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MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE,

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HUNT'S  
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

OCTOBER, 1844.

ART. I.—THE TARIFF OF DUTIES IN THE UNITED STATES.\*

THE United States of America hold, at the present time, so important a place amongst civilized nations, that the deliberations of their government nearly always echo back to Europe. We have so much the stronger reason to examine into these, when the measures adopted by Congress are of such a nature as to exercise a great influence on the commerce and industry of other nations. Thus the news of the adoption of the tariff of duties, of September, 1842, produced a great sensation in England and in France. This important act, which is, in fact, one of a series of financial measures of which President Tyler had not approved, and had been vetoed by him twice only, became the law of the Union, by sacrificing all that which was not absolutely a part of it. The demands of the European merchants, their urgent endeavors to interest the diplomacy in getting it modified, for some time kept the hope alive, that the United States would reconsider this great measure; but a new session of Congress has ended, and the tariff in question has not been repealed. It has thus become, what may be called a confirmed principle, and now is the proper time to search out the causes which have determined this resolution. In order to understand it the better, we will place ourselves as much as possible in an American point of view. In doing so, we do not disregard those interests of France which may be affected by it; all our wishes tend towards bringing about such reciprocal and equitable concessions as may insure the activity of our commercial relations, the value of which we do not even believe America has always sufficiently appreciated. In this rapid sketch, we have chiefly desired to follow the history of the facts, opinions and sentiments, which have brought the American people to the present protective system. She did not have France in

\* This paper appeared in "*La Revue Des Deux Mondes*," for July, 1843. The present translation is from a copy of it, politely forwarded to us by our valued correspondent, the author, M. D. L. Rodet, of Paris.—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

view, in framing the articles of the new tariff; the experience of the past made it desirable for America to secure her independence, in creating at home such productive forces as might be useful to her in war, as well as in peace. We will not dissemble that we had formed this wish with her, and that, in this respect, we believe that there are no truths in the science of political economy, so absolute, that they may not be modified by strong political considerations.

The duties received into the treasuries of governments, on the importation, the circulation, the sale, the consumption and the exportation of provisions and merchandise, have generally been established as sources of revenue. It is in this point of view alone, that they are still regarded by the nations which have remained in an imperfect state of civilization, and amongst whom the study of economical laws has made no progress; but enlightened nations have discovered the extensive influence which duties have upon home manufactures, and on the production and the development of public wealth. They have used the tariff as a means of exciting their own citizens, and also as a means of enfeebling their rivals; and before fixing the rate of duties to be imposed, each state has reserved to itself the examination of the circumstances, by which the general home production has been governed, and the differences which may exist between its situation and that of other nations with which it is connected by commerce.

Great difficulties present themselves to the legislator, when the laws of production are not homogeneous with the country which he is called to govern. If the people, scattered over a vast territory, find that in manners, in their social situation, in climate, from different soils, and by being more or less inclined to the arts of industry, they are divided into great factions, having opposite interests, the problem of conciliation will never be definitely solved, but continually reproduced. The factions which believe themselves wronged, will remain in a state of sullen discontent with this or that law of the often imperceptible numerical majority, which clogs the deliberations of all representative governments. Such is, in fact, the particular situation of the United States.

The political contract which made a whole of the different states of the Union, has secured to each state so great an independence, that no state can be prejudiced by any law designed to unite opposing commercial interests. The federal league does not possess a coercive force, strong enough to prevent all legislative movements from being enfeebled by the fear of leading debate to the limits of threats of separation. If we look at the diverse origin of this new people, at the causes which have favored their rapid increase, at the influences which peculiar social positions exercise in different manners, we can, without difficulty, account for the opposite interests which these divisions keep up.

Geographically considered, the great region of the United States presents an immense seacoast on the Atlantic ocean, at the east, and on the Gulf of Mexico, at the south. On the north, the St. Lawrence and the lakes, separate it from the English possessions. At the southwest, it is bounded by Mexico and Texas. A part of this vast extent of territory, is, as yet, but nominally possessed by the American Union. As the population gradually develops, it will serve as a theatre for the enterprise of coming generations—we mean, the extreme west, or that part beyond the Rocky Mountains. While civilization has been on the march, it has fur-



nished an asylum for the remains of the savage tribes, which ever since the foundation of the colonies, the European has driven before him.

The real part of the Union is at present composed of twenty-six states, which are members of the confederation, and are represented in Congress; of three territories, which their still too feeble population has not been able to raise to the same rank; and of the federal district of Columbia, the capital of which is Washington, the seat of the central government.

If we consider private interests, the influence of which on the political votes is very great, we may divide the United States into four grand divisions, the views and tendency of which we will examine. These are:

1st. The northeast region, comprising ten states, the population of which, according to the census of 1840, is 6,853,797 free inhabitants and 3,370 slaves.

2d. The southwest region, comprising five states and the district of Columbia, having 2,394,975 free inhabitants and 1,396,975 slaves.

3d. The northwest region, comprising four states and two territories, and inhabited by 2,967,476 free persons and 364 slaves.

4th. The southwest region, comprising seven states and one territory, and inhabited by 2,377,205 free persons and 1,086,404 slaves.

If we add to this estimate 6,100 seamen, which are not comprehended therein, we find the whole population to be 14,581,653 free, and 2,487,113 slaves; in all, 17,062,566 inhabitants.

In 1810, (thirty years before,) the census of the population was found to be 6,048,450 free persons and 1,191,364 slaves; in all, 7,239,814 souls.

If we express in round numbers, the two regions of north and south, we find that the actual free population is

For the north, 9,800,000, }	
For the south, 4,800,000, }	14,600,000
The entire slave population of the south,.....	2,500,000
	17,100,000
Total,.....	17,100,000

In this increase of 150 per cent for thirty years, which increase has been proportionally more rapid during the last ten years, the different states have advanced unequally. The increase has been feeble in the southeastern states, which have hardly received any part of the European emigrations, and more considerable in the northeastern states, which are the home of manufactures and commerce; it has also been very large in the new northwestern and southwestern states, which have been overrun with foreign populations, and have also attracted enterprising men from the states on the seacoast.

In order to make our observations more intelligible, we will devote a few lines to enumerating the different states which we regard as constituting parts of the great divisions which we have marked out.

The northeastern region is formed of six states, which have been called New England; Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, all which, together, have 2,233,000 inhabitants. These states owe their origin to the puritan colonies, whom religious prosecution had driven away from the mother country. The spirit of enterprise, love of work, agriculture and navigation, have made this strong

race conquer the roughness and sterility of an ungenial soil. We add to these, on account of the similarity of interests, the four more southern states, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware, which represent 4,602,000 inhabitants. This part of the Union had its principal origin in the foreign colonies recovered by England before they were much settled, and in the land ceded to William Penn and the Quakers. Here is the principal centre of foreign commerce and navigation, of accumulated wealth and of a growing civilization; and is the route which the traveller is almost obliged to take in going to the west. Slavery, which still exists in the other maritime states, has disappeared from this part of the country.

The southeastern region includes Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and the district of Columbia. These states are the ancient colonies, which took a part with the northeastern states in the revolutionary war. Their products being those of agriculture, they have retained slavery; and the advantage of fine seaports, assures to them a direct commerce with foreign nations.

The new states are formed of the countries, to which the treaty of 1783 gave the rights of the Union, and of subsequent acquisitions. With the exception of Florida, and of the states which are washed by the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, they are shut in, in the grand valley of the Mississippi and its tributary streams, the mouth and only outlet of which is by New Orleans. Great Britain has given up to the federal Union, its pretensions to the territory which is situated between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi, and which has been granted to it, by France, in the treaty of 1763. At this last period, Spain had acquired the possession, under the name of Louisiana, of the vast extent of land, which, without definite limits, stretches from the western banks of the Mississippi all the way to the Pacific ocean. In 1800, it ceded to France this splendid part of the globe, and two years later, a new treaty put the United States in possession of it, and its actual limits were determined upon in 1821, at the time of the cession of Florida. We have included these states in one division on account of their social condition.

The northwestern region, from which slavery is excluded, is composed of the four following states: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Michigan, and of the two territories of Iowa and Wisconsin. Hitherward, the European farmers who emigrate, are continually wending their way, having decided to cultivate the land, purchased for a low price, themselves, and which they cover with rich harvests and herds of cattle.

The southwestern region, to which we attach the Gulf of Mexico, comprehends seven states: Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Missouri, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama and the territory of Florida. The cultivation of tobacco, cotton and sugar, is advanced by the slave population, transported from the older states, on a soil, the fertility of which surpasses all the hopes that the enterprising people who had settled it, had dared to conceive.

This natural division of the Union, explains the opposing interests of its different parts, and the difficulties experienced in attempting to conciliate them. Political management makes these difficulties still more complicated: the whig, or moderate party, is friendly to the manufacturing interest, and the radical party defeats all its efforts for the sake of protecting agriculture and its products. In order to appreciate their rea-

sonings, we cannot do better than to examine the course which the United States took, up to the time they were acknowledged as a distinct nation.

No history is more worthy of interest than that of men, for whom is reserved the task of founding new colonies, which afterward become large states. Generally condemned to a perpetual exile from their mother country, they have a long contest to bear up against, before gathering any fruits from their laborious industry. They have but little aid to expect from the government of their old country, and when it troubles itself about them, it is less for the sake of their prosperity, than selfish advantage. The colonists of New England were obliged, at first, to ask from a rebel soil, the means of providing for the most immediate wants of life; the second point, was to procure means of exchange so as to obtain the comforts of life, and, at length, to secure the enjoyment of wealth.

The products of the chase and of fishery, the furs received from the hands of savages, navigation, the exploring of primitive forests and the rude arts, enabled them to pay for the articles which they were obliged to get from the metropolis. As long as Great Britain maintained the sway of these precious colonies, she was always careful to traverse every sign of development of such works of industry as might enter into competition with the metropolis; but it was difficult for her to crush the spirit of enterprise which strove to break these fetters. The attempts were continually renewed, to replace, by domestic products, the articles in daily use, the materials for which were found in the country. At the end of the 17th century, the colonists endeavored to make use of the wool of their flocks, and also of the hemp and flax which they were busy in cultivating. They manufactured, at first, for their own consumption, cloths of the coarsest kind. At this, England was soon in motion; and an act of parliament, of 1699, prohibited the exportation, in any port of the American plantations, for whatsoever destination it might be, of wool, gathered, spun or manufactured, in these colonies. Twenty years later, in 1719, the house of commons proclaimed, that the object of the establishment of manufactures in the colonies, was to diminish their dependence upon Great Britain; and thus, politics aided in confirming the prohibitions demanded by particular interests.

A report called for, by the house of commons, and submitted to it in 1732, shows that, notwithstanding the high price of manual labor in the young colonies, the condition of the American manufactures was perceptibly ameliorated. The local legislation of Massachusetts had encouraged the manufacture of paper. Pennsylvania, New York, Connecticut and Rhode Island, found resources in cultivating grain, and in raising cattle and sheep. The wool, which was abundant, and consequently without value, had started the idea of manufacturing the ordinary cloths in domestic use. Hemp and flax, of which there was also plenty, was transformed into coarse cloths, sacks, belts and cords, of more durability than the same articles imported. Leather and iron, though inferior to that of the metropolis, and several articles of minor importance, were also among these productions demanded by local wants. The articles exported from the different states, consisted of grain, wood, planks, tar, pitch, hogs, cattle, horses, furs and products of fishery. These articles, likewise, were the foundation for the traffic with the tropical colonies, from whence Amer-

ica obtained sugar, rum, cocoa, cotton and also money, which came opportunely to pay the balance due the merchants of the metropolis.

This spirit of industry, continuing to make England feel uneasy, parliament, after the report of 1732, recommended to the chamber of commerce to consider what means would throw the colonies back to the production of articles that might be useful to the metropolis, and chiefly of naval munitions. A series of partial acts was the consequence of this recommendation. The object of all these was to fetter or discourage some particular branches of manufacture, such as that of iron, or of hats; and forty years rolled on, during this sullen contest between the powers of the metropolis and the American colonies, who regarded the measures of which they were the victims, as so many blows aimed at their natural rights. These grievances, together with the exactions of the crown, contributed to develop the germs of a disaffection which ended in the declaration of independence.

New England and its neighboring states, which we have designated as the northeastern section, was the principal seat of the rising industry which the metropolis sought to divert; the southeastern states, with the exception of Virginia, were devoted to little else besides agriculture. Their mild climate allowed the cultivation of certain products, which, far from clashing with the products of Great Britain, furnished them, on the contrary, with numerous means of barter. Tobacco, rice, indigo, besides numerous articles produced simultaneously with the north, served as the basis for an important commerce. Such was the commercial situation of America when the war of independence broke forth.

The ocean, almost entirely closed to the Americans during the seven or eight years this contest lasted, did not allow the colonies to receive their customary supply from the markets of Europe. It was now necessary to have recourse to the imperfect industry of each separate locality, to obtain the articles of the most immediate necessity to domestic life; it became most especially necessary to make great efforts for the manufacture of arms, and all the materials necessary for the defence of the country. At the peace of 1783, the confederate states ought, doubtlessly, to have persevered in this course, but the tie which united them was still too feeble. Each colony, jealous of its independence, found it difficult to yield to a general legislation. The maxim of the Salem merchants, that the freer commerce is, the more certain is its prosperity, prevailed. The tariff was calculated only as a means of revenue, and the low rate of duties encouraged excessive importations, out of proportion, in value, to the products offered in exchange. The cash obtained from the two belligerent powers, France and England, to pay the troops and the expenses of the war, and which had enriched the country, soon disappeared. The consequence was a universal distress, the ruin of manufactures, of agriculture, and, at length, of commerce, which fell a victim to its own errors. Disastrous measures, which absolute necessity alone could justify, were the consequence. The year 1786, was made remarkable by an insurrection which placed society itself in peril; and after having been on the borders of an abyss, the confederation was saved only by the adoption of a new constitution.

This constitution, which still serves as a band to unite all the states, took effect in 1789; and the second act, passed by the first Congress, was the *tariff of duties*. Agriculture and commerce, were then popular; their

voice predominated, and the cause of the rising manufactures was sacrificed. In the infancy of their establishments, the manufacturers had to contend with feeble capitals, a small number of machines, a want of experience and a high price of manual labor, against their foreign rivals, who were in the possession of immense capitals, an unlimited credit, many years of experience, a complete protection on the home markets and paid but very low wages, besides all which they had bounties for exportations. Such was the relative situation of the local industry, when the insufficient protection accorded them, reduced them to the lowest straits. We can judge how this happened, on considering that out of \$24,341,504 worth of foreign merchandise, which paid ad valorem duties in 1789-90,

\$21,742,291	were taxed at	5	per cent.
1,587,365	“	7½	“
1,004,367	“	10	“
5	“	12½	“
7,576	“	15	“

These duties, much inferior to those which the state of Pennsylvania had established in 1785, before Congress was invested with the power, fell lightest on manufactured products. The first imports were taxed in inverse ratio; for the articles manufactured of cotton and of hemp, paid 5 per cent, whilst the raw material of cotton and hemp bore a fixed equal duty of 12 per cent; and the objects of general consumption, coffee, molasses, sugar and tea, at from 16 to 40 per cent; coal, 10 per cent; cheese, 57; and salt, 75. At the same time, the American navigation was favored by an enormous tariff of tonnage and coast duties.

The agriculturist and the foreign trader, thought they had accomplished everything in being protected against foreign competition, and in being able to obtain manufactured articles at a low rate. Thus the tariff continued about twenty years, during which, the American navigation, receiving the fruits of its neutrality in the midst of the contest in which the powers of Europe were engaged, contributed to develop the prosperity of the Union; but, in spite of all its power, America could not avoid taking a part in the conflict. Congress, in 1807, was obliged to proclaim a general embargo, and the states of the confederation found themselves deprived of all the articles which Great Britain furnished them with, and obliged again to reflect on the importance native manufactures might be to them. The House of Representatives ordered, in 1809, the reprint of a report made to Congress, in 1791, by Alexander Hamilton, on the state of the home manufactures at that period, and charged Albert Gallatin with new researches on their present situation. The writings of others on the subject, by different public officers, revised by Tench Coxe, estimated the total product of American manufactures, in 1810, at \$127,694,602, or more than 760,000,000 of francs.

The war of 1812, happening to take place at this time, again shut out foreign products, and again directed the public mind to the home industry. A considerable capital was invested in it, and the manufactures developed immensely, although transiently, for the return of peace; in 1815, was the signal of their ruin. The ports being reopened, Great Britain poured into the country such a quantity of manufactured articles, that the American market was overstocked. A number of English houses were ruined, but the American manufacturer was crushed by the same blow. The



English policy, at this time, was clearly explained, in the words addressed by Brougham to the assembled parliament: "It is well worth while to suffer some losses on the first exportation, since by that means we choke, in their birth, the manufactures of the United States, to which, against the natural course of things, the war had given rise."

The national mind, however, believed in the importance of the protection which American industry demanded; and, in 1816, legislation began to be directed towards this object. The tariff of 1816, was a step towards effecting this, but only a timid and embarrassed step, and did not obtain the entire suffrages of either of the divided interests.

The United States had grown, and their power was developed with their new acquisitions and the attempts to make a rich unexplored heritage valuable. At the period to which we have now arrived, the deliberations of Congress began to feel the weight of the influence of the southwestern and northwestern sections. The agriculturist of these countries, the colonization of which marched rapidly onward, was sustained by the inhabitants of the old southeastern states. They altogether wished, that the protection accorded to the manufacturing industry of the northeast, should be only temporary and decreasing, and all the tariffs have contained provisions to this effect; thus woollen stuffs were, in June, 1816, charged with a duty of 25 per cent, which was to be reduced to 20 per cent, in June, 1819.

We cannot, here, enter into considerations of each article of the tariff of 1816, which experienced some modifications in 1818: In the year 1824, the duties on articles manufactured of cotton and wool were reduced. Great Britain responded to this measure, by lowering the import duties on raw wool, five-sixths below their former standard, so that the manufacturers might continue their exportations. In consequence of this, the American manufacturers addressed themselves to Congress, and the result of their demands was the celebrated tariff of 1828, which raised the duties on woollen goods considerably.

A period of prosperity in the American finances, and the almost entire extinction of the federal debt, caused the question of revenue to be again examined. Two parties arose, the one advocating free trade and proposing a reduction of all the duties on imported merchandise to a uniform and very low rate, the other favoring the reduction of the duties on all the articles that could not be produced in the country, or compete with American labor, and demanding that the tariff on the rest should remain. After a violent discussion, the last system prevailed in Congress, and in July, 1832, the modified tariff was adopted, to take effect the following year. The resistance of the state of South Carolina, almost led to the separation of the Union, and was the cause of the act of compromise due to the wisdom of the negotiations of Henry Clay. The modified tariff was voted in the winter of 1833, took effect the 30th June of the same year, and was to continue till June 30th, 1842. The principal provisions of this tariff, were, that all duties imposed which exceeded 20 per cent ad valorem, should be diminished from year to year so as to make them all at that rate at the expiration of the law. This act also enumerates the articles, which after this period shall be received duty free, and it declares (attempting to limit the power of future legislation) that, after the 30th of June, 1842, no import duties shall exceed 20 per cent; and also, that



these duties shall be established only for the object of procuring the revenue needed for an economical administration of the government.

At this period of 1833, the decline of the southeastern states was already distinctly marked: for the exportations had been

	1821.	1832.
From Virginia,.....	\$1,078,000	\$550,000
“ South Carolina,.....	3,000,000	1,213,000
“ New York,.....	23,000,000	57,000,000

This comparison shows us the rapidity with which the seat of navigation and commerce was changed to New York, which, more fortunately situated, had drawn the principal part of the business away from Boston and Salem, as well as from Richmond and Charleston. The states of New England, during the tariff of 1833, attached themselves to the manufacturing industry, the products of which, in the state of Massachusetts alone, exceeded the value of \$90,000,000 and kept 120,000 persons at work. The small town of Lowell, which dates as far back only as 1824, had, in 1840, a population of 21,000 inhabitants, 9,000 of which are working people, and two-thirds of these, females; and furnishes annually 60,000,000 yards of cloths, and consumes 20,000,000 pounds of cotton.

Although the commercial changes have been brought about by various causes, we will here endeavor to explain the course of the commerce of the United States, during the three last years, and under the tariff of 1833.

We will divide it amongst the three maritime regions, not being able to include the northwestern therein, which is obliged to borrow the territories of the northeast or of the southwest to communicate with foreign nations. The value in money, of exportations, was—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
For the Northeastern states,....	\$49,890,133	\$53,393,360	\$52,095,146
“ Southeastern “ ....	27,051,269	28,587,923	23,462,636
“ Southwestern “ and those on the gulf,...	44,087,014	50,104,663	46,294,021
Total,.....	\$121,028,416	\$132,085,746	\$121,851,803

The value of importations, was—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
For the Northeastern states,....	\$138,818,450	\$87,146,807	\$108,040,700
“ Southeastern “ ....	11,781,575	8,369,513	8,782,611
“ Southwestern “ and those on the gulf,...	13,492,107	11,624,923	11,122,866
Total,.....	\$162,092,132	\$107,141,243	\$127,946,117

The value of the principal articles of merchandise, exported, was—

<i>American Products.</i>	1839.	1840.	1841.
Cotton,.....	\$61,238,982	\$63,870,307	\$54,330,341
Tobacco,.....	9,832,943	9,883,957	12,576,703
Rice,.....	2,460,198	1,942,076	2,010,107
Flour,.....	6,925,170	10,143,615	7,759,646
Pork,.....	1,771,230	1,894,894	2,621,537
Articles manufac'd of cotton, ..	2,975,033	3,549,607	3,112,546
Divers articles,.....	18,330,535	22,611,178	23,971,842
	\$103,534,091	\$113,895,634	\$106,382,722
For. merchandise re-exported, ..	17,494,325	18,190,312	15,469,081
Total,.....	\$121,028,416	\$132,085,946	\$121,851,803

The value of the principal articles, imported, was—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Woollen goods,.....	\$17,594,536	\$8,628,752	\$11,012,468
Cotton ".....	14,692,397	6,504,484	12,841,535
Silk ".....	21,752,369	9,835,757	17,188,235
Glassware,.....	962,322	563,429	571,459
Iron, in bars, and wrought,.....	12,038,205	6,712,691	8,885,883
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Divers articles,.....	\$67,039,829	\$32,245,113	\$50,499,580
Tea,.....	72,960,279	55,341,948	54,836,787
Tea,.....	2,428,419	5,427,010	3,362,186
Coffee,.....	9,744,103	8,546,222	10,444,882
Sugar,.....	9,919,502	5,580,950	8,802,742
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total,.....	\$162,092,132	\$107,141,243	\$127,946,177

We see, by this table, that, in the course of three years, the value of exportations has been lower than the value of importations (leaving out of view the freight) about \$22,000,000, or more than 115,000,000 of francs. The five preceding years, from 1834 to 1838, show a difference in the same scale, of \$140,000,000, or 735,000,000 of francs. This state of affairs, making the United States debtors in more and more important sums to the European states, in 1837, brought on a commercial crisis of the most violent kind, the consequences of which are not yet effaced. The almost entire exportation of specie reduced nearly all the banks to a suspension of payment, which, in the greater part of them, ended in failure. The equilibrium of society was entirely disturbed, and, in spite of the resistance of the spirit of speculation, the evil became so serious that Congress was obliged to consider what remedies might be available.

