yet scarcely emerged from its infancy, is shown, by the copious results of Mr. Griswold’s researches, to be rich in interesting incidents, and piquant peculiarities. These are collated in a pleasing manner, and arrest the attention of the reader equally, whether he is in search of amusement or instruction. Mr. Griswold goes back into the very earliest periods of our history as a people—far beyond the period when we first began to be a *nation*—for the materials of his work; and the reader will be no less surprised than delighted to find how many of the literary traces of those times have been thus snatched from the grasp of oblivion. One thing, in perusing these “*Curiosities of American Literature,*” has struck us with peculiar force. It is the habit of the very earliest English travellers who visited the United States, to misrepresent and abuse both the land and its inhabitants—a disposition which, it must be confessed, they have kept in active operation, even to the present day. “Such are the lying propensities of the English nation who stay at home,” says one of the Puritans, “that it requires much of our time and substance to refute their wicked calumnies.” Not only those who staid at home, but those who “went abroad for their health,” (that is, as it appears in one instance, at least, to escape a *stricture around the throat,*) were quite as bitter in their commentaries upon this country, as the Halls, Trollopes, Marryatts, and Featherstonhaughs of the present day. The first of these gentry, of whom honorable mention is made, is one Mr. Cross, who “had been convicted of forgery, and sentenced to be hanged; but who, after some time, obtained the favor of transportation.” He did us the honor to take up his residence in Pennsylvania; against the inhabitants of which peaceful province he wrote a book, which “contayned far more lyes than veritys.” We have never taken the trouble to examine the proportion of “lyes and veritys” in the works of the more recent English libellers of America; but we make no doubt that they at least keep up the old Puritan estimate.

- 2.—*The History of Illinois, from its First Discovery and Settlement, to the Present Time.* By HENRY BROWN, Counsellor at Law. New York: J. Winchester.

This is a large octavo, of nearly five hundred pages, and embraces a very full and complete history of Illinois, from the earliest time, to the present year. It embraces the most thrilling scenes in its history—its early settlement by the French; the narratives of their first missionaries; the expedition of Colonel Clark to Kaskaskia; the massacre at Chicago; the Black Hawk war; the Mormon prophet; the history of the Illinois banks; its canal and internal improvements, its resources, &c.; and, in short, a great variety of facts bearing upon the history, not only of that state, but the whole western country. The chapter on banking in Illinois, with a few trifling alterations, we have transferred to a former part of this Magazine.

- 3.—*Scenes, Incidents, and Adventures in the Pacific Ocean, or the Islands of the Australasian Seas, during the Cruise of the Clipper Margaret Oakley, under Captain Benjamin Morrell; clearing up the Mystery which has heretofore surrounded this famous Expedition, and containing a full account of the Exploration of the Bidera, Papua, Banda, Mindora, Sooloo, and China Seas, the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants of the Islands, and a Description of Vast Regions never before visited by Civilized Man.* By THOMAS JEFFERSON JACOBS. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author has furnished an interesting statement of the incidents of the voyage, the scenes through which he was led in its course, and the character, situation, and resources of the numerous islands explored. It is written in an agreeable and familiar style, and contains a large amount of information which, up to the present moment, remains emphatically *terra incognita*.

- 4.—*The Life of Christ; or, a Critical Examination of his History.* By Dr. DAVID FREDERICK STRAUSS. Translated from the German, and reprinted from an English edition. New York: Republished by G. Vale.

This is a reprint of an English edition of this remarkable work. Dr. Strauss does not agree either with the rational interpreters of the Gospel, nor with the orthodox; but considers them in a light different from both. His idea is, that the whole is a mythology; or, in other words, he considers that the idea of Messiah, and all the attendant circumstances, existed in the minds of the Jewish people before Jesus was born; and were, of course, attached to him immediately after he assumed that character. So that he considers the type of the Messiah to have existed previous to the advent of Jesus; and that the peculiarities of his doctrine, and the particulars of his destiny, were combined with that type, and the whole was necessarily modified, till it became definitely fixed in the canonical Gospels.

- 5.—*The Works of Charlotte Elizabeth. With an Introduction.* By MRS. H. B. STOWE. Volume I. Containing Personal Recollections; Osric, (a poem;) the Porhite; the Siege of Derry; Letters from Ireland, and Miscellaneous Poems. New York: M. W. Dodd.