On examining the provisions of the tariff of 1842, we are convinced that the idea which dictated it, was not that of increasing the federal revenue. The raising of duties on nearly all manufactured merchandise, shows that no regard has been had for the receipts, which would have been the result of moderate imposts. Coffee and tea, for instance, are left duty free; and they might have made two great sources of revenue, because they have always been considered articles of food in general use, the price of which might have some influence on the rate of manual labor. Congress, for the sake of consistency, saw fit to moderate the duties on wines, so as not to restrict the use of them to the wealthy alone.

The tariff was established for the object of developing home manufactures, and with this purpose in view, it particularly favors the northeastern region, and the state of Virginia, which belongs to the southeastern region, and which, on account of the activity and genius of its inhabitants, has taken a foremost position in all the branches of production. The southwestern states enjoy their share of protection, by the duty on raw sugar, which is at the rate of two and a half cents per pound, or from 60 to 75 per cent on the first cost in foreign colonies; the central states and those of the northwest, by the exclusion of foreign spirits and the increased tax on agricultural products. They also enjoy indirect advantages by the consumption of the neighboring states.

The United States, although they hardly seem to be aware of it themselves, have this time entered more firmly into the commercial system adopted by all the nations of Europe, namely, that of protection to home labor and the agriculture of the interior; which same position they took at their origin with regard to their maritime system. Happily for them,

they have stopped at high tariffs without going as far as absolute prohibition—the worst of all protections, because it saps the commercial life of the country instead of directing or exciting industry in new channels. If they persevere, there is no doubt they will be obliged to demand contributions from the different states, by imposts on property, excise or local taxes, for providing for the expenses of the federal government and the common defence. The time cannot be far distant, when the duties must produce so little, that the necessity of relying upon the local taxes will appear. The tie which unites the different parts of the Union, will, by this circumstance, become closer and more powerful. This result will not be obtained without much resistance. The tariff is not popular in the southeast, southwest and northwest, except as to that part of it which relates to the small number of articles which these extensive countries can furnish. No one can imagine that the manufacturer of the northeast has any right to expect a higher price for his articles, than for foreign goods; these prices will, in fact, be reduced by the concurrence of the interior, but which, before such concurrence, are kept up for the sake of preserving harmony between the different parts of the national commonwealth.

England, in order to be free in its maritime contests, is endeavoring to naturalize the cultivation of cotton in India. Her first attempts have not succeeded; but if she succeeds in overcoming the obstacles which have made them fail, she will develop this important culture in the countries of which she is the sovereign, as she already has done with regard to indigo, the cultivation of which has been removed from Mexico, Guatemala, St. Domingo, Louisiana, Carolina and the isle of Maurice, to Bengal and the neighboring provinces. If the cultivation of cotton be transplanted, the United States will lose a great part of their means of exchange; and hence it is good policy to favor the increase of home consumption, which is daily tending to increase.

Other American products, such as tobacco and rice, will always be exported from the United States. These are products to which all nations have free access; but corn, flour, domestic animals, wood and planks, are prohibited, or taxed again, in Great Britain and over nearly the whole of Europe. The English possessions, in the American and African seas, would seem by nature to be open for American products; but, as is shown by a report to Congress, of April 14th, 1842, the fetters on American navigation are so strong, that they are equivalent to absolute prohibition, and the principle of reciprocal concession is entirely done away with. The numerous griefs, on both sides, make of themselves a long and interesting history.

The official table of importations and of exportations, ought sometimes to be rectified, by the calculation of particular circumstances which accompany commercial movements; but the errors in this respect, in the United States, are but small, inasmuch as commercial prices serve as a basis for the valuations, and the table comprises even the precious metals which serve as a common standard to the value of everything else. We may deduct, from the excess of importations over exportations, that America has sustained the disproportion of a circulating medium with the wants of exchange, only by a vicious system of internal banks. This immoderate emission of paper, can, however, not occur again; and the value of imported merchandise must become pretty near the same as that of the products given in exchange. Two-thirds of the expenses of transporta-

tion are gained by the American flag. The remittances belonging to the operations of the public funds, should also be considered in the calculation of this balance, which demands numerous investigations to arrive at a sufficient degree of exactness; the state of exchanges, and the transportation of cash across the Atlantic, suffice, however, to indicate the reciprocal situation of the commercial powers in this respect.

Since 1841, Russia, Portugal, France, Belgium, the United States and the German Union, have increased the duties on foreign products. If we study with care, the changes adopted by Great Britain, we shall find that, penetrated with the idea of the misery which afflicts her working classes, and seeing the circle about her contract, she is trying, by lightening the duties on the articles of consumption, to maintain some portion of her ancient influence, in diminishing the price of manual labor, and, perhaps, to engage other nations to make liberal concessions. It is on her, that the tariff of the United States weighs the heaviest. She has so long been sworn to the interdiction of the industry of Americans, that now, she is astonished at the immense vacuum which the cessation of the demand produces in her market. France does not feel the mischief so much, for her exports to America consist principally of merchandise, against which, American competition has not been excited in the same degree.

Time will teach us the final consequences of the tariff of 1842. Some of them can be foreseen even now, and every day brings with it new revelations.

We do, however, not suppose that the last word has been said to the United States, on this great question. The coming presidential election, will again lay it before the two political parties who are disputing the power. One of them favors a system of protection only with regard to the agricultural interest, and if it succeeds, the actual taxes may suffer great reductions. While looking for the result, the arguments on both sides are being urged; and we will now examine with impartiality, the reasons alleged, *pro. and con.*

The partisans of a moderate tariff on foreign products, lean back on the example of England, where a system of high protection for the national productions, has produced on the one hand, an excess of wealth for the proprietors and manufacturers, and on the other, the utmost degree of poverty and misery for the working classes. The superabundance of work, offered in every variety of form, has brought on the depreciation of wages, whilst the high taxes acting on all the articles of importation, have kept up the prices of food, and of all the articles necessary to existence.

It is said, that England would have been able to preserve the empire of the markets of the whole world, if she had admitted from abroad, at light duties, articles of food, in exchange for her manufactured goods, which then would be accepted with less repugnance. But she has laid heavy imposts on the manufacturer and his assistants, for the advantage of the agriculturist; she has taxed the agriculturist, for the advantage of the manufacturer; and both, for the protection of navigation. The colonies are taxed for the good of the mother country, which, in its turn, has to bear taxes intended for colonial protection. The result of this, is a complete circle of taxes, the surplus of which, after the expenses of collecting them have been paid, serves to maintain the power and the glory of the country, to which the happiness and well-being of the mass of the

people are sacrificed, to such an extent, that one-sixth of the population are in a starving condition.

Now let us pass to more immediate consideration. The opponents of the protective system, say that it favors only eight or ten of the states of the Union, (those which we have comprised in the northeastern division.) They show that, in the production of wool, the manufacture of woollens, iron, leather and cotton, this region produced for the interior consumption, in 1840, \$102,000,000, (535,500,000 francs,) while the other parts of the Union furnished only \$23,000,000 in the same articles, (130,750,000 francs,) and as a consequence of it, the protection was established too openly in their favor; which must necessarily operate abroad so as to keep up the exportation of the agricultural products of the states, whose manufactures are less protected. Nor is this their only complaint: for the high duties of 35 per cent, taxes the consumers of the agricultural states with an enormous amount, to the advantage of the northeastern states.

Furthermore, this system has brought with it consequences, which were not foreseen. The states producing cotton, are contriving to establish rival manufactures. The agriculturist of the west, is doing the same with regard to wool; and all are trying to rear up the domestic animals and cultivate the grain, which formerly they got from their neighbors. This internal struggle, again produces embarrassment in the foreign competition.

On the other hand, the partisans of the protective system, say that it is impolitic to let commerce regulate itself; that the rest of society, not being able to take part with the merchants in the operations to which the country should limit itself in order to continue in a prosperous situation, it follows, as a consequence, that the channels of circulation are continually overstocked and lead to ruin and disasters. Perhaps, if foreign countries, in exchange for the manufactured articles furnished, would receive liberally the grain and the products of America, under moderate taxes on both sides, the United States would find it difficult to solve the question now agitated. If such were the case, a simple change of legislation in Europe, on grain, for instance, would lower the prices of the principal provisions in America; then cash would be exported, and all confidence in the circulating medium would disappear. The impossibility of paying debts without either cash or credit, would again plunge all the business classes into bankruptcy. Wages and products would fall to so low a rate, that manufactories could be carried on as cheaply as in England. Such is the perspective which free trade, considered in its different phases, presents; but, can any one imagine that this would solve the difficulty?

Would it be wise for a people to engage in their own ruin, because once ruined, the price of labor and of provisions would fall so much that it would be advantageous to begin operations anew? And would these enterprises stand any chance of durability? At the first glow of prosperity, would not English exports again be poured into the market, bringing with them the repetition of all the former disasters?

The true and sound policy of the American government, they add, is to contend against the aggressive policy of its rivals; to set restrictions against restrictions, duties against duties; to protect and favor its manufactures, as Great Britain protects its agriculture, and thus to guard the people from the bottomless abyss of foreign debt and bankruptcy; to ex-



tend the sphere of their industry, and to place their national independence on a profound basis.

The consequence of the navigation act, which would not have made the power of England so great, if, since the middle of the 17th century, France, Holland and Spain, had not responded to it by similar provisions, has not escaped the defenders of the protective system. As we are forced to keep within bounds, we will not extend further the exposition of the reasons alleged by the partisans of free trade and those of protection, we will take a last eye glance on what is now actually going on in America.

In the northeastern states, the manufacturing interest is progressing, and will maintain itself until the wages for manual labor will form an equilibrium with the tariff. The tariff, as it now is, warrants a liberal remuneration for manual labor; it insures to the working man an honorable rank in society, such as no one of his kith, in Europe, can ever hope to occupy. Here, the materials produced by the other states of the Union, and also the provisions necessary for subsistence, find more and more important consumers. The prices of manufactured articles are reduced by competition and improvement, and the increasing exports indicate the results which the accumulation of capitals and intelligence, directed into the channels of industry, are daily bringing about.

The southeastern and southwestern sections, continue to cry out against the high prices which are the consequence of the protective system. They will never rest satisfied until political interests shall have consolidated the system adopted by Congress. The special products of these two southern regions, insure to them their prosperity; and they will be glad enough for having contributed to found cotton manufactures in the north, and finding consumers in the interior, if Great Britain succeeds in naturalizing the production of the plant in India. While this remains problematical, the ports are open for the products of an immense culture; and if the prices are not now so high, it is owing to the downfall of speculations which were sustained by an unwarrantably extravagant credit, and to the reaction which has restored security in business.

The fertile countries of the northwest, have nothing to expect from Europe. The grain and the domestic animals which they raise so easily, are excluded from nearly all the markets. Uncleared land costs scarcely a dollar and a half an acre, and the laborious emigrant has, with the smallest capital, the means of settling with his family in easier circumstances than he ever would have dreamed of in his mother country. This land of promise, responding to the least efforts, frightens the old countries of Europe by the abundance which it threatens them with; and our legislators are forced every year to make laws prohibiting any product coming from there, whatsoever it be, at the moment it makes its appearance. The European laws, with respect to grain, animals, wool and everything that serves for food or clothing, have, up to a certain point, provoked the provisions of the American tariff.

In fine, on considering the influence of the tariff on the American Union as a whole, we find that it insures to it the return of a change that is becoming more and more favorable to its relations with Europe; the re-establishment, in the interior, of the necessary means of exchange, so as to make banking operations safer; a greater security in case of war; and, finally, in spite of all opposition, the prospect of a new combination of the public revenue offering more guarantee than that which has



existed up to this day. Perhaps the partial modifications in the long nomenclature of taxed articles, will soon be acknowledged necessary; but in taking exceptions to the system, they approve of it. They will be the price of analogous concessions on the part of the European states, and the result of treaties maturely discussed. The negotiators for both parties, will understand well how important a conciliation is, to the prosperity of America, as well as to that of Europe.

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ART. II.—MAINE AND ITS RESOURCES.

THE most northern state of New England, Maine, possesses, in the nature of the soil and in its geographical position, resources that are exceeded by those of few states in the Union. Although it may be regarded as a new state, inasmuch as a considerable portion of its territory, and this comprising some of its most fertile tracts is yet in its primeval wilderness, yet it contains the largest territorial surface, and is the second in population of any within the New England section of the country. The climate, as it is well known, is in a comparatively high latitude, yet it is productive, yielding to industrious husbandry adequate crops. It abounds in minerals of considerable value. It is penetrated by broad and deep navigable rivers, and is washed by a line of seacoast more extensive than that of any other of the states. Its forests produce abundantly, the most valuable sorts of timber for house and ship-building. The coast is indented, at convenient distances, with safe harbors for its shipping, which is employed in the coastwise trade, the fishery and foreign commerce; but more than all, it possesses, in its sagacious, intelligent, prudent, moral and industrious population, a source of prosperity, without which, the most distinguished advantages of soil, climate or geographical position, would be of little avail. It is the design of the present paper to exhibit these resources, and to show, in a condensed form, how far the energy of its people has rendered them available.

The soil is various in its character, being rocky, or of a sandy or clayey composition, for some miles from the seacoast; but, in advancing into the interior, it is found more fertile, and is certainly superior to the general quality of the soil in other parts of New England. Wheat, potatoes, rye, Indian corn and oats, are among its principal agricultural products; its forests produce vast quantities of pine and hemlock-timber, which constitute the staple of a considerable portion of its export trade; and among its mineral products, are granite, slate, lime, iron and all the materials for the manufacture of glass.

Nor is the state wanting in the picturesque, in natural scenery. Groups of mountains spring from the plains, commanding wide and exhilarating views of the surrounding country, or they rise in solitary grandeur from the hills, imbedded with granite, and presenting sometimes, as in the instance of the Katahdin Mountain, a precipice of 2,000 feet descent. Watered by so many rivers as the state possesses, the valleys are numerous and diversified in soil and scenery, being narrow near the seacoast and bordered by precipitous hills and craggy bluffs, and expanding, as the rivers advance toward the head of tide-water, into broken tracts or an undulating country. The two great valleys are the Penobscot and the

Kennebec, which, together with those of the Androscoggin, Aroostook, St. John and their several branches, contain extensive bodies of fertile alluvial soil. Another peculiar feature of the state, is the numerous lakes which dot the landscape; their shores being abrupt and frowning cliffs, are scenes of placid and quiet beauty. In some of them, islands are placed, and their shores are cultivated fields. Some of them are scarcely larger than parlor mirrors, while others are of sufficient size to be navigable. This is especially true of Moosehead lake, which is 40 miles long, and varying from 1 to 12 miles in width, lying in Piscataquis county, and now navigated by a steamboat. There is scarcely a town in the state, that does not possess some of these reservoirs, and they are various in their form. Sometimes they lie in chains, like strings of crystal beads; and sometimes they are grouped around one common centre, like the stones of an ornament of aqua-marine.

The rivers are numerous, and most of them afford advantages either for commerce or manufactures, the two largest being the Penobscot and the Kennebec. The former is the most extensive in the state, and its length is 220 miles, being navigable to Bangor. It furnishes a channel of great value to this section of the state, and is navigated by numerous vessels, as well as by steamboats, from Boston. The Kennebec is the other principal river of the state, it being 150 miles long, and navigable for vessels of 100 tons as high as Augusta, which is 40 miles from its mouth, and for ships, a distance of 34 miles to Gardiner. The scenery along these rivers is very beautiful, and they are bordered by numerous thriving settlements. There are many other rivers of less size, which either furnish navigable advantages, sites for manufactures or channels for lumber rafts. The St. John is another river of some prominence, inasmuch as it constitutes the northern boundary of Maine, after it is joined by the St. Francis, according to the treaty of 1842. Its whole length is 350 miles, and is navigable for boats of 50 tons 80 miles from its mouth, to which place the tide flows; and also for boats, 200 miles above Grand falls to Baker's lake, within 15 miles of its source.

The sources of the principal rivers are about 2,000 feet above the sea, at their mouths; and the necessary consequence is, that the scenery is adorned with numerous waterfalls. Many of those, not only afford remarkable hydraulic advantages, but are distinguished for their picturesque beauty. They exist, in greater or less numbers, in most of the counties, and nearly all furnish excellent water-power, which is, however, but little improved for purposes of manufacture. Such machinery as is required by an agricultural population, may, however, be found upon them; and, in the newer portions of the state, saw-mills, for the manufacture of lumber, are there at work.

We have before remarked that the coast of Maine is indented with bays and harbors, which afford advantages for the various branches of commerce. Those are, however, so numerous, that we have not space to describe them; yet they are many of them beautiful, and they are also easy of access, spacious and well sheltered from storms. Some of these bays are adorned with islands, which give a peculiar yet pleasing aspect to the water scenery. One of the most important we shall attempt, however, to describe, inasmuch as it washes a part of the eastern shore of Maine, and as it constitutes a prominent channel of communication between the United States and the British provinces of New Brunswick and

Nova Scotia. This is the Bay of Fundy. It sets up northeast round Cape Sable, the most southern part of Nova Scotia, and crosses to the shore of Maine a little west of Frenchman's bay. From Eastport to St. John, in New Brunswick, it is 60 miles. From St. John to Annapolis, in a bay of that name on the Nova Scotia side, is 40 miles, and thence to Halifax, by land, is 80 miles. From Eastport direct to Annapolis, across the bay, it is about 70 miles. The commerce that is prosecuted upon this bay, between the citizens of the United States and our colonial neighbors, is very considerable. They receive from our own soil, bread-stuffs and other agricultural products, while, in return, we have from them large quantities of grindstones and gypsum, which are imbedded along the shores of the bay, and are quarried and taken on board of the vessels moored at the sides of the cliffs.

The numerous islands which stud the coast of Maine, constitute one of its most prominent features, and they are extremely diversified in their character. They exhibit, some of them, nothing but barren rocks, while others are fertile, and are densely-wooded or highly cultivated. Some of them are low and swampy, while others are mountainous. Some are destitute of population, while others are inhabited by a people, who divide their time between the labors of agriculture, the fishery and the coasting trade. The islands along the shores and in its bays, are so numerous, that they can scarcely be designated by name; yet they tend to beautify the scenery, and to furnish shelter for the vessels that navigate that section of the seacoast.

We have given this condensed view of the natural resources of Maine, for the purpose of presenting the general features of the state in that respect. The seacoast, extending for more than 230 miles, and indented by innumerable bays, harbors and islands, renders it peculiarly adapted to foreign commerce; while the rivers, the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the St. Croix, the St. John and the Saco, with their tributaries, the Piscataquis, the Mattamweag, the Androscoggin, the Aroostook, the Walloostook, the St. Francis and the Allagash, penetrating the interior of the state, besides numerous lakes and ponds, give to the agriculturist and the mechanic convenient channels of transportation for their products, and furnish abundant water-power to the manufacturer and the lumberman. The energy of the population, descendants of the Plymouth colony, which made its first lodgment of whites in this state, at York, in 1630, has already made rapid inroads into its forests, and is fast developing its resources. This population presents, in some of its essential features, the traits of the population of Massachusetts, with which it was connected as the district of Maine, until 1820, when it became an independent state.

Considering the short time, a period of only about twenty-three years, since the state has been permitted independent action, it has made rapid advances in other branches of enterprise, especially as connected with agriculture; yet the prominent sources of its prosperity are now comprised in its lumber trade, its ship-building, its fisheries and its crops of potatoes. The abundance of fine timber that is found within its limits, and the numerous streams, which afford channels for rafts or sites for saw-mills, has long rendered its lumber trade of considerable profit; while the material always at hand, and the skill of the people in ship-building, have enabled them to construct vessels of the best models and with as great profit as in any other portion of the Union. The proximity of the state, moreover,

to some of the most valuable fishing grounds of the coast, have induced the hardy and adventurous population, upon the borders and the islands of its bays, to launch their hundreds of fishing vessels into the thousand nooks and bays of the seashores, and even into the most dense fogs of the Grand Bank, for the capture of their finny spoil; while the 500,000 of its population is making rapid inroads into the forest, or advancing, in numerous ways, the common prosperity.

Compared with the greater part of the soil of the west, the land would not be deemed fertile; yet it is more favorable to agriculture than that of the principal portion of New England. The best soil in the state, may be found between the Penobscot and Kennebec, where it is excellent. The mountainous region in the northwest, is not favorable to agriculture, nor is that east of the Penobscot, of a superior quality, excepting around the sources of the St. John and the tributary streams. The less productive portion is, however, favorable for grazing. Among the principal agricultural articles of its export, are beef, pork and particularly potatoes. Yet agricultural enterprise has not advanced with those results, that are witnessed in those portions of the country where the lands are inexhaustible in their fertility, that are cut off, by their geographical position, from the benefits of foreign commerce, and where agricultural enterprise is the principal pursuit. Maine is still a sparsely populated state, containing, according to the census of 1840, a population of 501,793, scattered over a surface of 31,556 square miles; some of its counties are still unsettled, and remain in their original solitude. Yet the enterprise of its population has subdued a considerable portion of its more fertile valleys to agricultural labor, and the banks of its numerous streams are already adorned with prosperous villages and cultivated fields. The returns to which we have alluded, give to the state, upon an average, a population of only  $15\frac{1}{4}$  to a square mile, although, of course, there is great inequality in the amount of settlement in its various parts, some counties being destitute of settlers, while others are densely populated. In 1840, there were produced in the state of Maine, 848,166 bushels of wheat, 355,161 bushels of barley, 1,076,409 bushels of oats, 137,941 bushels of rye, 51,543 bushels of buckwheat, 950,528 bushels of Indian corn, 1,465,551 pounds of wool, 36,940 pounds of hops, 6,723 $\frac{1}{2}$  pounds of wax, 10,392,280 bushels of potatoes, for the production of which the soil is peculiarly adapted, 691,358 tons of hay, 257,464 pounds of sugar, 205,011 cords of wood were sold, and the value of the products of the dairy was \$1,496,902.

But, although Maine may not be considered a prominent agricultural state, yet, in commerce, she stands the third in the Union. The length of her seacoast, her numerous harbors, her general maritime position and the genius of her people, have all conspired to direct the energies of her population to pursuits connected with the sea. Previous to the year 1807, when the wars in Europe gave to the United States a large share of the carrying trade of the world, the inhabitants of this section of New England embarked largely in commerce; and it was only when the embargo locked up her ports, that this enterprise was diverted from the coast to agricultural pursuits in the interior. The total value of imports during the year, ending on the 30th day of September, 1841, was as follows:—

	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
Value of imports,.....	\$574,664	\$126,297	\$700,961
Exports domestic produce,.....	1,029,905	48,728	1,078,633
“ foreign produce,.....	1,649	11,283	12,932

In order to enable our readers to judge somewhat of the actual amount of the commerce of Maine, we subjoin a statement exhibiting the number of American and foreign vessels, with their tonnage and crews, which cleared from each district of the state during the year ending September 30th, 1841 :—

Districts.	American.			Foreign.			Total Amer. and For.		
	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.
Passamaquoddy, ..	49	6,232	254	730	49,903	2,798	779	56,135	3,052
Machias, .....	20	2,843	123	....	.....	.....	20	2,843	123
Penobscot, .....	26	3,654	149	1	338	20	27	3,992	169
Waldoborough, ..	17	2,737	105	....	.....	.....	17	2,737	105
Wiscasset, .....	18	2,867	118	....	.....	.....	18	2,867	118
Bath, .....	108	18,842	827	11	914	54	119	19,756	881
Portland, .....	195	36,895	1,570	74	5,258	340	269	42,153	1,910
Belfast, .....	105	15,373	694	5	266	14	110	15,639	703
Kennebunk, .....	4	835	37	....	.....	.....	4	835	37
Saco, .....	4	486	26	....	.....	.....	4	486	26
Total, .....	546	90,764	3,903	821	56,679	3,226	1,367	147,443	7,124

TONNAGE OF EACH DISTRICT OF MAINE, ON THE 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1841.

Districts.	Agg. tonnage of each District, in tons and 95ths.	PROPORTION OF TONNAGE EMPLOYED IN—				
		Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Mackerel fishery.	Whale fishery.	St'm Nav.
Passamaquoddy, .....	10,588.41	6,901	1,214	553	.....	.....
Machias, .....	14,147.81	12,189	563	.....	.....	.....
Frenchman's Bay, .....	15,427.70	10,827	2,269	.....	.....	.....
Penobscot, .....	36,125.77	23,580	6,351	94	.....	.....
Belfast, .....	39,613.81	30,358	1,327	.....	.....	.....
Waldoborough, .....	51,257.31	34,356	4,557	.....	.....	.....
Wiscasset, .....	13,415.44	2,095	6,715	89	388	.....
Bath, .....	58,050.48	21,466	1,716	55	.....	1,104
Portland, .....	55,009.86	13,843	3,153	498	.....	.....
Saco, .....	2,902.18	1,991	250	.....	.....	.....
Kennebunk, .....	7,709.08	1,188	723	.....	.....	.....
York, .....	1,042.62	729	314	.....	.....	.....
Total, .....	305,290.57	159,523	29,152	1,289	388	1,104

Having given in a former table, a list of the vessels, both American and foreign, with their tonnage and crews, which cleared from each district of Maine during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1841, we subjoin a statement, exhibiting the number of vessels which entered during the same period. These vessels are employed in the foreign trade, and especially in that with the West Indies; the coastwise trade, in exporting lumber, fish, potatoes and like agricultural products, either to the British colonies or to the city of Boston, and other American ports; and in the importation of whatever articles are required by its population.

NAVIGATION.

Statement exhibiting the number of American and Foreign vessels, with their Tonnage and Crews, which entered into each District of Maine, during the year ending on the 30th September, 1841.

Districts.	AMERICAN.			FOREIGN.			TOT. AMER. AND FOR.		
	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.
Passamaquoddy, ..	79	8,615	426	726	49,622	2,782	805	58,237	3,208
Machias, .....	3	292	12	....	.....	.....	3	292	12
Penobscot, .....	7	1,423	59	1	338	20	8	1,761	79



## NAVIGATION—Continued.

Statement exhibiting the number of American and Foreign vessels, with their Tonnage and Crews, which entered into each District of Maine, during the year ending on the 30th September, 1841.

Districts.	AMERICAN.			FOREIGN.			TOT. AMER. AND FOR.		
	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.
Waldoborough, ..	13	3,213	118	....	.....	.....	13	3,213	118
Wiscasset, .....	6	2,189	93	....	.....	.....	6	2,189	93
Bath, .....	44	11,666	442	11	914	54	55	12,580	496
Portland, .....	102	22,477	933	72	5,024	326	174	27,501	1,259
Belfast, .....	38	4,421	204	5	266	14	43	4,687	218
Total, .....	292	54,296	2,287	815	56,164	3,196	1,107	110,460	5,483

But the trade in lumber is the branch of enterprise, which distinguishes it from the other states of New England, and it has long been a source of considerable profit. Those who have passed through the state, must have observed the extensive tracts of pine which cover the ground at frequent points. Along the valleys of the Penobscot, the Kennebec and their tributaries, there are stretched out unmeasured forests of pine timber, of the most valuable sort, which are worked up to great advantage by the hardy lumbermen of that region. This lumber trade of Maine, indeed, exhibits features peculiar to the state, and somewhat bordering on the romantic, if the romantic can apply to any form of mercantile enterprise. Large bodies of lumbermen, annually penetrate its pine forests for the purpose of felling the trees which are to be manufactured into boards; and in the summer, the logs are formed into rafts and propelled down the rivers, by these enterprising men, to their respective places of deposit, where they are either made into boards, or marked and left in safe places of deposit, where they may be used when required. It was our fortune to witness many of these rafts thus propelled by the Maine lumbermen, while ascending the Kennebec during the last season. These rafts were urged forward, by oars or poles; and from the fact that those who were thus urging them forward, were almost invariably dressed in red flannel shirts, they appeared in the distance as if in uniform, and certainly presented a very picturesque effect. Yet the lumbermen of Maine, although their peculiar habitudes of life tend to give them a distinct and strongly-marked character, exhibit some of the most valuable traits. They are remarkable for hardihood and energy, combined with an honest liberality and knowledge of the world, springing equally from the character of their pursuits and their natural sagacity and intelligence.

The principal channels of the lumber trade of Maine, are the valleys of the Penobscot, the Kennebec and their tributaries. The magnitude of those rivers, and the direct channels which they afford for floating rafts even to the ocean, if required, together with the populous settlements upon their banks, with the facilities which they furnish for the manufacture of the various sorts of lumber required both for building and for export, and the vast tracts of valuable pine timber growing in this section of the state, render these rivers the prominent depots of the lumber trade. Upon all the tributaries of the Penobscot, rafts are floated down to the places of export, and the lumber manufactured is thence shipped to almost every part of the world. Above the city of Bangor, there are more than 250 saw-mills, which are constantly at work sawing into boards the timber brought into their yards, and these are able to manufacture 200,000,000 feet of boards during the year, the most of which,



excepting that used in house and ship-building, must be shipped at the port of Bangor. Within the limits of this city, also, there are between 50 and 60 more saw-mills, employed in the same sort of labor. The city of Bangor is, indeed, the largest depot for lumber upon the continent of America. We may judge somewhat of the amount of its lumber trade, from the fact, that boards, timber, shingles, clapboards, oars, scantling-wood and such products, are annually shipped from its port to the amount of between \$1,000,000 and \$1,500,000; that, during the season of navigation, 1,200 vessels, each of about 110 tons burden, are every year employed in exporting lumber, timber and such products of the forest, to various places; and that there are besides belonging to this place, about 100 sail of coasting vessels, 50 employed in foreign commerce, and 50 engaged in the fisheries.

The Kennebec is another principal channel of the lumber trade, and, in its general features, it presents the same aspect as this species of enterprise which is prosecuted upon the Penobscot. The pine timber is in the same mode rafted down the river to some one of the flourishing villages upon its banks, where it is manufactured into boards and thence exported. In floating down this river during the last summer, in one of the Boston steamboats, we were astonished at the extent of enterprise which exists, in what the people of the middle states are accustomed to regard as a remote section of the Union. We found Augusta, a beautiful settlement, now the capital of Maine, in a state of the utmost prosperity, and commanding, from its elegant state-house, the view of a panorama of magnificent scenery, which was refreshing to gaze upon. Lower down upon the bank, was Hallowell, another thriving settlement, but three or four miles from the former place; and yet a little lower, Gardiner, another little city of great activity, with one of its neighboring hills adorned with an edifice, that we have scarcely seen equalled in splendor, in any other section of the country. Besides the substantial ships moored in the river, or unloading their cargoes, the bustle of business, the rafts descending the river, or the logs bordering it and awaiting the action of the saw-mill, could not fail to convince the beholder that the valley of the Kennebec was eminently prosperous. A writer in a late number of the *North American Review*, upon the timber lands of Maine, enters into an estimate of its timber trade, in 1843, in which he sets down the value of the trade in Washington county, at three-quarters of a million of dollars; that of Kennebec, at half a million; Somerset, Waldo and York, one-fifth of a million each; Hancock, Lincoln and Cumberland, one-tenth of a million each; and the remaining counties, one-tenth of a million more; the total amount being two and three-quarters of a million. In the absence of any more authentic data, for that year, we feel disposed to take this estimate as accurate. The statistics of the forest, quarry, &c., taken by order of Congress, in 1840, give us as exact information as could be obtained, respecting this branch of enterprise, during that year. There is one consideration connected with the lumber trade of Maine, however, which should receive the calm deliberation of its people. The forests of Maine now abound in that species of lumber which is peculiarly valuable at the present time, and is growing more so every successive year. It is understood that some of the largest sort of pine timber, especially the species used for masts, is growing scarce, even if found at all; and it would seem to be a mark of prudence for those who own choice timber

tracts, to use them with careful husbandry, remembering that time makes formidable ravages in the physical world, and that soon the lumber of these forests will be much enhanced in value.

The St. John, now forming the northern boundary of Maine, after it is joined by the St. Francis, is also beginning to be a prominent channel of the lumber trade. According to the treaty of 1842, by which the north-eastern boundary of the United States was fixed, it has been opened to the free navigation of the inhabitants of the territory, from which it flows in Maine, to convey the products of their industry and skill to market, and to return supplies to the population. A large quantity of timber is now drifted down to the city of St. John, by that river, and it has been estimated that, during the present year, 100,000 tons of timber will find their way to this settlement by that channel, the total value of which will be about \$600,000.

It would seem from the returns to which we have alluded, that the lumber trade is prosecuted in almost every county of the state. There is scarcely a stream that will float a raft, and whose banks are bordered by timber, that is not used either to carry this timber to the principal depots upon the main rivers, or to propel a saw-mill for its manufacture into boards. In the subjoined table, we have not only the value of the lumber produced in each county, in 1840, but various other items, showing the character of the productive industry of the state:—

PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST, QUARRY, &c., ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS RETURNS OF 1840.

Counties.	Value of lumber.	Tons of pot and pearl ashes.	Value of skins and furs.	Val. of gin-seng, &c.
Aroostook,.....	\$50,141	.....	\$1,297	.....
Cumberland,.....	44,379	22	52	\$73
Franklin,.....	8,264	42½	219	255
Hancock,.....	63,120	.....	468	.....
Kennebeck,.....	214,560	30¾	198	1,891
Lincoln,.....	71,955	.....	50	445
Oxford,.....	29,280	36¼	228	.....
Penobscot,.....	668,701	30	2,171	125
Piscataquis,.....	16,345	7	898	.....
Somerset,.....	123,420	64¼	1,959	1,900
Washington,.....	315,607	.....	273	24,910
Waldo,.....	104,053	13½	56	2,672
York,.....	98,861	14½	158	.....
Total,.....	\$1,808,683	260¾	\$8,027	\$32,271

PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST, QUARRY, &c.—Continued.

Counties.	Val. of granite, marble, &c.	Val. of products of the dairy.	Val. of products of the orchard.	Pounds of hops.
Aroostook,.....	.....	\$18,383	\$6	\$30
Cumberland,.....	\$22,831	182,726	24,542	156
Franklin,.....	.....	62,121	2,581	.....
Hancock,.....	20,300	75,582	1,874	.....
Kennebeck,.....	8,100	205,173	31,790	1,367
Lincoln,.....	35,345	171,432	21,419	1,868
Oxford,.....	.....	94,394	12,326	161
Penobscot,.....	330	85,558	5,891	16,355
Piscataquis,.....	.....	21,617	768	1,500
Somerset,.....	800	117,771	15,436	1,171
Washington,.....	1,750	93,170	1,251	60
Waldo,.....	11,500	126,390	7,890	6,610
York,.....	6,550	242,585	20,610	7,662
Total,.....	\$107,506	\$1,496,902	\$149,384	\$36,940

Another branch of enterprise in which the people of Maine have long been distinguished, is that of ship-building. According to the census of 1840, the value of the vessels built within the bounds of this state, was greater than that of any other state in the Union, it amounting to \$1,844,902; and we are informed that, during the year 1841, there was here built within 720 tons as much shipping for the Atlantic service as in all the states south and west of Pennsylvania, for their sea, river and lake navigation. From the earliest periods of its colonization, indeed, the settlers upon this part of the coast appear to have possessed a genius for ship-building, and various circumstances seem to have favored this branch of enterprise. They were originally, in good measure confined to the coast, and possessed every motive for the prosecution of commerce in the exportation of lumber and fish to the West Indies and other foreign ports. Since that time, there have been equal motives for carrying on the business of ship-building, not only for their own use, but also for foreign markets in the gradual increase of the commerce of the coast. Increased numbers of vessels are annually required for its foreign trade, the coast-wise trade likewise employs many, in the exportation of its products and the importation of those articles received in return, while the fisheries furnish a market for no small number of those launched at the ship-yards. Besides the acknowledged skill of the ship-builders along the shores of Maine, in constructing vessels of strength and speed, they possess extraordinary advantages for this purpose in the numerous eligible sites for ship-yards at the mouths of its numerous navigable streams, and in the abundance of timber of the various sorts used for that object, in its extensive forests of valuable lumber. We subjoin a statement exhibiting the vessels built in each district of Maine, during the year ending the 30th of September, 1841:—

## SHIP-BUILDING.

*Statement showing the number and class of Vessels built, and the Tonnage, in each District of Maine, for the year ending September 30, 1841.*

Districts.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Tot. tonnage, in tons and 95ths.
Passamaquoddy,.....	...	6	3	...	9	1,288.55
Machias,.....	1	3	4	...	8	1,295.87
Frenchman's Bay,.....	...	3	2	...	5	837.41
Penobscot,.....	...	2	1	...	3	336.77
Belfast,.....	2	10	13	...	25	3,810.34
Waldoborough,.....	11	13	9	...	33	7,761.59
Wiscasset,.....	1	...	4	...	5	703.06
Bath,.....	10	5	5	...	20	4,980.01
Portland,.....	7	5	3	1	16	4,163.12
Saco,.....	1	...	2	...	3	673.61
Kennebunk,.....	2	...	2	...	4	1,023.70
York,.....	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Total,.....	35	47	48	1	131	26,874.28

The fisheries of Maine, constitute an interesting and peculiar feature of its maritime enterprise. The hardy fishermen along its coast, like those of the neighboring states, whether riding on the waves off the coast of Labrador and the banks of Newfoundland, in their little fleets, or whether they have been found manning our merchant ships upon the mid ocean, or advancing the stars and stripes through the thick smoke of our naval battles, have long earned for themselves an honored reputation for

industry, patriotism and courage. Cultivating little patches of soil for the support of their families, upon the rocky coast or among the thousand little islands that are sprinkled over its waters, during certain seasons of the year; they are found at other times employed in those fishing expeditions, which, doubtless to them are sources of pleasure, as well as of profit. The coast of Maine, moreover, abounds with fish of various sorts; and it is alleged that more than sixty species are found in the waters of its shores and bays, its rivers and ponds. The salmon ascends its rivers, and is caught in abundance by fixtures of stakes driven upon their banks. Besides these, are the cod, the haddock and the hake, the halibut, the mackerel and bass, the shad, the black trout and salmon trout, the herring, perch, eel, flounder, tom-cod, smelt and various other kinds of scarcely less value. The lobsters, clam, crab, shrimp, craw-fish, muscle, but not the oyster, are found upon the banks and among the rocks along its shores. Its coast is, moreover, sometimes visited in the distance, by the porpoise and the seal; and even the humpback and grampus-whale, are seen from its bays. The fishermen of Maine, however, do not, as is probably well-known, confine themselves to the immediate coast, but adventure out in voyages of many months duration, into the open sea, keeping the coast as far as practicable. In the cod, mackerel and herring fishery, the foreign fishing grounds which they most usually frequent, are the Bay of Fundy and the Bay of Chaleurs. Sometimes they may be found in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Straits of Bellisle, and their fishing smacks are often despatched, seeking their finny prey, off the coast of Labrador, and whole fleets are anchored at once near the banks of Newfoundland. To those who are aware of the importance of the New England fishery, since the earliest colonization of its shores, the subjoined table, exhibiting the product of the fishery in 1840, will be interesting, and, perhaps, valuable:—

Counties.	FISHERIES.			Galls. of whale and other fish oil.
	Quintals of smoked or dried fish.	Barrels of p'kl'd fish.	Gallons of sp. oil.	
Aroostook,.....	.....	40	.....	.....
Cumberland,.....	22,553	918	.....	9,479
Franklin,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hancock,.....	65,824	15,168	.....	21,300
Kennebeck,.....	.....	9	.....	.....
Lincoln,.....	88,376	4,934	1,044	38,524
Oxford,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Penobscot,.....	1,050	153	.....	442
Piscataquis,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Somerset,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington,.....	36,878	28,774	.....	16,287
Waldo,.....	30,597	3,570	.....	18,118
York,.....	33,878	505	.....	13,667
Total,.....	279,156	54,071	1,044	117,807

## FISHERIES—Continued.

Counties.	Value of whale-bone, and other productions of the fisheries.	Number of men employed.	Cap. invested.
Aroostook,.....	.....	.....	.....
Cumberland,.....	.....	219	\$23,100
Franklin,.....	.....	.....	.....

## FISHERIES—Continued.

Counties.	Value of whale-bone, and other productions of the fisheries.	Number of men employed.	Cap. invested.
Hancock,.....	\$200	462	\$49,470
Kennebec,.....	140	2	100
Lincoln,.....	.....	1,312	187,906
Oxford,.....	.....	.....	.....
Penobscot,.....	.....	16	1,950
Piscataquis,.....	.....	.....	20
Somerset,.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington,.....	.....	829	170,030
Waldo,.....	2,011	433	72,373
York,.....	.....	337	22,018
Total,.....	2,351	3,610	\$526,967

The advance of manufactures throughout Maine, has not been proportioned to that of other prominent enterprises connected with the lumber trade, commerce and the fisheries, and this has resulted from the circumstances of the state. It has been found more productive for the people to engage in commerce, a pursuit which has been long a settled form of business with them, to cut the timber with which their forests abound, to build vessels, with all the appliances at hand for that purpose, or to adventure in expeditions of the fishery, rather than to engage in those manufactures which require a considerable amount of capital, while they naturally come in as a secondary pursuit after the soil has been subdued and capital has been accumulated. Yet the state abounds in decided natural advantages for manufacturing establishments. It possesses abundant water-power in its numerous rivers and waterfalls, an industrious population and a healthful climate. A broad foundation has, moreover, been laid for manufacturing enterprises on the Kennebec, in the construction of the Kennebec dam, a work of considerable magnitude and cost, at the city of Augusta, which presents as distinguished facilities for manufacturing enterprise as any part of New England. The salubrity of the climate, the picturesque beauty of the surrounding scenery and the improvements now in progress at that point, will doubtless place Augusta among the most prosperous settlements of the Union. From the census of 1840, we learn that there are but 532 persons employed throughout the state in the manufacture of wool, that there were but six cotton manufactories, three dyeing and printing establishments and that the value of manufactured articles was small compared with the adjoining states in this section of the country. As other resources of the state, however, become diminished, the manufacturing facilities, which it possesses in a remarkable degree, will doubtless be improved.

The accumulated capital of this state is hardly to be compared to that of the older states of New England, but still it is already considerable. Being, until a comparatively recent period, but a remote district of Massachusetts, and with resources even now but partially developed, there has not been allowed either the time or the opportunity for a very extensive accumulation of capital; but as enterprise opens new sources of wealth, the means of the people in that respect will doubtless be increased. We have before us an abstract from the returns of the cashiers of the several incorporated banks in Maine, as they existed on the Saturday preceding the first Monday of January, 1844, indicating the condi-



tion of the several banks of the state at that time, a part of which we here subjoin:—

Banks.	Cap. stock.	Circulation.	Tot. amount due from the bank.	Tot. amount of resources of the bank.	Last dividend.
Androscoggin,.....	\$50,000	\$31,589	\$96,730 52	\$96,730 52	3 pr. cent.
Augusta,.....	110,000	61,452	240,990 38	240,990 38	3 "
Bank of Bangor,.....	100,000	68,121	208,718 26	208,718 26	3 "
Bank of Cumberland,	100,000	75,424	253,236 38	253,236 38	3 "
Bank of Westbrook,.,	50,000	31,316	91,110 73	91,110 73	3 "
Belfast,.....	50,000	47,108	115,038 01	115,038 01	3½ "
Brunswick,.....	75,000	29,624	115,503 27	115,503 27	1½ "
Canal,.....	400,000	142,615	669,399 61	669,399 61	\$2 pr. sh.
Casco,.....	300,000	72,230	456,873 92	456,873 92	2 pr. cent.
Central,.....	50,000	58,891	153,399 89	153,399 89	\$2 pr. sh.
Commercial,.....	50,000	27,787	91,804 57	91,804 57	3 pr. cent.
Calais,.....	50,000	23,950	90,239 73	90,239 73	6 "
Eastern,.....	50,000	51,444	138,552 90	138,552 90	3 "
Franklin,.....	50,000	18,716	83,260 51	83,260 51	3 "
Freeman's,.....	50,000	34,183	101,377 82	101,377 82	3 "
Frontier,.....	75,000	13,373	125,412 09	125,412 09	3 "
Granite,.....	75,000	39,899	137,129 17	137,129 17	3 "
Gardiner,.....	100,000	42,575	179,650 79	179,650 79	3 "
Kenduskeag,.....	100,000	71,600	224,443 54	224,443 54	2 "
Lincoln,.....	100,000	81,256	248,998 95	248,998 95	5 "
Lime Rock,.....	50,000	31,300	104,519 22	104,519 22	3 "
Manufacturer's,.....	100,000	42,415	160,087 90	160,087 90	3 "
Manuf. and Trader's,	75,000	34,950	127,490 11	127,490 11	2½ "
Mariner's,.....	50,000	36,816	96,963 60	96,963 60	3 "
Mercantile,.....	50,000	19,388	74,533 86	74,533 86	3 "
Merchant's,.....	150,000	96,830	381,836 11	381,836 11	3 "
Medomak,.....	50,000	34,018	93,952 80	93,952 80	3 "
Megunticook,.....	49,000	22,500	74,774 81	74,774 81	3 "
Northern,.....	75,000	35,643	133,580 40	133,580 40	3 "
Sagadahock,.....	50,000	24,622	93,657 66	93,657 66	3 "
South Berwick,.....	50,000	36,707	115,723 50	115,723 50	3½ "
Skowhegan,.....	75,000	40,297	126,339 85	126,339 85	3 "
Ticonic,.....	75,000	40,700	131,434 51	131,434 51	3 "
Thomaston,.....	50,000	37,189	106,822 13	106,822 13	2½ "
York,.....	75,000	50,135	146,923 80	146,923 80	3 "
Total,.....	\$3,009,000	\$1,606,663	\$5,790,511 30	\$5,790,511 30	

We have alluded to the circumstance that Maine is still a new state, and but sparsely populated when compared with the other states of New England. The most eligible counties along the banks of the rivers, are now many of them densely-settled, and present the mingled aspects of thriving villages and cultivated fields; while others exhibit the same dense forests, as when the original colonists first entered within its boundaries, and now spread out extensive tracts whose silence is seldom disturbed but by the lumberman's axe, or a solitary moose which, perchance, lingers near its ancient haunts. From the subjoined table, it appears that the county of Somerset has a population of only eight to a square mile; Piscataquis, but two and a half; and Aroostook only two.