Of the literary character of the writings of Charlotte Elizabeth, we have frequently had occasion to speak; as her works have, from time to time, in rapid succession, been republished in this country. Most of them have passed through several editions, and obtained a circulation so extensive, as to warrant us in expressing the opinion that no female writer, in our day, has had a more numerous class of readers. Her "Personal Recollections," embracing an autobiography of her life and opinions, furnishes a key by which to understand and appreciate the woman, as she appears in her writings. The present edition embraces six of her works, and it is the intention of Mr. Dodd shortly to issue a second volume, or as many as will embrace all that have already been published, and all that may hereafter appear. This plan will enable her admirers to possess the cheapest and handsomest edition, in the most compact and desirable form for a family library.

- 6.—*The Ladies' Work-Table Book; containing Clear and Practical Instructions in Plain and Fancy Needlework, Embroidery, Knitting, Netting, and Crotchet. With numerous engravings, illustrative of the various Stitches in those useful and fashionable employments.* New York: J. Winchester.

The title-page expresses very clearly the object of this handsome little volume; and, as far as we are capable of judging, the design of the writer is accomplished in a manner that cannot fail of meeting the approval of that portion of our fair countrywomen who would acquire accomplishments at once innocent and useful.

- 7.—*Proceedings of the Naval Court-Martial, in the case of Alexander Slidell Mackenzie, &c. To which is added, An Elaborate Review.* By JAMES FENNIMORE COOPER. New York: Henry G. Langley.

The report of the proceedings of the court, in this melancholy and tragic affair, is full and complete; and the review by Mr. Cooper, though searching, is, in our view, written with ability, coolness, and impartiality.

- 8.—*History of the War in the Peninsula, and in the South of France, from the year 1807 to the year 1814.* By W. F. P. NAPIER, C. B. In 2 volumes. New York: J. S. Redfield.

When reading Napier's History, and contrasting it with Alison's narrative of the wars of the French Revolution, the mind is often puzzled to ascertain how it is that the effect produced upon the reader is so decidedly dissimilar. Alison, with all his sound morality, excites, in an American citizen, a species of revulsion. On the contrary, Napier imbues the mind with a sensation that he is perusing a writer congenial to himself. The solution is this:—The leaven of rank, servile torism, which is commingled with the whole of Alison's details, conflicts with our republican convictions; while the spirit of freedom that glows in all Napier's delineations, meets a counterpart in the powerful emotions of every philanthropist, who is animated by the true principles of an American citizen. Napier's volume (for the two volumes are bound together, in a large octavo, of 812 pages,) is just adapted to encourage the love of genuine social liberty; to foster international amity, and to render war odious; to excite commiseration for national ignorance and bondage, and to nourish the love of our democratic institutions.

- 9.—*A System of Geography for the Use of Schools, illustrated with more than fifty Cero-graphic Maps, and numerous Wood-cut Engravings.* By SIDNEY E. MORSE, A. M. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The arrangement of this new geography is admirable. The map, questions on the map, and description of each country, are on the same page, (quarto,) or on pages directly opposite; so that the pupil may readily refer from one to the other, without the inconvenience of two books, or even the necessity of turning the leaves. It is, altogether, the most attractive school geography that we have ever seen, and peculiarly well adapted to the improved method of acquiring a knowledge of the science, chiefly by the use of maps.

- 10.—*The Horseman; containing Plain Practical Rules for Riding, and Hints to the Reader, on the Selection of Horses. To which is added, A Sabre Exercise, for Mounted and Dismounted Service.* By H. R. HERSHBERGER, at the U. S. Military Academy, West Point. New York: Henry G. Langley.

The author of this little volume, after a connection of nearly nine years with the cavalry service, and a close observance of everything relating to horsemanship, is certainly competent to convey practical information on all equestrian exercises; which, as far as we are capable of judging, he has done by an easy and progressive method. The treatise is illustrated with cuts, representing the various kinds of bits, paces or gaits of the horse, and practices for the accomplished horseman.

- 11.—*Apostolic Baptism. Facts and Evidences on the Subject and Mode of Christian Baptism.* By C. TAYLOR, Editor of Calmet's Dictionary of the Bible. New York: Saxton & Miles.