## POPULATION

To a square mile, of the several Counties in Maine, according to the census of 1840.

Counties.	Sq. miles.	Pop. 1840.	Pop. to sq. m.
Aroostook,.....	4,946	9,413	2
Cumberland,.....	961	68,658	71½
Franklin,.....	1,803	20,801	11½



## POPULATION

To a square mile, of the several Counties of Maine, etc.—Continued.

Counties.	Sq. miles.	Pop. 1840.	Pop. to sq. m.
Hancock,.....	1,826	28,605	15 $\frac{3}{4}$
Kennebeck,.....	953	55,823	58 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lincoln,.....	1,000	63,517	63 $\frac{1}{2}$
Oxford,.....	2,295	38,351	16 $\frac{3}{4}$
Penobscot,.....	3,282	45,705	14
Piscataquis,.....	5,702	13,138	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Somerset,.....	4,192	33,912	8
Waldo,.....	963	28,327	29 $\frac{1}{2}$
Washington,.....	2,703	41,509	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
York,.....	928	54,034	58 $\frac{1}{4}$
Total,.....	31,556	501,793	...

Population to a square mile in the state, 15 $\frac{1}{4}$ .

Another circumstance which renders the condition of Maine somewhat singular as a New England state, is the fact of its owning a considerable quantity of public land. Extensive tracts of such lands belonged to the state of Massachusetts, within the boundaries of Maine, formerly when they were united, but when the latter became an independent state, as it did in 1820, these lands, then comprising 11,308,000 acres, became the joint property of the two states.\* By the late treaty with the British government, made in 1842, a tract of 3,207,680 acres was conveyed to them, leaving 8,100,320 acres, one-half of which, namely 4,050,160 acres belonged to Maine. Soon after the organization of Maine as an independent state, and when the state of Massachusetts proposed to sell to Maine her own portion of the public lands, they were appraised at a very low rate, the most valuable, lying within four townships, being estimated at from twenty to twenty-five cents an acre. From the erection of Maine into an independent state, down to the year 1841, there were granted and sold by the state 1,466,200 acres, leaving 2,583,960 acres as its public domain, a considerable portion of which is well situated and sufficiently fertile, now constituting a part of the financial resources of the state.

Nor has the state been wanting in vigorous efforts to establish the means of education for its increasing population. With the original founders of New England, it has started upon the broad doctrine, that the education of the people constitutes the foundation of individual respectability and good government. Commencing with free schools, it has provided by law for the raising in every town of the state, an annual sum equal to forty cents for each person in the town, in order to the support

\* A great sale of timber-land, of townships, comprising eight whole townships, and two fractions, in Maine, belonging to that state and Massachusetts, was recently sold at auction in Bangor, at prices as follows:—

$\frac{1}{4}$ of S. W. No. 5, R. 10,	5,558	acres, at	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	cents per acre.
$\frac{3}{8}$ of N. " 7, R. 10,	8,007	"	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
" 8, R. 10,	23,760	"	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
" 6, R. 12,	23,554.60	"	\$1 73 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
" 7, R. 12,	24,240.03	"	1 81 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
" 8, R. 12,	28,424.60	"	1 91	"
" 7, R. 13,	24,292.40	"	1 17	"
" 8, R. 13,	23,835.87	"	2 19	"
" 6, R. 14,	23,788.71	"	1 11	"
" 8, R. 14,	23,820.74	"	1 49 $\frac{1}{2}$	"

In each township, there was reserved to the amount of 1,000 acres for public uses. The nett amount of acres sold was 195,425.

of schools, and it is thus seen that the sum is increased in proportion to the increase of population. During the year 1841, the number of school districts throughout the state was 3,477, the sum raised for their support was \$200,718, and the number of scholars attending them was in the ratio of 34 per cent to the whole population; while the number of academies, high schools and seminaries, was 183, all of which are in a prosperous state.

The higher branches of education are also liberally provided for, in the state, by the organization of collegiate institutions of respectable character, the principal of which are Waterville and Bowdoin colleges. The former is situated in the county of Kennebec; its libraries contain 7,500 volumes. Bowdoin College, in Brunswick, is an institution of more importance. It is situated on an extensive plain in Cumberland county, with a grove of pines in the rear. It has libraries containing about 22,000 volumes, a large and valuable mineralogical cabinet, a gallery of paintings, and all the apparatus required for lectures and other purposes connected with instruction. During the time of its incorporation, grants of public lands were made to this institution by the legislature of Massachusetts, donations, both of land and also of money, have been given by the states of Massachusetts and Maine, and aid of less amount has been derived from individuals. The means, both of common and collegiate education, will doubtless go on increasing and prospering as the population advances, and be made an ever-flowing fountain of intellectual and moral blessings to the people.

We should be wanting in our duty, perhaps, were we to fail to mention Portland, the principal city of Maine, in an article upon the state. From the earliest period of its colonization, it has been a point from which a considerable commerce has been prosecuted, and a large amount of manufactured lumber sent to the West Indies and to the colonies upon the continent. While it was a colonial possession of Great Britain, it was the principal port upon the coast, from which the English navy was supplied with masts and spars that were transported in large ships owned abroad. At the commencement of the war of the revolution, valuable shipping was owned here, but it was destined to suffer a catastrophe which nearly destroyed its then existing prosperity, being, in 1775, bombarded by a British fleet. From the close of the revolution to the year 1807, the progress of the place continued to be rapid; but as it had derived its prosperity mainly from commerce, the restrictions to trade which followed, produced disastrous consequences to the commercial interest. On the occurrence of the peace of 1815, however, the old channels of commerce were revived, and new sources of prosperity were opened, until it became the most prominent commercial depot upon this section of the coast. It now, as it is understood, carries on a large amount of commerce with the West Indies, and has advanced to the size of the third commercial city in New England. Situated upon Casco bay, between hills with the buildings rising in the form of an amphitheatre, it commands a noble view of the sea; its harbor is sprinkled with numerous picturesque islands, and, in approaching, it presents an imposing appearance. The access to the city is easy, and the harbor is capacious and secure, while the Cumberland and Oxford canal furnish to it a water communication into the interior for the distance of nearly fifty miles. It is, moreover, the nearest seaboard market for the fertile territory upon the

upper waters of the Connecticut river, and it conducts a prosperous coast-wise and foreign trade. Its aspect gives evidence of wealth, its streets are broad and elegant, its mansions are many of them costly, and its people intelligent and moral. Possessing, according to the census of 1840, a population of 15,218, it has already laid the foundation of an extensive city; possessing, in the state of its public press, in its sixteen houses of religious worship and in its merchants' exchange, of granite, all the appliances of Christian enlightenment and of prosperous trade.

The works of intercommunication between the state of Maine and the adjacent territories, projected, as well as already constructed, will doubtless tend to advance the prosperity of the people. A railroad has already been finished, as it is well known, between Boston and Portland, through the principal towns of Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Maine, lying along its track for the distance of 110 miles. Another track, denominated the Boston and Maine railroad, branches off from the Boston and Lowell railway, at Wilmington, Massachusetts, about fifteen miles from Boston, and thence extends through the most densely settled part of that section of the country, to Portland by another route. These lines will doubtless be extended soon from Portland, through some of the principal towns of Maine, to Bangor upon the Penobscot, 227 miles from the city of Boston.

Another enterprise has also been projected, and will doubtless at some future time be carried out, designed to carry out a railroad from Portland or some other point on the seaboard of Maine, to some point upon the borders of Lower Canada, in the direction of Quebec. Several routes have been examined, and the reports made regarding them have been very favorable. By surveys that have been made, it seems that Portland is but 280 miles from Ogdensburgh upon the St. Lawrence.

From the condensed view we have taken of the resources of Maine, it appears that they are considerable and are in the progress of rapid development. Its forests supply the great bulk of the lumber now used in the northern states, and its vessels crowd the harbor of Boston and are found discharging their cargoes or taking in supplies, at the principal settlements along the coast, as well as in foreign ports. Massachusetts derives a great portion of its timber, wood and potatoes, from the fleets of vessels that ply from its cities and villages into the port of Boston. The products of its ship-yards float in every sea, and its fisheries constitute an important item in the productive resources of New England. The commerce of Maine and Massachusetts is intimately connected, and regular lines of steamboats now run from Boston to Portland and the prominent villages of the Kennebec. The period of speculation in worthless pine lands has passed away, and that of vigorous industry has commenced. As the products of its forests diminish, the plough will advance further upon its now wooded plains and valleys, and the water-wheel and the trip-hammer will resound upon its streams. Its intelligent people appreciate their advantages, and have already laid the foundation of a solid and permanent prosperity, in the means of education that they have already provided. In the extent of its territory and its present population, it has already attained the prominence of a powerful state, and although its star twinkles in a northern sky, it yet shines among the brightest and most benignant in the constellation of the Union.

## ART. III.—COMMERCE OF JAVA.

FEW places in the world can exhibit such an expansion of trade as has taken place of late years in Java, a noble island subject to Holland. This has arisen mainly from its great fertility, the low price at which labor can be procured, and the pains which the government have taken to turn these advantages to the best account, by the formation of roads and by the encouragement of European capital in the culture of the soil. Much is also due to the accessibility of its northern coast to the richest countries of Asia, and to the circumstance of its capital (the seat of government of the Dutch East India Company) having been made the centre of the commerce between Europe and the extensive settlement of the Dutch in the Indian Archipelago. It is situated between latitude  $6^{\circ}$  and  $9^{\circ}$  south, and longitude  $105^{\circ}$  and  $115^{\circ}$  east, and has an area, including the adjoining island of Madura, of 45,724 square miles, and a population of 5,000,000. Java and Madura are divided into twenty provinces or residences. The Dutch have had settlements on this island since 1619, but it is only of late years that it has been wholly subdued. It was taken by the British, in 1811, and restored in 1816.

Java is divided, nearly in its whole length, by a range of mountains of volcanic origin, running almost east and west, and varying in their elevation from 5,000 to 12,000 feet. The west is that chiefly subjected to European influence, and is, in general, more level and capable of cultivation than the east part, which is mountainous and wooded, though diversified with rich valleys. This part is cultivated upon the native system, and is occupied by princes tributary to Holland. The island is well watered, and, upon the whole, is the most fertile and most improved of all the eastern islands. The mineral products are trifling. Saltpetre is found, and salt is manufactured on the coast, near Batavia. The most important natural production is teak, which would be largely exported were not the trade subjected to a rigid monopoly. The chief objects of cultivation are rice, coffee, sugar and spices, the produce of which has been very greatly increased of late years. Tobacco and a variety of other tropical articles are also produced, and immense sums have recently been expended by the government to grow tea, silk, &c., with, however, but little success. Edible birds' nests are obtained in great quantity from the rocks, called Karang Bolang, on the south coast. Arrack and sugar are manufactured extensively by the Chinese at Batavia. In other respects, manufacturing industry is nearly confined to the coarse fabrics woven by the poorer natives.

The principal ports and those to which foreign trade is confined, are Batavia, Samarang and Sourabaya, on the north coast, where the sea being usually smooth and the weather moderate, good anchorage may be found at nearly all seasons. The south coast, owing to its complete exposure to the Indian ocean, has no good harbors, and is, therefore, but little frequented. The best in this quarter are Chelachap and Pachitan. Produce, especially rice, is shipped from most of these ports, but almost the whole of the external commerce is concentrated at Batavia. About 105,000 lasts of shipping enter the ports of Java and Madura annually, embracing 80,000 Dutch, 10,000 British and 15,000 lasts belonging to the United States and other countries.

Batavia, the chief port of Java, and, indeed, of the whole eastern

islands, is advantageously situated at the mouth of the Jacatra, on the northwest coast, at the bottom of an extensive bay. A circular range of islands shelter the roads, and insures safe anchorage; but the water is shallow, and large vessels lie about three miles from the shore. The climate is sultry, and varies little throughout the year, ranging from 72° to 96°; the rainy season is from October to March, when westerly winds prevail; the dry, from June to October, the period of the east monsoon. The old town was proverbially unhealthy, and though of late years rendered more salubrious, by the improvement of the canals and the demolition of several streets, is inhabited only by natives and Chinese. Europeans and Americans, though they still transact their business there, have their residence at Welteroreeden, a new town, several miles inland, where are likewise the government establishments. Batavia is the centre of commerce with Europe, India, China and America. Besides exchanging the produce of Java for the imports from these countries, it is the entrepot for the productions of all the eastern islands in Japan.

The imports into the island of Java,\* which, in 1827, including specie, amounted to 17,656,201 florins,† increased, in 1839, to 24,961,012 florins; while, in the same period, the exports increased from 14,868,227 florins, to 56,718,833 florins. Of the goods imported in 1839, there were from Europe and America 16,172,865 florins, (including 10,878,108 florins from the Netherlands, and 3,878,880 florins from Great Britain,) chiefly consisting of linen and cotton stuffs, iron and copper wares, wines and spirits, woollen goods, provisions and Levant opium; Eastern Archipelago, 4,880,624 florins, comprising principally wax, coffee, gambier, gold dust, sandal-wood, cotton, wool, oil, rattans, spices, &c.; China, Manilla and Siam, 1,607,614 florins; Japan, 680,800 florins; Western India and Bengal, 647,877. The leading exports in 1839, were as follows:—

	Quantity—Peculs.	Value—Florins.
Coffee,.....peculs	757,476	23,860,499
Sugar,.....	842,017	10,946,222
Rice,.....	1,103,378	4,689,553
Indigo,.....lbs.	1,191,636	3,574,909
Banca tin,.....peculs	47,631	2,381,577
Nutmegs,.....	5,026	508,014
Tobacco,.....rodies	2,809	842,892
Mace, of cloves,.....	.....	712,707
Birds' nests,.....peculs	280	559,750

The chief other articles were sandal-wood, yarns, rum, hides, copper wares, pepper and gold dust. The principal places to which the shipments were made, were—

	Florins.		Florins.
The Netherlands,.....	49,092,471	America,.....	957,523
Eastern Archipelago,.....	9,033,716	France,.....	832,737
China,.....	2,093,882	Australia,.....	725,104
Great Britain,.....	1,938,506		

The Dutch trade is chiefly in the hands of a commercial association, formed in 1825, whose capital amounts to 97,000,000 florins, (nearly

\* For an authentic tabular statement, showing the quantity of the exports of that island, embracing coffee, sugar, rice, indigo, tea, nutmegs, mace, cloves, rattans, hides, arrack and pepper, the reader is referred to this Magazine, Vol. X., No. 5, for May, 1844, p. 485.

† The florin, a silver coin, is 1s. 8d. British sterling, or about 40 cents United States currency.



\$39,000,000;) of which, 20,000,000 florins stand in the name of the abdicated king.

For most of the facts and figures embraced in the remaining pages of the present article, touching the commerce and resources of Java, we are indebted to P. L. SIMMONDS, Esq., the editor of the *London Colonial Magazine*.

Recent accounts from Sourabaya, state that in the highlands of Java, coffee, indigo, cinnamon and tea plantations, continue to be formed, and that the provinces lying on the east coast of Java have risen very much in importance from this extension. Many of the new harbors on the south and southeast coast of Java, such as Bassaruwan, Probolingo, Patjitang, Tjilajap, &c., have, within the last ten years, been increased from petty compons or villages, to important trading towns; and the export of Java produce, from these harbors, has also been augmented very materially even within the last twelvemonth. The monopoly of the Dutch government, which compels the delivery into its warehouses of all produce destined for the European markets, and for which, it pays the producer scarcely more than one-third of the amount realized on the continent, has not prevented the formation of new plantations, as the owners (chiefly of the Caucasian race) continually become richer; and those who, two or three years back, may have laid out properties valued then at 5,000, 10,000 or 20,000 guilders, or more, can now sell or let them, for double or even treble the original cost, as, notwithstanding the monopoly, they yield an interest of 10 or 12 per cent.

However favorable may be the formation of new plantations, as far as the Batavian government and the landowners are concerned, it cannot be said, however, that the natives are benefited: for, in consequence of this colonization of Java, the number of pastures, rice and maize grounds, &c., has been materially diminished, whereby the necessaries of life have increased in price, during the last five or six years, from 200 to 300 per cent. Hence it arises, that in many of the provinces the native landowners are compelled by their chiefs to cultivate given portions with rice, maize and tobacco, and other of their grounds with indigo or sugar-canes. The native princes have an interest in promoting the growth of the staples received into the government magazines, as they receive a premium on them, according to the extent of their population and the quantity produced, the indigo-refiners and the proprietors of sugar-mills, (almost all Europeans,) being also instrumental in encouraging them.

A good idea can be formed of the increase in the cultivation of the government monopoly products, from the fact, that in the single province of Westbaglen, (about sixty square miles in extent,) eighty-six indigo-refineries have been established within seven or eight years.

That the increased cultivation and the newly-established mills, &c., give employment to a great number of persons, may be presumed; but, in Java, the poor native is compelled by his chief to work for the landowner at such low wages, that he is unable to support himself and family by his earnings. Poverty, therefore, prevails more than in earlier times; and while the enormous increase in the export trade of the island of Java, probably fills Europe with astonishment, cruel poverty advances with giant steps, the existing state of things being calculated to divide the population into two opposite classes—the very rich and the very poor;

and the middling classes, in the meantime, disappearing gradually, more and more.

By an official statement of the exports of the island of Java, published in the Indian papers last received, it appears that the trade of this fruitful and promising island has experienced a rapid increasing progression.

Passing over the minor articles of export, and taking the great staple productions of the island which constitute its export trade, we find that cultivation of indigo and its export, have increased during the last seventeen years, as follows:—

Years.	Maunds.	Years.	Maunds.	Years.	Maunds.
1825,.....	76	1831,.....	563	1837,.....	10,822
1826,.....	126	1832,.....	2,213	1838,.....	9,778
1827,.....	109	1833,.....	2,861	1839,.....	15,680
1828,.....	310	1834,.....	3,310	1840,.....	27,946
1829,.....	600	1835,.....	7,023	1841,.....	24,044
1830,.....	480	1836,.....	5,365		

The value of the last year's produce, is stated in round figures at 60 lacks of Java rupees, at the rate of 250 rupees per maund. If this be the average price, and that it cannot be manufactured lower, Bengal has little to fear from Javanese competition.

The exportation of coffee has been almost equally progressive; from 1825 to 1841, it being as follows:—

Years.	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.
1825,.....	277,622	1831,.....	299,086	1837,.....	684,947
1826,.....	340,059	1832,.....	314,174	1838,.....	589,690
1827,.....	399,558	1833,.....	360,166	1839,.....	757,476
1828,.....	416,172	1834,.....	486,018	1840,.....	1,132,376
1829,.....	281,662	1835,.....	466,371	1841,.....	961,467
1830,.....	288,742	1836,.....	498,078		

For 1841, the estimated value is 288 lacks of Java rupees, or about \$10,000,000; there having been exported, in addition to the coffee consumed on the island, no less a quantity than 130,000,000 of pounds. The exportation of rice is not noticed in the returns, till the year 1837, when it amounted to 30 lacks of rupees annually.

The value of mace, nutmegs and cloves, exported in the year 1835, is computed at 1,183,000 Java rupees; and in the year 1841, at 2,183,000.

The gradual and uninterrupted increase in sugar, plainly evidences the capabilities and fertility of the island. The exportation being from 1825 to 1841, a period of seventeen years, as follows:—

Years.	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.
1825,.....	16,357	1831,.....	120,298	1837,.....	676,085
1826,.....	19,795	1832,.....	245,872	1838,.....	734,980
1827,.....	32,220	1833,.....	210,948	1839,.....	842,017
1828,.....	25,870	1834,.....	372,885	1840,.....	1,013,877
1829,.....	73,780	1835,.....	432,624	1841,.....	1,031,094
1830,.....	108,640	1836,.....	539,514		

In Banca tin, the increase has been in the ratio of 500 per cent in the exports, though the prices of late years have considerably decreased. In 1825, the quantity exported was 9,118 pekuls, realizing 519,500 Java rupees. In 1841, the exports were 48,000 pekuls, and the value little less than 22 lacks of rupees.

The progress made by the Dutch in the Indian Archipelago, since the restoration of the island of Java, at the general peace of 1815, is not less creditable to their persevering industry than it is of importance, to the

other nations of Europe, with whom their productions come into competition.

We have yet no accurate return of the production of last year, but we have been furnished with the following report of the arrivals in the Dutch ports, which will give an approximation sufficiently close to draw a general conclusion. The coffee imported, amounted to 1,040,000 bags, or about 72,800 tons. The indigo sold by the trading company during the year, amounted to 10,500 chests, of the same dimensions as British East India from Calcutta. The sales of sugar amounted to 230,734 packages, or about 46,000 tons English weight, against about 45,000 in 1841 and 1842, respectively. These quantities apply to the sales made at Amsterdam and Rotterdam, and are exclusive of the quantities imported at other ports, and shipped directly from the colony to other parts of the world. It will further be observed, that the quantities sold within the year are not necessarily a test of the quantities produced in that year, although there is no doubt whatever but that the produce of 1843 exhibits an increase in all the great staples in an undiminished ratio.

The journals from the island of Ceylon, received in England to the 22d of February, 1844, were commenting on the expediency of abolishing the government spice monopoly, and calling attention to the progress making by the Dutch in cinnamon growing. In 1829, just four years before the opening of the trade, agents from Batavia, on the island of Java, took from Ceylon several persons acquainted with the cultivation of cinnamon, as well as a stock of seed, roots, &c. The Batavian government are now bestowing much attention upon cinnamon plantations, arising, no doubt, from some recent favorable sales made in Holland, where spice is getting into favor. At recent sales at Amsterdam, the following prices were obtained: for 1st sort, Java, 240 cents per kilogramme = 4s. per pound; for 2d sort, 150 cents = 2s. 6d. per pound; and for 3d sort, 70 cents = 1s. 2d. per pound. The quantities exported from Java, have been as follows:—

Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.
1837,.....	40	1839,.....	164	1841,.....	764
1838,.....	60	1840,.....	312	1842,.....	1,245

The export duty on cinnamon is but 3s. 4d. per pekul, of 133 pounds, or about one English farthing per pound.

#### WEIGHTS, MEASURES, MONEY, ETC., OF JAVA.

*Measures and Weights.*—The ell = 27 $\frac{3}{4}$ , and the foot = 12.36 imperial inches. The kanne, liquid measure = 91 imperial cubic inches, and 33 kannes = 13 English gallons, old measure, or 10 5-6ths imperial gallons; a leaguer of arrack, of 396 runds = 160 English wine gallons, or 133 $\frac{1}{2}$  imperial gallons; a leaguer of wine is 360 runds.

The ordinary weights here, as well as throughout all the eastern possessions of the Dutch, are those of China; the pekul, however, instead of 133 $\frac{1}{2}$  pounds avoirdupois, is reckoned at 125 Dutch troy pounds = 135 pounds 10 ounces avoirdupois, but commonly estimated at 136 pounds avoirdupois. Grain is sold in large quantities, by the coyang, of 3,300 Dutch troy pounds = 3,581 pounds avoirdupois; in small quantities, by the timbang, of 5 pekuls or 10 sacks. The kulack = 7 $\frac{1}{4}$  catties, and the last contains 46 measures, each of 5 gantons.

*Money.*—Accounts are stated in Netherlands florins or guilders, each of 100 cents. The florin is a silver coin = 1s. 8d. sterling. In 1828, a bank was established at Batavia with a capital of 2,000,000, but it has lately suspended payment.