The author of this volume maintains that baptism, from "the day of Pentecost, was administered by the apostles and evangelists to infants, and not by submersion." We are rather inclined to the Quaker view of the subject, but consider "baptism and the supper as still beautiful to many a soul—that speak blessed words of significance. Let them continue for such as need them. We want real Christianity—the absolute religion—preached with faith, and applied to life—*being good, and doing good.*"

- 12.—*Miscellaneous Essays on Christian Morals, Experimental and Practical.* By JOHN FOSTER, author of the "Essays on Decision of Character, and Popular Ignorance." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

These essays were originally delivered as lectures, in Bristol, England, to an auditory consisting of various religious denominations, most of whom had long known and appreciated the author's writings. They are free from all sectarian exclusiveness, and are addressed to the understanding and hearts of all good Christians; embracing a wide range of subjects, and varied with an elaborate style of illustration.

13.—*Domestic Tales and Allegories, illustrating Human Life.* By HANNAH MORE. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 32

A selection from the writings of Hannah More, forming a volume of Appleton's "Library for the People, and their Children." The six tales comprised in the volume combine useful instruction, in the most familiar form; and inculcate the purest morals and practical piety, in the exemplary portraits of our constant associates.

14.—*Notes, Critical and Practical, on the Book of Judges. 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 is undoubtedly one of the most erudite Biblical students of the day; and his contributions to sacred literature are received by the orthodox divines, in Europe and America, as standards of criticism.

WORKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

- 1.—*Mirror Library, No. 29. The Odes of Anacreon and Alcebron.* By THOMAS MOORE. New York: Morris & Willis. [One of a cheap and elegant series of the choicest gems of literature, worthy of a niche in every parlor library.]
- 2.—*Saturday Emporium.* New York: Ward & Co. [This new journal has reached its tenth weekly issue, and we are gratified to learn meets the encouragement it so eminently deserves. It is handsomely printed, and conducted with a pure and correct taste and discriminating judgment. Mr. Greene, the editor, is a gentleman of a highly cultivated mind, and a ready and agreeable writer.]
- 3.—*Faith and Knowledge.* By J. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE, D. D. Author of "The Reformation in the 15th Century." Translated from the French, by M. M. BACKUS. New York: John S. Taylor.
- 4.—*Geneva and Rome. Rome Papal, as portrayed by Prophecy and History.* By S. R. L. GAUSSEN, Professor of Divinity. With an Introduction by E. BICKERSTETH, A. M. New York: John S. Taylor.
- 5.—*Electrotype Manipulation. Part 1. Being the Theory, and plain instructions in the Art of working metals, by precipitating them from their solutions, through the agency of Galvanic or Voltaic Electricity. Part 2. Containing the Theory, and Instructions in the Arts of Electro-Plating, Electro-Gilding, and Electro-Etching: with an account of depositing metallic oxides, and of several applications of Electrotype in the Arts.* By CHARLES V. WALKER, Recording Secretary of the London Electrical Society. Illustrated by wood cuts. Philadelphia: Cary & Hart.
- 6.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 39. The Grandfather.* A Novel by the late Miss ELLEN PICKERING, authoress of "Nan Darrell," "The Fright," "The Grumbler," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 7.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 38. The H— Family; Tralinnan, Axel, and Anna; and other Tales.* By FREDERIKA BREMER. Translated by MARY HOWITT. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 8.—*The Spoon, No. 2 and 3.* New York: Harper & Brothers. [A singular work, illustrating domestic manners, &c.]
- 9.—*The Spirit of the Nation; and other Select Political Songs. Parts 1 and 2.* By the Writers of the Dublin Newspaper Press. First American, from the last correct Dublin edition, with additions. New York: Casserly & Sons. [A noble collection of songs, elicited by the great moral movement of a brave, cheerful, witty, warm-hearted, and hospitable race, for freedom from the oppressions of the British Government.]
- 10.—*Rabbah Taken; or the Theological System of Rev. Alexander Campbell, examined and refuted.* By ROBERT W. SANDIS, Pastor of the Presbyterian Church, Bethlehem, New Jersey. New York: Mark H. Newman.
- 11.—*The Wandering Jew.* By EUGENE SUE. Translated from the French Manuscript, by HENRY W. HERBERT, author of "The Brothers," &c. New York: J. Winchester. [Publishing in parts from the advance sheets received from Paris, and purchased by Mr. W. at an expense of 15,000 francs. Three numbers have appeared. It is a work of deep and powerful interest.]
- 12.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 40. Arrah Neil: or, Times of Old. A Romance.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq., author of "Richelieu," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers. [J. Winchester has also published an edition of the same novel.]
- 13.—*Traditions and Fairy Legends of the South of Ireland.* By T. CROFTON CROKER. A new edition, with numerous illustrations and designs, by the Author and others. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.