A treaty with Great Britain was concluded by Holland, in 1824, which contained provisions for regulating the intercourse between the subjects of the two governments in the east; but its terms are alleged to have been violated by the Dutch authorities in Java, as well in the higher rates they have since imposed on British imports, as in the custom-house valuations on which these have been founded.

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#### ART. IV.—THE SEMAPHORIC AND MARINE TELEGRAPH FLAGS.

It is a source of much satisfaction to the writer, to learn that the subject of *telegraphic communications* might be rendered of great utility to the common cause of humanity, especially in promoting and augmenting the means of giving additional security to lives and property, by again bringing the subject before the public. Every one hears and reads of news by the telegraph, from day to day, without ever considering, much less understanding anything of the principles of this mode of communicating intelligence. On account of its incalculable importance to the mercantile and trading interests, and above all, to the lives of our fellow-citizens, as well as for the simplicity and efficiency of the modern semaphoric system, I have thought it would be interesting to the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, to have some general knowledge, at least, of the construction of the semaphoric telegraph, its manner of operating, together with the objects embraced in conducting the establishment. "It must," says a learned lecturer, "be evident to the most common observer, that no means of conveying intelligence can ever be devised, that shall exceed, or even equal the rapidity of the telegraph: for, with the exception of the scarcely perceptible delay at each station, which is necessary in repeating a communication, its rapidity may be compared to that of light itself."

It would be almost superfluous to dwell on the incalculable benefit that would arise to our country, to the public revenue, to private convenience, and to public safety and security, by establishing a ramified telegraphic system, extending from the metropolis to the principal seaport towns and cities, and to the right and left of such lines of communication. Such an undertaking would be a sublime attempt at an approximation of time and space, and would be actually worthy of the high and enterprising character of our nation. Let it be recollected, that it is only a few years since that the establishment of the mail coach system, the projection of canals and railroads, together with the wonderful operation of steam engine machinery, were deemed visionary and almost impracticable. Man is a progressive being, and it is the press only that points out to him *what he ought to do*; and assuredly no one will oppose the march of mind and knowledge, and of public instruction, alone calculated to lead to perfection, a *maximum* of which is wisely denied on this side of time.

The telegraphic science is yet in its infancy in this country, very few

have turned their attention to it. In theory, it appears to have made great progress; but, in practice, little has been done. Under these circumstances, I should be deficient in that duty and respect I owe to the public, were I to omit placing its importance in a fair light, with a view of advancing its interests and superinducing its farther utility. The practical facility of the telegraphic art, is apparent to those only who have long studied it, and, like other things, it cannot be acquired intuitively.

The derivation of the word *telegraph*, appears to be from two Greek words, "*teele*," at a distance, and "*grapho*," to write. Its practice and use was not unknown to the ancients, and can be traced back to a very early period. The manner of communicating, is variously stated—by fire-signals, flags, shutters, arms fixed upon a post, displaying a variety of positions denoting the several letters of the alphabet. Later experience has produced a dictionary of numerals, of great extent and comprehensiveness, which is applied to commercial, political and other purposes. The history of the telegraph, so far as the ancients were acquainted with it, commences with Homer, Æchylus and Julian Africanus, all of whom make mention of fire-signals. All the Roman generals made use of telegraphs; and Brumois, in his account of the Greeks, gives an account of fire-signals used in war. The Chinese, Scythians and Gauls, and by almost all the barbarous nations, such signals were prevalent. Polybius gives the name of *tyrsia* to telegraphing, meaning that fires were the means made use of. He gives a full account of a telegraph invented by Cleoxenes Democlitus, and improved by himself. It was a mode of indicating letters of the Greek alphabet, by the display of torches. It would appear that each letter required two torch-signals, and that the communication was made between two stations only. It would have been much easier to have shortened the process by one-half of the time, and to have made it a day telegraph by substituting flags for torches.

We hear little more of telegraphs, till 1663, when the marquis of Worcester describes a species of telegraph, by a lettering plan. Above forty years after, Monsieur Amontons recommended the holding up of large letters to be viewed by telescopes, and communicated from station to station. Little more was done until the French invented *indicators*, which were semaphoric wings, which could be put into seven distinct positions, and from this originated a variety of descriptions of semaphors, all differing from each other in *principle of motion, degree of power and mechanical contrivance*. Guided by principles, laid down by Dr. Hook, in 1664, Dupuis, in France, invented a telegraph, improved by an ingenious monk, of the order of Citeaux, in 1781. Milli, Condorcet and Dr. Franklin, recommended it to the French government. Monsieur Chappe modified the principle of this invention, and introduced this telegraph, which, with others, was made use of during the revolutionary period.

There is no positive information that any methodized code of signals was made use of, in the fleets of the ancients. Such celebrated commanders as Themistocles and Colon, must have had their marine manœuvres by so obvious a mode as signals, made by flags or lights. That flags were made use of, is evident: for it is written, that if the ship which carried *Ægeus* to Crete returned in safety, a white flag was to be hoisted. Polybius, in his history of the Punic wars, makes indirect mention of naval signals; and the coins of the Greeks and Romans have on them flags and pendants. As the telegraphic art appears to have been practiced on



shore, the conclusion must follow that it was prevalent at sea. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, we meet with the first regular set of signals, and sealed orders to the commanders of fleets, which were to be opened and acted upon when an ascertained latitude was attained. James II., when admiral, was the first who introduced a system of methodized signals, by means of which, divisions of fleets, as well as single ships, could be directed to act in any specific manner.

Previous to his time, the principles of co-operation, connected procedure and changes of position, were very imperfectly, if at all understood. When once an action commenced, every idea of regulating its farther progress was abandoned, the degree of naval science, then practiced, became nearly useless, and daring resolution and the physical power of grappling with the enemy, decided the fortune of the day. The duke of York, afterwards James II., first adopted a scientific formation of line and an order of battle, calculated for various situations in respect to the enemy, their number, and the state of the wind and weather. His fighting and sailing instructions, classed according to their various heads, were referred to by a specific signal, pointing to each movement and manœuvre in the class. This groundwork, resting upon unchangeable general principles, though it may have received many additions, and may have been simplified by the *numerical order of signals*, remains to this day as the basis of evolutions, and the germ from which has sprung the British naval code.

Le P. Hote, in his "*Art des Armes Navales*," printed at Lyons, in 1827, has given a system of signals with sails, varying-flags and guns, fired in slow and quick time at night. Some of his signals were of a clumsy description, such as suspending a water-cask from the yard-arm to indicate want of water, and a large *hatchet* to show a want of wood or fuel. To express a numeral, he recommends hoisting or lowering a flag, till the number meant was counted out.

The most essential improvement in naval signals, has arisen from the invention and application of the *numerical order*. This simple, but luminous improvement, is generally ascribed to Monsieur de la Bourdonnais, who, it is said, was the original inventor of the method of signaling by notation. Dr. Hook, who was the inventor of the land telegraph, recommended a numerical plan to the Royal Society of London, but it was Monsieur de la Bourdonnais who brought the plan to considerable perfection. In the British navy, it has been carried to nearly its acme, by improvements introduced by different admirals, commodores and men of science.

I have already stated that telegraphing sentences, and consequently words, were known to the ancients. It appears from the works already quoted, that the idea originated in France long before it was adopted in England. It is the opinion of the best informed naval characters in this country, that our naval code of signals is deficient in comprehensibility, arrangement and method, and that a board of tactics, formed of the most scientific officers in the service, ought to be employed to draw up a complete system. Such a procedure, established on the *numerical system*, would doubtless be scientific and unexceptionable. The multiplicity of flags, many of which burdens the memory, and amidst the hurry, smoke and confusion, incident to action, creates a constant liability to errors and mistakes. The numerical system of notation was happily invented to ob-

viate all these difficulties, by the principle of simplification, which is its distinguishing characteristic.

Sensible of the operose and creeping tediousness of the l-e-t-t-e-r-i-n-g plan, I cannot but strongly urge its inefficiency and want of science, and as it is generally abolished, I may add that the experience of twenty-five years has abundantly justified the propriety of the measure, and all who understand this interesting science must be averse to the practice of combinations as used in the lettering plan. I have invariably established a rule, that every telegraph station is to keep up their own communicating signal till the next station has been seen to take it up accurately, and until the preceding one has dropped it. But when every combination is, as it were, a new study, a person might, under such a personal exertion of thought of things differing but little, be apt not to remember precisely the combination even on his own telegraph. By a constant, close and strained attention, these errors and mistakes may not be so liable to happen, but this necessary attention must unavoidably occasion the taking up of a great deal of time at every station along an extensive line. Besides all this, much time is comparatively lost in reading off the combination at each station, on the part of the observer at the telescope, who must frequently be obliged to repeat, what must be nearly new to him and to those working the telegraph. Thus it appears that, so far from accelerating communication by the use of complicated and troublesome combinations, it may be proved experimentally, that it is a mode, not only more tedious, but much more liable to error and uncertainty than any other mode, independent of increasing the expense in enlarging the telegraph, and obscuring its visibility of whatever description it may be. The numerical plan, on the contrary, is so simple and familiar, that mistake is next to impossible. The persons employed, have only to recollect the movements of the arms indicating the numerals, and the giving the figures; they are set up in an instant, without hesitation or doubt.

Among the numerous plans of telegraphs which have been devised, we find that the *shutter telegraph* originated in Sweden; it consisted of nine boards, and was found to succeed remarkably well for low situations, where a back horizon could not be obtained. This shutter telegraph was introduced by Lord George Murray, in 1793, and simplified by the use of six boards or shutters only. It was used at the admiralty, until 1816, and was hung in a frame and turned by pulleys connected with cranks below, so that they may present either their whole surface or only an edge to view. It was capable of making sixty-three signals, and practiced upon the lettering plan. In 1816, Sir Home Popham, of the British navy, invented what he called the semaphore telegraph, which was immediately adopted by the board of admiralty, and continues in use to the present time. It consists of an upright post or mast, with *two arms only*, moving vertically on their respective centres, one at the top of the mast, and the other half way down, each arm being made to perform an entire revolution, and being turned with facility and dispatch so as to take any position that may be required, differing, however, from each other in principle of motion, degrees of power and mechanical contrivance; these arms expressed letters or numerals, according to the system agreed on.

Among the numerous plans of telegraphs, which have been devised, we find none exceeds in simplicity, or excels in greater rapidity, than the semaphoric telegraph. This system is one of the greatest improvements

of modern times. We have heretofore stated, that the process of making communication was by spelling the words, each sign denoting a letter of the alphabet; but modern ingenuity has introduced dictionaries or vocabularies, by which words, phrases and sentences, can be communicated at once, by being arranged alphabetically, and having opposite to each word or sentence, a corresponding numerical affixed thereto. This manner of operation is derived from the French, and includes three distinct principles. The first is the projection of an arm from a post, either from the top or the side. The second is the construction or mechanical contrivance, by means of which the numerals are formed. The third comprehends the limits of power, furnished by the single and conjoined action of the wings and arms.

The semaphoric telegraph is very simple in its construction and movements, as well as being *economical in its cost*. It consists of an upright post or mast fifty to sixty feet in height, having two movable arms composed of boards, six to ten feet in length, and one to one and a half in breadth, one of them being one-third from the top, the other, one-third from the bottom, by one end on a pivot, in such a manner that, when the boards are at rest, they hang perpendicularly against the mast, so as not to be seen at a distance, but when pulled out on either side by chains attached to them, they can be seen by glasses of the power of forty to fifty, from either station between which they are located, from ten to thirteen miles, according to their situation.

Above the two arms or boards, at the top of the mast, is a smaller arm or indicator. Each of the arms revolves into, and are made to rest in six positions, three on each side of the post, at the point which would designate respectively the several numerals from one to six, so that the three arms can take eighteen positions, and, by the principle of permutation, can express any number from a unit to hundreds of thousands.

Connected with the semaphoric telegraph, is a dictionary or telegraph vocabulary, containing sets of numerals arranged in alphabetical order, with the meaning, with words, phrases and sentences, exactly upon the principle of a dictionary of any language. The telegraph dictionary differs only from any other, in having a series of words, phrases and sentences, under each letter of the alphabet, with the meaning of the numbers affixed to them. Just as in a French dictionary, for example, the French word would be put first, and then the English meaning by its side. The arms of the telegraph being placed in certain positions, denote particular numbers; the observer, then seeing the position of the arms, looks into his telegraph dictionary for the number denoted by them, and by the side of that number, he finds the word signified by it.

This is a general view of the principle of the invention. This numerical dictionary or telegraph vocabulary, embraces, as far as can be anticipated by experience, all the questions and answers which are likely to occur upon every subject. It contains also a list of numerals designating the names of vessels, principal countries, ports, places, towns, cities, headlands, capes, harbors, besides over two thousand vessels designating telegraph numbers, all of whom have adopted this semaphoric system of conversation, together with all the public vessels of the United States and the revenue cutters and steamers, which saves the trouble of spelling their names letter by letter, as must be the case with all those vessels who have not adopted the semaphoric system. The semaphoric signal book,

consists of four parts. The first part is familiarly known by the name of *the Marine Telegraph Signal Book*; when this is used, it is designated with the indicator by the numbers denoting 6-4, which may be termed the numerical name of that part of the book. A brief exemplification will make this intelligible. When the observer at one station, wishes to communicate with the other, he places the indicator in a perpendicular position, in which it is kept during the whole time of the communication, except when changed to designate one of the books, as explained hereafter.

Let it be supposed that the conductor of one of the stations should wish to converse, or inquire of the other, whether he had anything to communicate? this question will be found in the first part. Now, before asking the question, the observer puts the indicator first in position No. 6, and then changes it to No. 4, which is noted down upon a slate or paper thus, 6-4. The person inquired of, then knows he is to look into that book for the matter in question. The first observer then has recourse to the two arms of his telegraph, with which he makes the signals, denoting the numerals, 4-3-2-4; this makes the entire number 4324, against which number in the book, the person at the other station finds this question—“*Have you anything to communicate?*” Being thus possessed of the question, he prepares to answer it either *yes* or *no*, which is to be found in the same part of the book. He also, in the first place, by means of his indicator, gives the numbers 6-4 to denote that book, and then immediately answers by the sign for the No. 4, which means “*yes*,” or No. 1, which means “*no*.”

The second part is a very copious vocabulary. It embraces extensive and voluminous subjects of every description, arranged alphabetically. This second part is designated by the indicator, not by any one fixed and invariable number, but by several combinations of numbers, each of which at once directs the observer to a particular subdivision of the alphabet, where will be found the principal or important word, phrase or sentence. For instance, suppose the indicator should give the numbers 1-5, now, as the number does not denote the first part, or marine telegraph, which is 6-4, it follows that the observer is to look into the telegraph vocabulary. In this, it will accordingly be found that the numbers 1-5 denote the subdivision or letter D, under the principal word or subject, matter of inquiry will be seen. After this, if the following numbers were given by the arms of the telegraph, 2-6-4, “*Is in great distress and requires immediate assistance*,” will be indicated.

The third part contains the telegraph numbers of Marryat’s code of signals, as adopted by the governments of England and France, for the use of the maritime commerce of these respective countries; the same system is used at Lloyd’s coffee-house, London, and at the Holyhead and Liverpool telegraph stations. It embraces above twelve thousand designating telegraph numbers, which, together with two thousand numbers of the semaphoric system for American vessels, furnishes a signal book containing the names of nearly fourteen thousand sail of vessels.

An essential and highly important auxiliary improvement, is attached to the semaphoric system, by means of flags, called *the marine telegraph*; their use rests upon the same principle as that of the semaphoric land telegraph; they are six in number only, and correspond to the six positions of the arms of the land telegraph, denoting the numerals 1, 2, 3, 4,

5, 6. They are each blue and white, and all of the same size, with the duplicate numbers of each flag. To these is added a conversation flag, which, like the indicator of the land telegraph, shows that the vessel making the signal wishes to converse. Many thousand changes can be made, designating the words, phrases and sentences, in the book above-mentioned. By such means, vessels at sea can communicate to each other, even at the distance of ten miles, and when they approach the coast can hold communication with the semaphoric land telegraph.

The very extended and increasing commerce of the United States, in continual intercourse with each other, as well as with the whole commercial world, should possess every facility of communication that can be devised for the purpose of diffusing information, and promoting the safety and comfort of those engaged in carrying it on.

From the illustrations given of the uses and the extreme facility of communicating by telegraphs, an opinion may be formed of how much importance a line of telegraph communications upon our railroads, would tend to prevent the frequent collisions which take place, thereby saving a very great expense to the proprietors, and preventing the loss of life to individuals.

The application of the art to other subjects, will naturally follow the progress of those rapid improvements which are the characteristics of the present age. We are all aware what a change has taken place in the transmission of intelligence relating to business, within a few years past; an additional impulse has rendered it necessary to add new energy to our means of communication. If there are now essential advantages to business, in obtaining intelligence by expresses, at the rate of ten and twelve miles per hour, any one must perceive that there must be a proportionate benefit, when information by telegraph can be transmitted throughout the country, at the rate of *ten miles per minute*. The rapidity of the public mail is not sufficient, in many instances, to supply the demands of a business community. Expresses, at an enormous expense, are employed to convey intelligence from the seat of government to the principal cities. When we witness the extraordinary resources of this growing country—when we observe the wonderful results of an intelligent and active population, incessantly occupied in developing their powers and resources, and stimulated by the circumstances in which they are placed, to greater and more intense exertion than the same number of people have probably ever been—when we see, too, that all ordinary calculations, founded upon the precedents of other nations, fall short of what is here actually accomplished—when we witness all this, we cannot believe that it is being too sanguine to expect the establishment of a line of telegraphs throughout the Union.

In conclusion, we have directed our attention to the utility of *telegraph communication*, as applied to the practical concerns of the community, and, we may add, that it is of the highest importance, because it immediately concerns, not only the preservation of property, but of human lives.

GRAPHO.



## ART. V.—MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE.\*

THE result of the experience of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, and the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, in Boston, shows that many prudent people in the community are aware that the insurance of life is, in many cases, quite as important as the insurance of a building, ship, cargo or other property, in others. It has been well remarked,† if the inquiry were made in each case, it is probable that one man out of every four or five, would find that he can, by mutual insurance for his whole life, protect his family and the persons dependent upon him, against the disastrous effects of his premature decease, without any pecuniary sacrifice in so doing: for, whatever he pays, his family will be entitled to receive back again in due proportion; that is, with great addition, if he survive but a short time, and proportional deduction, in case of his surviving beyond expectation. This being so, a person in good health, of a sound life, insurable at the lowest rate of premium, if he reflect on the subject, will feel some compunction if he neglect such provision against the event of his premature decease; and on the other hand, if he make the provision, the satisfaction of his having done so is worth half of the premium, and has, in part, a tendency to promote his longevity. The statistics of life insurance show that it enhances the expectation of life.

As people shall become acquainted with the subject, the matter of life insurance will pretty soon be as familiar as that of property now is. Information respecting it, is rapidly spreading, by means of the operation of the life offices now in operation.

The business of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, from the commencement of its operations, 1st of February, 1843, to the 31st of August, 1844, (nineteen months,) has been as follows:—

Number of policies,.....	796
Of which, were for life,.....	419
“    for seven years,.....	282
“    for different periods,.....	95
Total policies for nineteen months,....	
	796

The number of policies issued by this company, to September 1st, 1844, was, as above stated, 796; of which were to merchants, clerks and agents, 396; brokers, 37; clergymen, 30; physicians, 26; lawyers, 46; manufacturers, 25; mechanics, 36; farmers, 14; officers of incorporated companies, 34; officers, army and navy, 16; professors in colleges and students, 26; other pursuits, 110.

The amount of premiums received,.....	\$85,873 80
Received for policies,.....	592 00
“    sea risks,.....	808 50
“    interest on bonds, mortgages and stocks,....	1,989 87
Total amount received by the company,.....	
	\$89,264 17

\* For an elaborate article on Life Insurance in the United States, &c., see Merchants' Magazine for February, 1843, Vol. VIII., No. 2, pp. 109 to 131, and continued in same Vol., No. 3, for March, pp. 205 to 240.

† Nathan Hale, Esq., editor of the Boston Daily Advertiser.

The company, so far, has sustained, by the death of two persons whose lives were insured, a loss of only \$7,000. The amount of premiums on original policies, received during the months of July and August, 1844, was *nine thousand four hundred and fifty-eight dollars, seventy-three cents*, which would give an annual increase to the capital of the company, of \$56,752 38. The business of this company must, from the growing interest in the subject among all classes, and the high character of the gentlemen composing the board of trustees, continue, as it has from the commencement, to steadily augment.

The business of the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, during the first six months of its operation, beginning February 1st, and ending July 31st, has been as follows, viz:—

Number of policies,.....	205
Amount insured,.....	\$573,180 00
Premiums and deposits,.....	14,950 88

The business continued at the same rate in the month of August, and it has from the beginning been singularly regular and steady, indicating its firm and substantial character, and its tendency to spread and diffuse itself in the community; and it will do so more rapidly as its benefits shall be developed, and become palpably apparent on the occurrences of losses. As yet, no loss has occurred to the New England company.

We find in a late number of Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, a work conducted with signal ability, and characterized for its liberal and impartial view of topics connected with the general progress of man, some so well-timed remarks on the comparative merits of the two modes of insurance—"the mutual, and the proprietary" or stock company—which now contend for notice, that we are induced to embrace them in the present paper. After a careful examination of the two plans, with some benefit from practical experience, the writer declares his conviction that the mutual system is the only one which the public at large are concerned to support. He says:—

"The proprietary system, originating only by favor of the darkness in which the subject was at first buried, could only, it appears to us, have since been supported by the efforts of interested individuals. It is, perhaps, to be considered by mercantile men as a legitimate mode of making money; but, examined more rigidly, and by persons like ourselves, perfectly disinterested, it seems by no means a blameless one. To illustrate this, let us see how a life insurance company generally proceeds. A set of speculators start it with a large apparatus of capital, of which only a few thousand pounds need be paid up. By means of a handsome looking office, incessant advertising and active managers and agents, business is obtained. After a few years, this has generally increased considerably, and large dividends begin to be made amongst the shareholders. In one instance, under our immediate notice, £10,000 of paid up capital now stands, after seventeen years' business, at the value of £70,000 in the stock market, being £600 per cent of premium. What is it that has thus so much increased its value? Only those surplusages of payment, by the public, which, in a mutual office, would all come back to the insured. Generally, it is to be remarked, proprietary offices, besides their usual scales of rates, where, as in death's own list, there is no return, have a scale where the payments are somewhat higher, and the insured are to

have periodical bonuses as in the mutual system ; a concession much like the celebrated one which vice is said to pay to virtue. But here, the benefits sink far below what are to be usually obtained from a respectable mutual office ; as they well may, seeing that the company looks for a profit to itself, which is just so much abstracted from the pockets of the insured without any equivalent. Were we to draw out tables contrasting the sums which individuals will realize in a course of years under the mutual system, with those which the same payments will obtain under the proprietary or trading system, even where shares of 'profits' are professedly divided among the insured, our readers would be startled at the difference of results. It would appear almost incomprehensible that the proprietary system should have contrived to exist so long, when a rival plan, free from all selfish principle, and securing to the public the utmost possible advantages, was daily contending with it for public favor. This, however, is no real mystery, when we consider the ignorance of most persons on the subject of life insurance, and what a powerful interest is concerned in maintaining the repute of the proprietary system, and bringing business to its bureaux.

The leading pretext of the proprietary system is, that the subscribed capital affords a guarantee or security for the payment of claims which the mutual system lacks, and that the insured is thus compensated in safety for what he wants in money. But the hollowness of this pleading is seen in a moment, when we consider that a combination of insurers, each paying fully what science says is necessary to make good their mutual engagements, is a transaction free from all risk, in the ordinary sense of the word, and only can fail in the event of a change in the laws of nature, or such an alteration in the condition of the country (affecting the value of money) as no kind of security would gain-stand. Attempts have been made to liken the case of a life insurance company to a bank of deposit, and to make out from that analogy that a stock is necessary for the security of the insurers. But the cases are totally diverse, seeing that the insurance company has not, like a bank, to trade with its deposits, but only to lay them out to the best advantage in permanent investments, and thus hold them, till they fall, in the due course of time, to be returned. A bank which appropriated to itself half the ordinary rate of interest for deposits, on the pretence of its having a few thousand pounds of stock to afford a security, would be in strict analogy, but no other. In fact, the capital is a mere stalking-horse, there is no instance of its ever being called into requisition. Were such an instance to occur, it would probably prove a mere trifle in comparison with the extent of the obligations. We may go farther, and say that this capital is not only unnecessary, in consequence of the unavoidable formation of large funds from the mere payments of the insured, but, if on a large scale, it would be a positive disadvantage, as, if there is any real difficulty in the conducting of life insurance business, it is in the disposal of the funds. Capital for life insurance, can, at the most, only be needed at first, while the accumulated premiums of the insured are of slender amount ; but admitting that it is ever so needed, it almost immediately becomes superfluous, and should be therefore withdrawn. There is an instance of an office, commenced on the proprietary system, with an arrangement for the gradual buying up of the shareholders, which is now effected, so that the office, after twenty years' existence, has made a transition to the mutual system. This is so

far laudable, only there was no need for the shareholders drawing profits for so long as twenty years, or for their being allowed at last to get double the original price of their shares. Beyond a very short time, at the most, the capital of a life insurance company, as far as it is a reality at all, only serves—and this purpose it serves very well—to justify a small set of men in appropriating to themselves funds properly due to others. As might be expected, the means taken for obtaining business by the proprietary offices, is not, in general, of a very scrupulous nature. They make extensive use of the system of commission, that is, large and tempting allowances to solicitors and others, to induce them to bring their friends or clients to these instead of any other offices. Some men have almost an income secured to them, by the allowances they are entitled to in consequence of having taken a few customers to some of the more liberal class of offices, such allowances being neither more nor less than a bribe to induce a man of business to betray the interests of those who confide in him. Such a use of funds, however reprehensible it may be, on moral grounds, is justified on pecuniary considerations to the shareholders, if it only leaves themselves a profit, seeing that they have no other object to look to. Very different is the case of the mutual offices, where money so employed would be a subtraction from funds properly belonging to the whole circle of the insured.

“In fine, the system of mutual insurance, pure and undefiled, is that which the public should, for its own sake, and partly for the sake of morality, also, support. It is an institution contemplating unmixed good to mankind, and where no grosser interests than those of a few officials, can possibly be concerned. Conducted on a large scale, and upon a proper footing, it involves no risk; and, at the same time, from the system of divisions of surplus, the charges must be held as reduced to a perfect square with the necessities of the case, excepting only the expenses of management. Contrasted with this, the proprietary system cannot for a moment be defended—a business pretending to incur risks, and drawing all the profits which can only be due where risks are real—a business which can only thrive in the proportion in which it puts on imposing appearances.”

We are indebted to Professor J. W. Wright, of New York, for the following table. It exhibits the expected duration of life at every age of man's existence, and is the result of long experience and minute observations on life insurance establishments, and may be relied on for general accuracy. The exceptions to its assumptions are found to be so trivial as to supersede the exercise of much consideration as to calculations. Its value to life insurance companies, and those connected in speculations of this character is important.

#### EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE.

A person who has arrived at the *age* of 40, is *expected* to live 27·61–100 in addition; thus bringing his probable age to 67 and the sixty-one one hundredth parts of a year. See 40, in the column of *Age, &c.*

Age.	Expected.	Age.	Expected.	Age.	Expected.	Age.	Expected.
0	38.72	26	37.14	52	19.68	78	6.12
1	44.68	27	36.41	53	18.97	79	5.80
2	47.55	28	35.69	54	18.28	80	5.51
3	49.82	29	35.00	55	17.58	81	5.21
4	50.76	30	34.34	56	16.89	82	4.93
5	51.25	31	33.68	57	16.21	83	4.65
6	51.17	32	33.03	58	15.55	84	4.39
7	50.80	33	32.36	59	14.92	85	4.12
8	50.24	34	31.68	60	14.34	86	3.90
9	49.57	35	31.00	61	13.82	87	3.71
10	48.82	36	30.32	62	13.31	88	3.59
11	48.04	37	29.64	63	12.81	89	3.47
12	47.27	38	28.96	64	12.30	90	3.28
13	46.51	39	28.28	65	11.79	91	3.26
14	45.75	40	27.61	66	11.27	92	3.37
15	45.00	41	26.97	67	10.75	93	3.48
16	44.27	42	26.34	68	10.23	94	3.50
17	43.57	43	25.71	69	9.70	95	3.53
18	42.87	44	25.09	70	9.18	96	3.46
19	42.17	45	24.46	71	8.65	97	3.28
20	41.66	46	23.82	72	8.16	98	3.07
21	40.75	47	23.17	73	7.72	99	2.77
22	40.04	48	22.50	74	7.33	100	2.28
23	39.31	49	21.81	75	7.01	101	1.79
24	38.59	50	21.11	76	6.69	102	1.30
25	37.86	51	20.39	77	6.40	103	0.83

## ART. VI.—COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

## AMERICAN SEAMEN IN FOREIGN PORTS.

THE report and bill of the Hon. R. C. Winthrop, from the committee on commerce, laid before Congress, May 16th, 1844, has just been printed; and as it relates to matters of importance affecting the merchant service of the United States, we proceed to lay before our readers a full synopsis of the report and bill, which will, we trust, be acted on at the next session of Congress, as also a bill reported at the last session for the remodelling of the consular system of the United States.

On the 3d of January, 1844, a resolution was adopted by the House of Representatives, authorizing the committee on commerce to inquire into the expediency of modifying the act concerning consuls, so as to exempt from any contribution to the fund for the relief of American seamen in foreign ports, the owners or masters of vessels which may have been sold in foreign ports, in consequence of injuries resulting from the perils of the sea, and to provide greater securities for the execution of the wills of American citizens dying abroad.

On the 10th of January, additional resolutions were adopted, instructing the same committee to inquire, 1st, into the cause of the recent increase in the number of desertions and discharges of American seamen; whether the laws passed for their relief, have been executed or not; and especially, whether the act of the 28th of February, 1803, which requires the payment of three months extra wages in certain cases, has been complied with, and if not, to inquire into the expediency of imposing a penalty on the master of the vessel for his refusal or neglect to pay said wages to the consul; and also of imposing a penalty on the consul for his refusal



or neglect to account for the same, or of requiring said wages to be paid, in the first instance, to collectors, and by them accounted to the treasury, to constitute a fund for the relief and protection of American seamen. The 2d resolution required the committee to inquire into the expediency of amending the act of 1790, so that the forfeiture of a seaman's wages and effects for desertion, should accrue to the United States and not to the owner of the vessel, to be applied in aid of the fund alluded to in the 1st resolution.

The committee, after investigating the subjects referred to them, in these resolutions, proceed, accordingly, to submit their views, as follows:

The policy of protecting American seamen, and of providing against their being left in foreign ports, or being seized by foreign powers, or being in any way lost to the service of their own country, will not be questioned in any quarter. So important is this policy, in every view, both of commercial independence and of national defence, that no amount of expenditure which might be found necessary to maintain it, would be grudged by the government or the people. It is proper, however, that, in reference to all matters involving appropriations of public money, a wise economy should be observed, and a strict accountability enforced; and the committee were clearly of opinion that, in relation to the matters referred to them, something of stricter accountability, if not of greater economy, would be both expedient and practicable.

By the act of the 28th of February, 1803, it is provided that the master of every vessel clearing for a foreign port shall enter into bond in the sum of \$400 for the production of his crew at the first port at which he shall arrive on his return to the United States; but that such bond shall not be forfeited on account of the master not producing any one or more of said crew who may have been discharged in a foreign country with the consent of the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States there residing, nor on account of any one or more of the crew dying or absconding, or being forcibly impressed into other service.

By the same act, it is further provided, that whenever a vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States shall be sold in a foreign country, and her company discharged—or when a mariner, a citizen of the United States, shall with his own consent be discharged in a foreign country, the master shall pay to the consul or agent, for every mariner so discharged, three months' pay over and above the wages which may then be due him; two-thirds thereof to be paid by such consul or agent to the person so discharged, upon his engagement on board of any vessel to return to the United States, and the remaining third to be retained for creating a fund for the payment of the passage of mariners, citizens of the United States, who may be desirous of returning to the United States, and for the maintenance of American seamen who may be destitute, and may be in such foreign port.

By the same act, it is still further provided, that the consuls, vice-consuls and commercial agents of the United States, shall, from time to time, provide for the mariners of the United States who may be found destitute within their districts respectively, sufficient subsistence, and passage to some port in the United States, in the most reasonable manner, at the expense of the United States.

This act of 1803, remained unaltered until 1840. It will be perceived that, in reference to the exaction of the three months' extra pay, one-third

of which was to be retained for creating a fund for the relief of American seamen in foreign ports, it gave no discretion to the consul or commercial agent. In all cases of discharge to which the provisions of the act were construed to apply, the consuls and other agents had no alternative to the obligation of requiring the payment of the three months' additional wages.

By an act of the 20th of July, 1840, this feature of the act of 1803, was changed, and the consuls and commercial agents of the United States were invested with a very wide discretion over the subject. It is provided by this act, that any such consul or commercial agent may, upon the application of both the master and any mariner of the vessel under his command, discharge such mariner *if he thinks it expedient*, without requiring the payment of three months' wages, under the provisions of the act of 1803, or any other sum of money.

The grounds upon which this provision was recommended, are briefly stated in the report by which the act was introduced, as follows: "The law of 1803, which secures to seamen three months' additional pay, if discharged in foreign ports, has been found, in practical operation, oftentimes to prove injurious to seamen, while it was designed for their benefit. It often occurs that, in the course of regular business, it becomes expedient to discharge the men in a foreign port, and they sail with that knowledge and understanding—as where the vessel is sold, or for any cause is to lie long in port. The execution, under these circumstances, becomes very onerous; and the consequence is, that the men desert by agreement, to enable the master to avoid the penalty; and several consuls, whose duty it has been to execute this law, are of opinion that it ought to be modified; and the committee, upon the evidence before them, are satisfied that this may be done with advantage to all parties, as well as to good morals."

The act of 1840, undoubtedly contains many valuable provisions in relation to the shipment and discharge of seamen, and the duties of consuls; and the committee concur in the opinion that the best interests, as well of mariners and merchants as of the government, required some relaxation of the strict requisitions of the act of 1803. But the unlimited discretion which is given to consuls and commercial agents, in the clause which has been cited, seems to have operated unfortunately for all concerned. If our consular establishment were organized upon a more independent system; if the officers composing it were required to be disconnected entirely with commercial operations; if they were selected exclusively from the citizens of our own country; if they were remunerated by established salaries, and removed from the possibility of all interested connection with shipmasters and shipowners, such a discretion might more safely be intrusted to them.

One of the practical operations of the law, as it now stands, has been represented to the committee as follows: A seaman wishes to be discharged in a foreign port, on account of sickness, or for any other sufficient cause. The master says, "Very well; I will discharge you, but will not pay the three months' extra wages." The seaman is obliged to assent to this condition, or abandon his application. They go before the consul, accordingly, under the section of the act of 1840, and make the joint application which is required. The consul may refuse, if he does not think the discharge *expedient*. But there are two considerations which may influence his notions of expediency: the first, that the master

will refuse to discharge on any other terms; the second, that his own interest is, in gratifying masters and owners, for whom he is usually the consignee.

The committee are of opinion that there are two very different considerations which should control the decision of this question of expediency; the one, the interest of the mariner, and the other, the interest of the government. Of the three months' extra wages, two-thirds are designed for the benefit of the seaman discharged, and one-third for the benefit of the government fund. There may be cases in which a discharge may be so manifestly for the advantage of the seaman, that his portion of the extra wages may reasonably and justly be remitted to the master; while, at the same time, the contribution to the fund may no less reasonably or justly be required. Other cases may be conceived, in which the government may seem called on to assent to the remission of its own share of the charge, but without compromising the claim of the discharged mariner. And, undoubtedly, there are circumstances (as when vessels are stranded or condemned, or compelled to break up their voyage, owing to the casualties of the sea,) in which no extra payment should be demanded.

The committee are satisfied that the law of 1840 requires modification. The *expediency* which is to authorise our consuls and commercial agents, to assent to the unconditional discharge of American seamen in foreign ports, requires some degree of definition and limitation. Such a modification is demanded by a consideration, not only of the influences by which a consul is liable to be swayed in the exercise of so wide a discretion, but of the importance of making the law more certain and uniform in its operation. There are now about 220 consuls and consular agents, in the service of the United States. Each one of them, is, of course, entitled to his own opinion on these questions of expediency, and the law is one thing at Havre and another at Liverpool.

There is reason to believe that, in some ports, the provision of the law of 1803 is regarded as virtually repealed by that of 1840; and that discharges are granted, without any contribution either to the mariner or to the government. The result of this construction is beginning to manifest itself in the increasing appropriations annually required for supplying the deficiency in the relief fund. By the following table from the register's office, it appears that the average amount appropriated for this purpose, during seven years, from 1834 to 1840, was about \$36,500; and that the appropriation never exceeded the sum of \$43,055 99. Since the passage of the act of 1840, the appropriations have averaged nearly \$60,000, and in the year 1843, amounted to more than \$70,000.

It is not desirable, perhaps, say the committee, to do away altogether with the discretionary authority of our consular agents, in relation to this subject; but the principles on which it is to be exercised should be laid down, and some system of accountability devised, by which it may be seen how far those principles have been observed.

With these views, the committee on commerce, propose the provisions contained in the first six sections of the bill, a synopsis of which we here annex.

The bill provides—

1. That no consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States, shall discharge any mariner in a foreign port, without requiring the payment of the two months'

wages to which said mariner is entitled, under the provisions of the act of February 28th, 1803, unless, upon due investigation into the circumstances under which the master and mariner have jointly applied for such discharge, and on a separate examination of such mariner, the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, shall be satisfied that it is for the interest and welfare of such mariner to be so discharged; nor shall any consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, discharge any mariner as aforesaid, without requiring the full amount of three months' wages, as provided by the above-named act, unless under such circumstances as will, in his judgment, secure the United States from all liability to expense on account of such mariner: *Provided, only*, That in the cases of stranded vessels, or vessels condemned as unfit for service, no payment of extra wages shall be required.

2. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent of the United States, shall keep a detailed list of all mariners discharged by them, respectively, specifying their names, and the names of the vessels from which they were discharged, and the payments (if any) which were required on the discharge of each, and the sums of money (if any) which were afterwards advanced on account of each, and shall make official returns of said lists half-yearly, to the treasury department.

3. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent of the United States, shall make an official entry of every discharge which they shall grant, respectively, on the list of the crew and shipping articles of the vessel from which such discharge shall be made, specifying the payment (if any) which has been required in each case; and if they shall have remitted the payment of the two months' wages to which the mariner is entitled, they shall also certify, on said shipping list and articles, that they have allowed the remission upon the joint application of the master and mariner therefor, after a separate examination of the mariner, after a due investigation of all the circumstances, and after being satisfied that the discharge so allowed, without said payment, is for the interest and welfare of the mariner; and if they shall have remitted the payment of the one month's wages to which the United States is entitled, they shall certify that they have allowed the remission, after a due investigation of all the circumstances, and upon being satisfied that they are such as will, in their judgment, secure the United States from all liability to expense on account of such mariner; and a copy of all such entries and certificates shall be annually transmitted to the treasury department, by the proper officer of the customs in the several ports of the United States.

4. That if any consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States, upon discharging a mariner without requiring the payment of the one month's wages to which the United States is entitled, shall neglect to certify, in the manner required in such case by the third section of this act, he shall be accountable to the treasury department for the sum so remitted. And in any action brought by a mariner to recover the extra wages to which he is entitled, under the act of February 28th, 1803, the defence that the payment of such wages was duly remitted, shall not be sustained without the production of the certificate in such case required by this act; or, when its non-production is accounted for, by the production of a certified copy thereof; and the truth of the facts certified to, and the propriety of the remission, shall be still open to investigation.

5. That if, upon the application of any mariner, it shall appear to the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, that he is entitled to his discharge under any act of Congress, or according to the general principles of the maritime law, as recognized in the United States, he shall discharge such mariner, and shall require of the master the payment of three months' wages, as provided in the act of February 28th, 1803, and shall not remit the same, nor any part thereof, except in the cases mentioned in the proviso of the ninth clause of the first section of the act of July 20th, 1840, and in the proviso of the first section of this act.

6. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent, for any neglect to perform the duties enjoined upon him by this act, shall be liable to any injured person for all damage occasioned thereby; and for any violation of the provisions of the first and fifth sections of this act, shall also be liable to indictment, and to a penalty, in the manner provided by the eighteenth clause of the first section of the act of July 20th, 1840.

7. That the act of April 14th, 1792, concerning consuls, &c., is hereby so amended, that if any American citizen dying abroad shall, by will, or any other writing, leave special directions for the management and settlement, by the consul, of the personal or other property which he may die possessed of in the country where he may die, it shall be the duty of the consul strictly to observe the directions so given by the deceased. Or, if such citizen, so dying, shall, by will, or any other writing, have appointed any other person than the consul to take charge of and settle his affairs, in that case it shall be the duty of the consul, when and so often as required by the so appointed agent or trustee of the deceased,

to give his official aid in whatever way may be necessary to facilitate the operations of such trustee or agent, and to protect the property of the deceased from any interference of the local authorities of the country in which he may have deceased; and to this end, it shall also be the duty of the consul to place his official seals on all or any portions of the property of the deceased, as may be required by the said agent or trustee, and to break and remove the same seals when required by the said agent or trustee, and not otherwise; he, the said consul, receiving therefor the fees prescribed by law, viz: two dollars for each and every seal.

Before concluding their report, the committee proceed to notice briefly some of the special suggestions contained in the resolutions of reference, not embraced in the views already presented.

One of them relates to the expediency of modifying the act of 1803, so as to exempt from any contribution to the fund for the relief of American seamen in foreign ports, the owners and masters of vessels which may have been sold abroad in consequence of injuries resulting from the perils of the sea. The committee are of opinion that it was never within the intent and meaning of the act of 1803, that the payment of the three months' additional wages should be required in such cases. Indeed, an original construction of the act to this effect, was given in an official opinion of the then attorney-general of the United States, in 1804; and this opinion was made the basis of instructions to our consuls and consular agents, in a circular letter of the department of state, in July, 1805. The same construction has been adopted by subsequent attorney-generals, in opinions of more recent date. These opinions are annexed to the report, as furnishing the best exposition of the act in question. As, however, it is understood that there is no uniformity of construction on this point, in the various foreign ports, and as some instances have occurred in which the misfortunes of the owner of a wrecked vessel have been aggravated by the exaction of this extra payment to the crew, the committee recommend the adoption of an explanatory proviso to meet the case.

A second inquiry contained in the resolutions of reference, relates to the expediency of modifying the act of 1792, concerning consuls, so as to provide greater securities for the execution of the wills of American citizens dying abroad.

The committee are of opinion, that nothing more is necessary to this end, than to develop more fully and more clearly the existing provisions of law. They have, accordingly, appended to the bill given above, an explanatory section on this subject.

*Statement of payments from the Treasury, on account of the relief and protection of American seamen, from January 1, 1834, to December 31, 1843, including the sums paid for the return of seamen to the United States—Treasury Department, Register's Office, February 27, 1844.*

1834,.....	\$27,475 69	1839,.....	\$39,082 28
1835,.....	34,479 40	1840,.....	43,055 99
1836,.....	30,481 39	1841,.....	49,466 98
1837,.....	39,639 01	1842,.....	58,320 52
1838,.....	40,226 28	1843,.....	70,884 97



## ART. VII.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

## NUMBER III.\*

1770. *Act to Repeal Duties, except on Tea, &c.*—The affairs of the colonies now occupied the attention of Parliament. The British merchants who traded to America, had sustained immense losses by the rejection of their goods; and, apprehensive of ruin, if the associations should continue, presented petitions to Parliament, stating their sufferings, and praying for its invention. On the 5th of March, Lord North proposed a bill for the repeal of part of the act of 1767, which laid a duty on glass, paper and painters colors, but continuing that part of the law which exacted a duty from tea. He assigned as a reason for bringing in the bill, the dangerous combinations which the imposts had produced in America, with the losses and dissatisfactions which they had caused among the merchants at home. He censured the act, not as an impolitic claim, but as an unproductive impost. "The articles taxed," he said, "being chiefly British manufactures, ought to have been encouraged, instead of being burdened with assessments. The duty on tea was continued, for maintaining the parliamentary right of taxation. An impost of three-pence in the pound could never be opposed by the colonists, unless they were determined to rebel against Great Britain. Besides, a duty on that article, payable in England, and amounting to nearly one shilling in the pound, was taken off on its exportation to America, so that the inhabitants of the colonies saved ninepence in the pound." The minister ought better to have understood the sentiments of the American colonists, whose declarations and acts demonstrated, that their objection was not to the amount, but to the claim. The members of opposition saw and predicted the inefficacy of his plea, and repeated the arguments on the injustice and inexpediency of taxing America, and the evils which had arisen from the attempt; but his propositions were carried by a large majority. "The act may be considered an omen of Lord North's administration."

On the 12th of April, the king gave his consent to the act for repealing the duties, with its exception of the duty on tea. This duty was continued to keep up the sovereignty. When the stamp act was repealed, the Parliament took care to pass an act "for securing the dependence of America on Great Britain." That declaratory act, and this reservation of the duty on tea, left the cause of contention between the two countries in its entire force. Lord North, who had moved the repeal of the obnoxious port duties of 1767, excepting the duty on tea, being strongly urged by the members in opposition, not to preserve the contention when he relinquished the revenue, he replied: "Has the repeal of the stamp act taught the Americans obedience? Has our lenity inspired them with moderation? Can it be proper, while they deny our legal power to tax them, to acquiesce in the argument of illegality, and, by the repeal of the whole law, to give up that power? No: the properest time to exert our right of taxation is when the right is refused. To temporise, is to yield; and the authority of the mother country, if it is now unsupported, will, in reality, be relinquished for ever. A total repeal cannot be thought of, till America is prostrate at our feet."

Governor Pownall, who moved to include the duty on tea as an amend-

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\* Continued from 1769, Merchants' Magazine, for August, 1844, pp. 159 to 163.

ment to the original motion, acknowledged that even the total repeal of the duties in question, though it might be expected to do much, would not restore satisfaction to America. "If," said he, "it be asked, whether it will remove the apprehensions excited by your resolutions and address of the last year, for bringing to trial, in England, persons accused of treason in America? I answer, no. If it be asked, if this commercial concession would quiet the minds of the Americans as to the political doubts and fears which have struck them to the heart throughout the continent? I answer, no. So long as they are left in doubt, whether the habeas corpus act, whether the bill of rights, whether the common law, as now existing in England, have any operation and effect in America, they cannot be satisfied. At this hour, they know not whether the civil constitutions be not suspended and superseded by the establishment of a military force. The Americans think that they have, in return to all their applications, experienced a temper and disposition that is unfriendly; that the enjoyment and exercise of the common rights of freemen have been refused to them. Never, with these views, will they solicit the favor of this house—never more will they wish to bring before Parliament the grievances under which they conceive themselves to labor. Deeply as they feel, they suffer and endure with a determined and alarming silence: for their liberty, they are under no apprehensions. It was first planted under the auspicious genius of the constitution. It has grown up into a verdant and flourishing tree; and should any severe strokes be aimed at the branches, and fate reduce it to the bare stock, it would only take deeper root and spring out again more hardy and durable than before. They trust to Providence, and wait with firmness and fortitude the issue."

The event proved that Mr. Pownall knew, incomparably better than Lord North, the character and state of the colonies. During his residence in America, while successively governor of two of the provinces, he acquired that knowledge which the British ministry could not, and some provincial governors would not acquire.

The jealousy of the colonists was directed against the principle of the government, which was as discernible in the imposition of a small, as of a larger duty. The partial repeal, therefore, was not satisfactory; and, though the general plan of non-importation was now relinquished, it appeared to be the sense of the principal commercial towns that no tea should be imported, and that, if any were brought into their ports, it should be smuggled to avoid paying the duty. An association was formed at the same time, not to drink tea, until the act imposing the duty should be repealed.\*

1772. *The Exports from Georgia*, in 217 vessels, amounted to £121,677 sterling.

1773. *Duty on Tea Resisted*.—The British government, determined to carry into execution the duty on tea, attempted to effect by policy, what was found to be impracticable by constraint. The measures of the colonists had already produced such diminutions of exports from Great Britain, that the warehouses of the East India Company contained about 17,000,000 lbs. of tea, for which a market could not readily be procured. The unwillingness of that company to lose their commercial profits, and

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\* Holmes's Annals of America. Gordon, i. 198, 199. President Adams, Lett. i. Belsham, Great Britain, v. b. 15.

of the ministry to lose the expected revenue from the sale of the tea in America, led to a compromise for the security of both. The East India Company were authorized by law to export their tea, free of duties, to all places whatever; by which regulation, tea, though loaded with an unexceptionable duty, would come cheaper to America than before it had been made a source of revenue. The crisis now approached when the colonies were to decide, whether they would submit to be taxed by the British Parliament, or practically support their own principles and meet the consequences. One sentiment appears to have pervaded the entire continent. The new ministerial plan was universally considered as a direct attack on the liberties of the colonists, which it was the duty of all to oppose. A violent ferment was everywhere excited, the corresponding committees were extremely active, and it was very generally declared that, whoever should, directly or indirectly, countenance this dangerous invasion of their rights, is an enemy to his country. The East India Company, confident of finding a market for their tea, reduced, as it now was, in its price, freighted several ships to the colonies with that article, and appointed agents for the disposal of it. Some cargoes were sent to New York; some to Philadelphia; some to Charleston, South Carolina; and three to Boston. The inhabitants of New York and Philadelphia sent the ships back to London; "and they sailed up the Thames to proclaim to all the nation, that New York and Pennsylvania would not be enslaved."\* The inhabitants of Charleston unloaded the tea and stored it in cellars, where it could not be used, and where it finally perished.

*Tea Destroyed at Boston.*—The inhabitants of Boston tried every measure to send back the three tea ships which had arrived there, but without success. The captains of the ships had consented, if permitted, to return with their cargoes to England; but the consignees refused to discharge them from their obligations; the custom-house, to give them a clearance for their return; and the governor, to grant them a passport for clearing the fort. It was easily seen, that the tea would be gradually landed from the ships lying so near the town; and that, if landed, it would be disposed of, and the purpose of establishing the monopoly and raising a revenue effected. To prevent this dreaded consequence, a number of armed men, disguised like Indians, boarded the ships and threw their whole cargoes of tea into the dock.†

The entries at the port of Boston, this year, were 587; the clearances, 411.

1791. *Imports into the United States.*—In 1791, the imports into the United States were valued at \$19,823,060.

1801. *Exports of South Carolina.*—There were exported from South Carolina nearly 65,000 barrels of rice, and upwards of 8,000,000 pounds of cotton. The number of vessels which entered the harbor of Charleston, exclusive of the coasters of South Carolina, during the year, was 1,274. The exports from the state, exclusive of rice and cotton, were 8,502 pounds of indigo, 5,996 hogsheads of tobacco; and the value of the entire exports was \$14,304,045.

\* J. Adams.

† Gordon, i. Lett. 7. Marshall, ii. c. 3. Pres. Adams, Lett. i. Ramsay, Rev. S. Car. i. 15, 16. Coll. Mass. Hist. Soc. ii. 45. Annual Register. About 17 persons boarded the ships in Boston harbor, and emptied 342 chests of tea.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE fall trade, although fairly prosperous, has been, thus far, more backward, and less animated, than was anticipated. The imports of foreign goods, although they have been in amount 50 per cent greater than last year, are not yet so large as for the previous year, 1842. Notwithstanding this comparatively small supply, however, the demand is apparently not equal to it, and prices are very heavy, leaving a loss on many descriptions. This is partly owing to the high prices necessarily charged for the goods, under present circumstances, and partly to the impression which obtained in the interior, that the import of goods was unusually large, and that money was become dearer; and that, therefore, goods would be lower in the latter part of the season. Consequently, the postponement of visits to the city has, in some measure, contributed to the decline in goods. The large amount of duties collected during the past year has, in a great degree, contributed to the impression that the import of goods is very large. According to the law of last year, the fiscal year ends June 30. The compromise act expired June 30, 1842; and on the 1st of September of that year, the present tariff came into operation. The official returns give the customs revenue of the whole United States, for the last three years, ending June 30, 1844, as follows:—

CUSTOMS REVENUES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Duties.	Dutiable imp
1842, (last year compromise act.).....	\$21,597,875	\$75,805,874
1843, .....	12,817,561	38,452,503
1844, .....	26,109,188	72,525,500

This is for the year ending June 30. For that ending September 30, according to the old arrangement, the figures would be somewhat higher. The returns show, however, that the actual import of dutiable goods is not so large as in 1842; which was, in relation to former years, one of a small trade. The small supply of foreign goods which was received last year, suffered the stocks, both in the stores of the Atlantic border, and the shops of the interior, as well as in the hands of consumers, to become greatly reduced; and the actual wants of trade stimulated a renewed demand this year—not, however, to such an extent but that a supply equal to that of 1842, is sufficient to glut the markets. The cash duties collected, have produced a great accumulation of money in the vaults of the government banks; which, although withdrawn from commerce, has not produced any material advance in the rate of money. The amount in the banks, to the credit of the federal government, has been as follows:—

UNITED STATES DEPOSITS IN BANKS.

	June 21.	July 29.	August 26.
Bank of Commerce, New York,.....	\$1,870,472	\$1,206,277	\$1,275,356
“ America, “ .....	1,327,519	1,189,256	2,557,436
Am. Exchange Bank, “ .....	119,280	997,280	830,583
Merchants' Bank, “ .....	1,066,890	1,881,426	1,440,126
Total, New York,.....	\$4,384,161	\$5,274,239	\$6,103,501
Other banks,.....	4,763,282	4,755,373	5,417,494
Total,.....	\$8,747,443	\$10,029,612	\$11,520,995

Near \$2,000,000 accumulated in the government banks in sixty days, beyond what was checked out for payment on government accounts in other quarters. The amount in the treasury, July 1st, 1843, was \$10,434,507; of which a large portion was the proceeds of a 5 per cent loan, authorized for the redemption of outstanding treasury-notes, which have since been nearly all redeemed. In January last, the large imports began to

throw a balance into the treasury, which has since swollen to near \$13,000,000. At the close of September of this year, near \$6,000,000 will be paid out for the government debt, due in January next. It is not probable that the customs will continue to accumulate to so great an extent for the balance of the present year, nor that the revenue for the next year will be as large. At the present average rate of duties, the proceeds of the three articles of cotton, tobacco, and rice, exported from the United States, and returned in goods, would yield a revenue of \$22,000,000, or a sum sufficient for the support of the government.

The comparatively small imports of the present year have obviated the necessity for the shipment of any specie, as was at one time expected. The movement of the cotton crop, under the influence of speculation, had the effect, in the winter months, of diminishing the amount of exchange then upon the market, and of throwing the supply more into the summer than in usual years, consequent upon the large stocks which were held in the winter months; and to do which, required the employment of sums of money so large, as to raise the rate of interest, in February last, to 7 per cent. Cotton, however, then began to go forward, and the rate of money to fall, while exchanges remained steady. The following table, from the able cotton circular of W. P. Wright, Dorr's buildings, New York, gives a brief sketch of the cotton trade, and its influence upon exchanges for the year. We insert it here, as a matter of record:—

## STATEMENT

*Showing the sales of Cotton, the prices for "Fair Uplands" and "Fair Orleans," in the city of New York, with the rates of freight to Liverpool, and the course of Exchange on London and Paris, at the middle and close of each month, from September 1, 1843, to August 31, 1844.*

Date.	Fair Uplands.	Fair Orleans.	Freight to Liverpool.		Exch. on London.	Exchange on Paris.	Stock in the United States.	
			sq.	rd.			1844.	1843.
1843.								
Sept. 14.	8½ a 8¾	8¾ a 9	3-16	1-4	9½ a 9¾	5.23½ a 5.22½		
" 30.	9¼ a 9½	9¾ a 10	3-16	1-4	9¼ a 9½	5.25 a .....	88,181	43,014
Oct. 14.	8½ a 9	9 a 9½	1-4	1-4	9 a 9¼	5.26½ a 5.25	.....	.....
" 30.	8¼ a 8¾	9 a 9½	5-16	3-8	8¼ a 8¾	5.27½ a .....	149,123	121,416
Nov. 14.	8½ a 9	9½ a 10	3-8	7-16	7½ a 7¾	5.35 a 5.32½	.....	.....
" 30.	8½ a 9	9½ a 10	5-16	7-16	8 a 8½	5.33½ a 5.32½	256,632	221,580
Dec. 14.	9 a 9½	9¾ a 10½	3-8	1-2	8¼ a 8¾	5.33½ a 5.32½	.....	.....
" 30.	9½ a 9¾	10¼ a 10½	3-8	1-2	9 a 9½	5.27½ a .....	427,727	341,139
1844.								
Jan. 14.	10½ a 10¾	10¾ a 11	3-8	7-16	9 a 9½	5.28½ a 5.27½	.....	.....
" 30.	10½ a 10¾	10¾ a 11	3-8	7-16	9 a 9½	5.32½ a 5.30	521,803	384,471
Feb. 14.	10½ a 10¾	10¾ a 10¾	1-2	5-8	9 a 9¼	5.32½ a 5.30	.....	.....
" 28.	10 a 10¾	10¼ a 10½	1-2	5-8	8¾ a 9	5.30 a 5.28½	620,994	422,137
March 14.	8¾ a 8¾	9¼ a 9¾	1-2	5-8	8 a 8¼	5.31½ a .....	.....	.....
" 30.	8¼ a 8¾	8¾ a 9	7-16	9-10	8¼ a 8½	5.30 a 5.27½	744,219	466,285
April 13.	8¼ a 8¾	8¾ a 8¾	3-8	1-2	8¼ a 8¾	5.27½ a .....	.....	.....
" 30.	8 a 8¼	8½ a 8¾	3-8	7-16	8½ a 9	5.28½ a 5.27½	603,814	354,894
May 15.	7¾ a 8	8 a 8½	5-16	3-8	8½ a 9	5.27½ a .....	.....	.....
" 31.	7¾ a 7¾	8 a 8¼	1-4	5-10	8¾ a 9½	5.26½ a 5.25	404,644	249,097
June 15.	7¾ a 8	8¼ a 8½	9-32	11-32	9 a 9½	5.26½ a .....	.....	.....
" 29.	7¾ a 8	8¼ a 8½	3-16	1-4	9 a 9½	5.26½ a 5.25	218,469	140,031
July 15.	7¾ a 8	8¼ a 8½	3-16	3-16	9½ a 9½	5.27½ a 5.26½	.....	.....
" 31.	7¾ a 8	8¼ a 8½	3-16	1-4	9½ a 9½	5.26½ a 5.25	150,908	116,846
Aug. 15.	7½ a 7¾	8 a 8¼	3-16	1-4	9½ a 10	5.23½ a 5.22½	.....	.....
" 31.	7½ a 7½	7¾ a 8	1-4	5-16	9½ a 10	5.22½ a .....	117,453	95,162

This gives the complete movement for the year. The price, under the influence of speculation, (based on a short crop,) began to swell towards the close of November, and



continued to do so up to the close of January, when the accounts from Manchester, of a reduced consumption, consequent upon the increased price, checked the market; and, followed by receipts much in excess of the supposed short crop, entirely broke the speculation; and cotton going forward, rapidly enhanced freights, reduced bills, and, releasing a large sum of money from cotton, diminished the rate of interest. It will be observed that the stock has been uniformly much larger at the close of each successive month, than at the corresponding period of the previous year; showing that the export, and consequently the supply of bills, has been spread more uniformly through the year; giving, in the foregoing table, a most extraordinary uniformity in the price of sterling. At no time through the year has it varied from *par* sufficiently to admit of the movement of specie, and we may observe that the internal exchanges have, throughout the year, exhibited the same features.

The price of cotton closed in this port 11 per cent less than at the opening of the season; and the prospect is, that, for the coming year, low and steady rates, uninfluenced by speculation, will be preserved. The receipts and exports of cotton, in all the ports of the United States, have been, according to the circular of Mr. Wright, monthly as follows:—

STATEMENT

Showing the Comparative Receipts, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton, for all the ports in the United States, as made up in New York on the 1st of each month, for the years 1843, '44, and 1842, '43.

Date.	Receipts		Exports..				Total	Total
	from 1st Sept'r, 1843.	Receipts from 1st Sept'r, 1842.	To Great Britain.	France.	North of Europe.	Other foreign ports.	fm. Sept. 1, 1842, to date.	fm. Sept. 1, 1842, to date.
1843—October 1st,...	17,189	32,131	1,424	2,971	1,789	419	6,603	12,654
“ November 1st,...	115,270	167,016	6,762	7,621	1,789	2,972	19,084	59,158
“ December 1st,...	385,097	424,667	63,213	44,095	3,016	8,318	118,642	184,809
1844—January 4th,...	644,695	783,897	151,854	65,267	4,347	9,883	231,351	391,309
“ February 1st,...	840,823	1,128,709	219,863	83,621	4,769	13,282	321,535	667,879
“ March 1st,.....	1,181,694	1,496,179	282,474	115,199	6,069	16,140	419,882	939,712
“ April 1st,.....	1,503,345	1,880,538	398,750	138,892	11,833	22,641	572,116	1,230,454
“ May 1st,.....	1,761,010	2,080,382	673,865	190,360	26,668	35,042	925,875	1,515,186
“ June 1st,.....	1,899,644	2,251,175	918,479	233,832	38,839	55,545	1,246,695	1,772,006
“ July 2d,.....	1,963,268	2,354,973	1,107,188	263,037	53,605	67,220	1,491,050	1,934,047
“ August 1st,.....	2,000,890	2,365,253	1,161,525	274,795	60,555	71,595	1,568,470	1,981,166
“ September 2d,...	2,019,054	2,374,332	1,190,657	280,050	66,940	74,202	1,611,849	2,005,889

STATEMENT

Showing the Weekly, Monthly, and Total Receipts of Cotton, into the principal ports of the United States, from the 1st of September, 1843, to 31st of August, 1844.

Date.	N. Ori's.	Mobile.	Flori-da.	G'rgia.	S. Ca-rolina.	N. Ca-rolina.	W'kly total.	Monthly total.	Grand total.
1843.									
September 9,....	2,073	552	..	1,037	860	56	4,578		4,578
“ 16,....	1,702	707	17	1,345	690	..	4,361		8,939
“ 23,....	3,810	939	85	1,280	2,184	145	8,463		17,402
“ 30,....	7,491	1,259	47	1,297	2,734	166	12,994		30,396
Total, September,...	15,076	3,477	149	4,859	6,468	367		30,396	
October 7,.....	13,918	1,464	53	2,367	5,609	..	23,492		53,888
“ 14,.....	15,203	556	13	2,086	5,293	188	23,339		77,227
“ 21,.....	19,985	2,703	..	4,215	10,067	11	36,981		114,208
“ 28,.....	23,776	1,073	1,086	2,129	9,451	134	37,739		151,947
Total, October,....	72,882	5,796	1,152	10,797	30,591	333		121,551	
November 4,....	20,300	4,755	1,423	6,614	9,094	252	42,447		194,394
“ 11,....	28,498	4,193	550	3,755	8,678	583	44,227		238,621
“ 18,....	30,933	5,688	1,823	6,319	6,708	129	51,600		290,221
“ 25,....	24,890	9,393	2,765	8,264	8,337	..	53,658		343,879
Total, November,...	102,609	24,020	6,561	24,052	32,817	964		191,932	

## STATEMENT—Continued.

Date.	New Orleans.	Mobile.	Florida.	Georgia.	S. Carolina.	N. Carolina.	W'kly total.	Monthly total.	Grand total.
1843.									
December 2,.....	29,957	17,037	1,220	7,174	9,557	17	64,962		408,841
“ 9,.....	21,980	29,873	8,291	8,240	12,289	79	71,752		480,593
“ 16,.....	25,630	23,101	9,869	12,063	11,346	714	82,723		563,316
“ 23,.....	19,613	23,262	9,528	8,718	8,706	421	70,248		633,564
“ 30,.....	18,532	20,159	8,763	6,320	10,522	224	64,520		698,084
Total, December,--	115,712	104,432	37,651	42,515	52,420	1,455		354,205	
1844.									
January 6,.....	23,979	18,575	8,165	7,447	7,408	731	66,305		764,388
“ 13,.....	19,626	20,614	4,561	9,428	11,297	556	66,082		830,471
“ 20,.....	14,781	18,745	5,573	5,837	6,970	569	52,475		882,946
“ 27,.....	24,093	19,839	6,364	8,715	8,080	24	67,115		950,061
Total, January,...	82,479	77,773	24,663	31,427	33,755	1,880		251,997	
February 3,.....	26,331	10,249	6,919	7,738	11,101	210	62,578		1,012,639
“ 10,.....	30,120	19,299	5,012	7,743	14,598	545	77,317		1,089,956
“ 17,.....	36,223	22,235	6,491	7,105	9,975	362	82,391		1,172,347
“ 24,.....	36,622	23,763	4,345	6,800	9,599	15	81,144		1,253,491
Total, February,--	129,296	75,546	22,767	29,386	45,273	1,162		303,430	
March 2,.....	33,239	21,917	2,923	6,384	10,240	664	75,367		1,328,858
“ 9,.....	34,623	16,180	6,265	10,656	10,204	518	78,446		1,407,304
“ 16,.....	25,877	15,138	5,932	6,179	7,626	236	60,988		1,468,292
“ 23,.....	22,550	22,728	6,681	6,737	3,995	262	62,943		1,531,235
“ 30,.....	24,185	16,774	3,750	7,818	2,413	8	54,948		1,586,183
Total, March,.....	140,474	92,737	25,551	37,764	34,478	1,688		332,692	
April 6,.....	26,615	20,443	3,217	2,217	15,505	282	68,279		1,654,462
“ 13,.....	25,259	8,995	5,144	6,279	5,675	..	51,352		1,705,814
“ 20,.....	21,439	9,810	2,783	5,020	2,814	57	41,923		1,747,737
“ 27,.....	20,615	10,711	2,418	6,988	2,504	7	43,243		1,790,969
Total, April,.....	93,928	49,959	13,562	20,504	26,498	346		204,797	
May 4,.....	15,898	8,009	2,203	3,073	4,327	178	33,688		1,824,668
“ 11,.....	22,762	6,460	1,622	5,692	5,217	9	41,762		1,866,430
“ 18,.....	10,289	2,480	1,712	2,959	3,122	28	20,600		1,887,030
“ 25,.....	8,078	4,214	2,310	2,907	4,139	12	21,660		1,908,690
Total, May,.....	57,027	21,163	7,847	14,631	16,815	227		117,710	
June 1,.....	6,433	3,179	1,276	4,955	2,730	..	18,573		1,927,273
“ 8,.....	6,417	1,576	820	3,252	1,978	75	14,118		1,941,381
“ 15,.....	3,475	2,491	167	3,226	2,863	18	12,200		1,953,581
“ 22,.....	3,583	931	795	1,419	1,613	..	8,341		1,961,922
“ 29,.....	3,490	1,098	129	1,590	2,205	..	8,512		1,970,434
Total, June,.....	23,398	9,235	3,187	14,442	11,389	93		61,744	
July 6,.....	2,613	794	..	428	3,144	..	6,979		1,977,413
“ 13,.....	1,741	444	146	1,234	338	20	3,923		1,981,336
“ 20,.....	760	362	53	1,174	1,360	..	3,709		1,985,045
“ 27,.....	1,307	447	224	1,042	1,202	40	4,262		1,989,307
Total, July,.....	6,421	2,047	423	3,878	6,044	60		18,873	
August 3,.....	1,323	223	105	1,120	724	..	3,495		1,992,802
“ 10,.....	454	251	85	412	1,384	..	2,586		1,995,388
“ 17,.....	2,720	221	76	808	2,096	..	5,921		2,001,309
“ 24,.....	1,477	223	..	1,290	721	..	3,711		2,005,020
“ 31,.....	1,956	649	..	1,086	878	..	4,569		2,009,589
Total, August,....	7,930	1,567	266	4,716	5,803	..		20,282	
Add receipts for Virginia, of which no regular weekly account is received,....								14,500	
Add receipts at Baltimore and Philadelphia, overland,.....								1,100	
Add stock in Augusta and Hamburg,.....								17,498	
Add, for corrections made in annual statements at the South, and which I am unable to place under their respective dates,.....								5,892	
								38,990	
Less amount of Texas cotton received in New Orleans,.....								18,170	20,820
Total crop of the United States,.....									2,030,409

The crop of the year, which closed on the 1st instant, has been over 2,000,000 bales—considerably larger than was estimated at the commencement of the year. In our article for October, last year, when commenting upon the crop, we remarked as follows:—

“This is likely to prove a speculative year. As a general rule, however, in the history of the cotton trade, we believe no money has ever been made by shipping cotton on speculation. A speculative movement in the cotton market is generally on so extended a scale, and so violent in its course, that disaster, for the most part, attends it.”

The year has now elapsed, and the foregoing tables indicate that the movements in cotton have formed no exception to the general rule. The speculation took place; and, although under circumstances more favorable for a successful consummation than perhaps ever before, resulted disastrously. All the elements of a large consumption of cotton were in active operation. Food in England was cheap, favoring a home trade—the China market took off unusual quantities of goods—Europe increased her consumption, as did our own manufacturers; and money, both here and England, was, throughout the year, unusually abundant;—yet, a crop of cotton, 370,000 bales less than the previous year, failed, under this favorable combination of circumstances, to impart success to the movements of operations. The result developed the truth, that the production of cotton is so rapid and large, that a continuance of the most favorable circumstances is necessary to absorb the annually increasing quantities, and sustain a fair price. The progress of the crops, for several years, has been as follows:—

GROWTH OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES, FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Years.	South Carolina and Virg'a.					N. Carolina and Virg'a.	Total.
	N. Orleans. Bales.	Mobile. Bales.	Florida. Bales.	Georgia. Bales.	Bales.		
1828-29,....	264,249	79,958	4,146	249,166	168,275	104,021	870,415
1829-30,....	354,024	102,680	5,787	253,117	188,871	72,412	976,845
1830-31,....	426,485	113,186	13,073	230,502	185,116	70,435	1,008,847
1831-32,....	322,635	125,921	22,651	276,437	173,872	65,961	987,477
1832-33,....	403,443	129,366	23,641	271,025	181,879	61,087	1,070,438
1833-34,....	454,719	149,978	36,738	258,655	227,359	76,945	1,204,394
1834-35,....	511,146	197,692	52,085	222,670	203,166	67,569	1,254,323
1835-36,....	481,536	226,715	79,762	270,220	231,237	61,257	1,361,628
1836-37,....	601,014	232,243	83,703	262,971	196,377	46,665	1,422,968
1837-38,....	731,256	9,807	106,171	304,210	294,334	55,719	1,801,497
1838-39,....	584,994	251,742	75,177	205,112	210,171	33,336	1,360,532
1839-40,....	956,922	445,725	136,257	292,693	313,194	33,044	2,177,835
1840-41,....	820,140	317,642	93,552	149,000	225,943	28,669	1,634,945
1841-42,....	727,658	318,315	114,416	232,271	260,801	30,750	1,684,211
1842-43,....	1,060,246	481,714	161,088	299,491	351,658	24,678	2,378,875
1843-44,....	832,172	467,990	145,562	255,597	304,870	24,218	2,030,409

The exports, stocks, and United States consumption, as follows:—

EXPORTS, CONSUMPTION, AND STOCK.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Great Britain,....bales	798,418	1,246,791	858,762	935,631	1,469,711	1,202,498
France,.....	242,243	447,465	348,776	398,129	346,139	232,685
North of Europe,.....	21,517	103,232	56,279	79,956	117,794	69,053
Other ports,.....	12,511	78,515	49,480	51,531	76,493	75,254
Total,.....	1,074,689	1,876,003	1,313,277	1,465,249	2,010,137	1,629,490
U. S. consumption,....	276,018	295,193	297,288	267,850	325,129	346,744
Stock U. S., Sept. 1,...	52,244	58,442	72,479	31,807	94,486	159,772

The growing crop will undoubtedly be a large one; as the season is favorable, and unusually early. The continual increase of physical force in those states where the yield is the most prolific, is greater, by far, than that of the consumption of cotton. The receipts of cotton from Texas are now nearly as large as the production of Virginia; and, with the emigration of slaves from the latter states to Texas, will rapidly increase. The

following is a table of the area in miles of the cotton states, and the number of slaves at different periods:—

States.	Area—miles.	SLAVES.		
		1820.	1830.	1840.
Arkansas,.....	55,000	1,617	4,576	19,935
Tennessee,.....	40,200	80,107	141,603	183,059
Louisiana,.....	49,300	69,064	109,588	168,452
Mississippi,.....	47,680	32,814	65,659	195,211
Alabama,.....	52,900	47,439	117,549	253,532
Florida,.....	55,680	.....	15,011	25,717
Georgia,.....	61,500	149,656	217,531	280,944
South Carolina,.....	31,750	258,075	315,401	327,038
North Carolina,.....	49,500	205,017	245,601	245,817
Total,.....	443,510	843,775	1,332,519	1,699,695

In the state of North Carolina, there was, during the last ten years, no increase of slave population, and the production of cotton fell from 72,000 to 24,000 bales. The greatest increase in slave population and production, has been in Alabama; being near 800 per cent in ten years. The population of the four states, Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana, the cotton of which is delivered at New Orleans, gives an increase of 75 per cent; and the receipts of cotton at that point have increased 200 per cent. The crop of 1840, received at New Orleans, was 956,922 bales. The slave population in those states, in that year, was 565,000; having increased 75 per cent, or  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent per annum—at which rate of increase, the slave population must now be 733,000; and the crop they have just delivered was 120,000 bales less than in 1840, although the bales this year are doubtless much heavier. With a favorable season for picking out, such as the present, and a late frost, it is by no means improbable that the crop may reach, from all sources, 3,000,000 bales. A fair crop, for the physical force, would be 2,500,000 bales—giving a rapidity of production far in excess of the consumption, under the most favorable circumstances. The consumption of cotton goods in the United States is very slow of progress. The number of bales taken by the manufacturers, in 1843, was 346,744, against 126,512 in 1830—an increase of 220,000 bales in thirteen years. The import of foreign cottons has diminished as follows:—

#### IMPORT OF FOREIGN COTTON GOODS.

Years.	Dyed.	White.	Yarn. Lbs.
	Yards.	Yards.	
1836,.....	44,577,811	12,344,921	272,441
1839,.....	32,559,271	9,859,251	164,456
1840,.....	15,618,092	4,393,341	223,755
1843,.....	6,339,636	2,497,240	90,056

From 1836 to 1844, the consumption of cotton in the United States increased 110,000 bales; which, at an average of 375 lbs. per bale, gave a weight of 41,250,000 lbs. Deducting 10 per cent for waste, leaves 37,125,000 lbs.; and, at the usual weight of American cloths, (three and one-fifth yards to the pound,) gives an increased manufacture of 118,795,000 yards of cotton. It appears above, that, in the same period, there was a diminished import of 48,085,856 yards; which, deducted from the increased manufacture, gives an enhanced consumption of 70,709,144 yards of cotton cloth, in a period of seven years, during which, the population increased 3,000,000; being 23 yards per annum, for each inhabitant. It would appear, from the figures, that the consumption of cotton per head, in the United States, is much less now, than ten years since. If we take the weight of cotton consumed in 1831, with the number of yards imported, we shall find, on comparing them with the same items in 1843, that the consumption of cotton goods has materially diminished, as follows:—

	1831.	1843.
Bales consumed,.....	182,142	346,744
“ weight,.....	375	375
Consumed,.....lbs.	88,303,250	130,029,000
Deduct 10 per cent,.....	8,830,325	13,002,900
Weight manufactured,.....lbs.	79,472,925	117,026,100
Yards of cloth, at 3 1-5 yards to lb.,.....	254,311,360	374,483,520
“ imported,.....	68,577,893	8,836,876
Consumption of goods,.....	322,889,253	383,320,396
Population,.....	13,288,420	18,580,000
Consumption per head,.....yards	24½	20¾

This gives a reduction, according to the population, of near 20 per cent. This calculation does not include the exports of cotton goods; which have, however, rather increased of late years, and would make the action in the consumption appear greater. The export of goods and yarns from Great Britain, in the same period, has been as follows:—

EXPORTS OF COTTON GOODS AND YARNS FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1843.	Increase.
Cotton,.....yards	421,385,303	782,140,921	360,755,618
“ yarn,..... “	63,821,440	151,809,220	87,987,780
Import of U. States cotton,....	219,334,628	424,297,576	204,962,948

Of this large increase, over 100,000,000 yards of plain cottons has been sent, in the last four years, to the China market. The increase of United States raw cotton imported, is equal to over 600,000 yards of cloth; showing that the increased consumption of Great Britain must have been over 200,000,000 yards, in the same period that the increase in the United States was 60,000,000 yards. This is apparently the case, notwithstanding that the home trade of Great Britain has of late labored under a severe depression, consequent upon the short harvests. It is now apparent that the evils growing out of that circumstance have subsided; and that the abundance of money, with cheap food, is again rapidly promoting an extension of trade. The export trade of the kingdom first feels the influence; and, during the last six months, an extraordinary improvement has been manifest, as compared with former years. This is apparent in the following table of the export of leading articles of British manufacture, for the first six months of each of the last four years:—

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES, FOR FIRST HALF OF THE LAST FOUR YEARS.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coals and culm,.....	£315,180	£440,598	£319,470	£286,863
Cotton manufactures,.....	8,220,085	7,087,108	7,983,650	9,192,572
Cotton yarn,.....	2,979,651	3,419,278	3,299,176	2,914,872
Earthenware,.....	296,764	290,590	285,477	386,203
Glass,.....	234,053	156,012	175,988	204,905
Hardware and cutlery,.....	801,242	669,726	768,209	1,053,125
Linen manufactures,.....	1,733,804	1,294,405	1,361,752	1,547,456
Linen yarn,.....	479,682	627,299	445,818	493,993
Metals—Iron and steel,.....	1,410,567	1,274,258	1,245,725	1,548,414
Copper and brass,.....	750,535	899,774	839,022	945,962
Lead,.....	84,396	174,196	160,380	157,177
Tin, in bars,.....	22,176	89,002	54,382	41,065
Tin-plate,.....	185,954	169,337	202,996	266,802
Silk manufactures,.....	425,963	303,866	311,100	380,837
Sugar, refined,.....	272,488	237,947	207,503	170,483
Wool, sheep and lamb's,....	212,670	252,100	150,355	181,412
Woollen yarn,.....	199,411	225,420	217,115	370,117
Woollen manufactures,.....	2,733,281	2,226,095	3,035,009	4,251,243



The export is here large, and evinces an extraordinary improvement in branches of industry employed in the export trade. The increase is the most in cottons and woollens; which show an increase, for six months, of £2,578,158. In woollen, the increase is near 100 per cent over the corresponding period of 1842. The consumption of foreign raw materials has not been so large.

QUANTITIES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCE, TAKEN INTO CONSUMPTION.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Seeds, &c.—Clover,.....cwt.	70,342	153,036	63,092	76,854
Flax-seed,.....bush.	777,201	598,834	862,272	1,536,992
Rape,.....	202,422	106,631	184,360	297,030
Silk—Raw,.....lbs.	1,274,110	1,950,006	1,416,076	1,732,799
Waste knbs., &c.,.....	924,538	898,298	843,920	1,146,096
Thrown off, &c.,.....	154,116	190,861	167,904	172,081
Tallow,.....	409,929	370,887	375,084	315,521
Tea,.....	18,210,677	18,580,852	19,929,605	20,183,042
Tobacco, unmanufactured,....	10,909,653	10,802,475	11,176,409	11,975,113
“ man. and snuff,.....	97,135	102,115	129,865	122,535
Turpentine, (com.,).....cwt.	158,439	79,620	195,715	231,962
Wine—Cape,.....gallons	219,613	195,220	160,615	173,206
French,.....	197,608	214,630	168,084	254,002
Other sorts,.....	2,762,479	2,351,991	2,087,726	3,155,392
Total wine,.....	3,179,700	2,761,841	2,416,425	3,582,600
Wool, (cotton,) Br. poss.,...lbs.	22,900,177	35,324,283	19,354,944	28,049,056
“ Foreign,.....	221,576,577	239,400,844	347,166,176	245,877,520
Total cotton wool,.....	244,476,748	274,725,127	366,521,120	273,927,567
Wool, sheep and lamb's,....lbs.	21,455,232	15,342,343	17,944,176	28,518,883
Flax,.....cwt.	559,499	479,101	657,204	589,130
Hemp,.....	141,178	135,104	193,492	168,472
Hides,.....	202,526	148,958	284,949	311,461
Indigo,.....lbs.	1,243,604	1,105,935	1,165,584	1,589,392

The export of foreign and colonial merchandise was as follows:—

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE RE-EXPORTED.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coffee—Br. possessions,....lbs.	3,695,750	1,057,004	49,571	38,808
“ Foreign,.....	3,458,346	1,849,648	6,526,989	3,127,720
Dye & dye-stuffs—Cochineal,	439,507	354,957	2,018	2,719
Indigo,.....	1,805,641	1,835,650	14,110	22,450
Lac dye,.....	147,128	162,960	1,276	2,065
Log-wood,.....tons	2,419	4,081	1,499	1,544
Spices—Cassia Lignea,....lbs.	470,198	704,035	1,449,038	681,325
Cinnamon,.....	205,387	227,506	136,924	302,434
Nutmegs,.....	55,458	7,425	9,421	13,420
Pepper,.....	2,979,100	2,745,441	1,342,649	1,046,163
Sugar, (all kinds,).....cwt.	176,280	147,121	229,861	152,383
Tobacco, unmanufactured, .lbs.	5,587,059	6,252,667	4,524,233	4,157,870
Wine, (all sorts,).....gallons	1,072,613	764,137	717,285	836,694
Cotton wool,.....lbs.	10,799,179	28,456,712	173,890	132,282
Sheep's wool,.....	884,280	2,203,870	1,632,227	493,414

It is apparent, from these figures, that the foreign trade has taken the lead in the revival of prosperity; and the profits derivable from that trade, followed by the cheap food consequent upon the fine harvests, will stimulate the home consumption, and produce a corresponding increase in the consumption of raw materials.

## MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

CASE IN THE UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, (NEW YORK,) BEFORE  
JUDGES THOMPSON AND BETTS.\*

FREIGHT MONEY OF THE BRIG HARRIETT—BOTTOMRY LIEN ON FREIGHT OF SUBSTITUTED VOYAGE  
—BOTTOMRY UNDER COERCION—INSURER'S RIGHT TO SUBROGATION, IN INSURANCE ON BOT-  
TOMRY.

IN June, 1838, the brig Harriett, under command of W. H. Trott, as master, sailed on a voyage to Antwerp, carrying freight as a general ship. The brig stood in the name of D. H. Robinson. At Antwerp, she was consigned by Trott, under Robinson's orders, to Nottebohm Brothers. They put her in charge of Marsily, as ship-broker. On arrival at Antwerp, Trott requested his consignees to give him a memorandum of his nett freight, which they did. He then incurred debts to the whole amount of what he was to receive, for the supplies of his vessel, and set her up for a voyage to Cadiz, Montevideo, and home to the United States. On the 20th July, he left Antwerp on his voyage, in ballast; but, on the day after sailing, Marsily, who had advanced for the vessel's supplies, in calling on Nottebohm Brothers for payment, by Trott's direction, found that, in consequence of their not having charged a draft of \$2,000, drawn by Robinson against the freight, but which draft they had accepted and paid, the funds in their hands were not sufficient to pay Marsily. Marsily then sued out process against Trott, as master, and arrested him, and detained the vessel, until he gave a bottomry bond for the balance of Marsily's account. In this bond, the voyage was changed, so as to be from Antwerp to Newcastle, in England, and then to the United States. The bottomry pledged vessel and freight, in usual form, for the amount of the advances. Marsily received, however, the balance of the freight from Nottebohm Brothers, which he credited on the bond, subject to a deduction afterwards stated. On giving the bond, Trott protested against the compulsion, before the American consul, but gave the bond. The vessel lay wind-bound in the Scheldt, for three weeks; during which time, Trott determined to resume his original voyage to Cadiz and Montevideo; and, on his sailing from the river, advised Marsily of this change. Marsily then got insurance on the bottomry bond for the new voyage, and paid the premium out of the balance of the freight which he had received from Nottebohm Brothers, crediting the rest on the bond. The vessel sailed for Cadiz, and there procured a quantity of salt on vessel's account, for which Trott drew bills at sixty days sight, on Robinson, at New York, in favor of Le Carre & Eschiopar, of that place, who had advanced him the money to buy the salt, with an understanding that the bills were to be paid out of the earnings of the vessel. These bills were remitted to Hogan & Milne, of New York, for collection. The vessel proceeded on the voyage to Montevideo, where the salt was sold, and its proceeds applied to the ship's use. There Trott took in a cargo for New York, under a charter-party, and sailed on his voyage home. On this voyage, the vessel met with disasters, and put into Bermuda, where she was condemned as unseaworthy, and sold. Captain Trott came on to New York, and hired vessels to go to Bermuda, and bring home his cargo. The cargo arrived at New York, and was placed in the hands of Grinnell, Minturn & Co., of that city; who were to receive the charter-freight from Montevideo, to pay the hire of the vessels which brought the cargo from Bermuda, and to account to Trott for the balance. This balance amounted to \$1,454 97. Under these circumstances, a libel in the admiralty was filed in the District Court of New York, by Hicks & Co., on behalf

\* Reported expressly for the Merchants' Magazine.

of Marsily, on the bottomry, claiming to subject the freight in Grinnell, Minturn & Co.'s hands to the payment of the bottomry. The freight was attached; and, by motion and order of the court, paid into the registry, to abide the decree. The bills of Trott, in favor of the Cadiz merchants, were protested; and Robinson, the owner, and Trott, the master, after the suit was commenced, assigned to Hogan & Milne, for the Cadiz merchants, the freight-moneys, to apply to the protested bills. Hogan & Milne appeared in the bottomry suit; and, under the assignment, and also under a claim upon the bills, claimed the balance of the Montevideo charter-money. Trott and Robinson also appeared in the suit; but, in their answers, set up the right to be in Hogan & Milne. There was evidence tending to show that Trott was the party really interested in the brig.

The cause was heard in the District Court, in New York. Mr. Lord, for the libellant, contended—1. That Trott was master and owner, at the date of the bottomry, and that it was given for money advanced for the vessel's benefit. The consignee could take a bottomry. (*The Hero*, 2 *Dodson*, 139.) 2. That it was competent for Trott, as master, in order to relieve himself from arrest, and the vessel from detention, on a just debt, contracted for the vessel's use, to bind himself to the voyage described in the bottomry, and to pledge accruing and prospective freight. (*The Jacob*, 4 *Robinson's R.*, 201, 245. In the ship *Warre*, 8 *Price*, 256. *Phillips vs. Ledley*, 1 *Wash. C. C. R.*, 228. *The Aurora*, 1 *Wheaton's R.*, 96. *The Virgin*, 8 *Peter's R.*, 538.) 3. That the parties to the bottomry, having put the money at risk upon the vessel and the voyage, the lien was a valid maritime lien, whether Trott were merely master, or also owner. (*The Mary*, 1 *Paine*, 671. *The Draco*, 2 *Sumner*, 157.) 4. That, although the vessel was lost, yet it was not in the voyage described in the bottomry, which therefore remained a valid lien, notwithstanding the loss; and it applied to the freight earned on the voyage substituted, without the creditor's consent, in place of the voyage described in the bottomry. 5. Hogan & Milne have no claim under the bills drawn by Trott, (1 *Paine*, 572—*Murray vs. Lazarus*;) and, under the assignment from Trott and Robinson, they can only stand in their place, against whom the bottomry was a lien.

Mr. Gerard, for Hogan & Milne, the claimants, insisted—1. That the bond was obtained by duress; and, on principles of policy, also, ought not to be allowed; and therefore, unless the claim were a lien *per se*, it was not so under this bottomry. That the claim *per se* was not a lien, because the moneys were not advanced on an express agreement for a bottomry security, and that the bottomry creditor is bound to make this out clearly. 2. That the vessel having been lost, and not having arrived at her port of destination, the bottomry never became payable; and the freight stood on the same ground as the ship—so that the loss of the ship discharged the bond as to both. That the bond, at all events, did not attach upon the freight; which was, in fact, earned by the other vessels, which brought it on from Bermuda. 3. That there was no deviation, in fact, from the voyage contemplated at Antwerp—the bond executed under duress was no real change of the voyage—both parties knew, before sailing from the mouth of the Scheldt, that it was not intended to perform the voyage to Newcastle, and home, but the original voyage to Montevideo. The bond, in truth, described a mere fictitious, or supposed voyage. 4. That the freight was earned on a voyage subsequent to that covered by the bottomry. No freight was earned on any voyage from Antwerp, or from Newcastle. 5. That the bills of Trott, at Cadiz, being for the vessel's use, and the moneys so applied, a quasi hypothecation arose, in favor of the Cadiz merchants, posterior in date, and therefore preferable in privilege to the Antwerp bottomry. 6. That, if the freight in question should be subjected to the bottomry claim, the bottomry creditor should at least be obliged to account for what he had received, or was entitled to receive, under the insurance, upon the bottomry at Antwerp.

The District Judge (Betts) sustained the bottomry claim, and decreed payment of the bottomry out of the balance of the freight in the registry, so far as it would suffice. From this decree, an appeal was taken to the Circuit Court, and heard before the Circuit Judge, (Thompson.) He affirmed the decree of the District Judge, with costs, but without prejudice to any right of the appellants, Hogan & Milne, to be subrogated to the insurance effected by the bottomry creditor at Antwerp, on his bottomry interest. Hogan & Milne, under this reservation in the decree of affirmance, filed their bill in equity in the Circuit Court of the United States, for the southern district of New York, setting up a claim to the policy by way of subrogation, under their assignment of the freight-money from Trott and Robinson, and charging that such insurance money had been received by the bottomry creditor, which he ought to deduct from his claim on the proceeds in the admiralty, or to account for, or to assign over the policy, if the insurance money had not been received. To this bill in equity, Marsily, the bottomry creditor, demurred, for want of equity on the face of the bill.

Mr. Lord, for the demurrer:—1. The insurance was on the bottomry interest for the deviation voyage—not an insurance on the ship or freight. The complainants seeking a subrogation, can only have this insurance according to its conditions, and the rights incident to it. 2. The insurer on a bottomry claim, on payment of a loss, or on an abandonment, is himself entitled to be subrogated to all the rights and remedies of the creditor, against persons or property bound by the bond. (*The Ætna Insurance Company vs. Tyler*, 16 Wendall, 398. *The Mayor of New York vs. Pentz*, 24 Wendell's R., 671, and cases cited. *The Atlantic Insurance Company vs. Storrow*, 5 Paige's R., 285. 2 Ph. Insur., 282, 606, 609.) 3. Therefore the insurers on the bottomry are entitled, from the very nature of the contract, of which the complainant seeks the benefit, to the decree of the District Court, against the freight and Trott. The owners of the vessel cannot take them away from the insurer, inasmuch as the latter have a claim thereto, under the contract of insurance, of which a subrogation is sought.

Mr. Gerard, for the complainant, insisted that, as the premium was paid out of the moneys of the brig, arising from her outward freight, the benefit of the insurance belonged originally to them, the owners. That it would be unjust to allow Marsily to receive both his bottomry out of the freight, and his insurance out of the insurers, especially when the ship-owner had paid the premium; and it would be equally unjust to allow the insurers, under whose policy a loss had been sustained, to take back the loss from those very persons whose moneys had paid the premium. That, between the equities, that of the owners, whom the complainant represented, was superior to those of the bottomry creditor or his insurer, so far as respected the insurance money.

The Court (Thompson and Betts) decided that the insurance being on the bottomry, the insurers were entitled to that which could be obtained by their insured, the bottomry creditor. That this arose from the nature of the relation created by the contract of insurance; and if the complainant could be subrogated in place of the bottomry creditor, yet the insurer on bottomry had a right against him to the same thing—namely, to all that could be obtained by the creditor; which, in the present case, was the freight-money in controversy. The Court, therefore, allowed the demurrer, with costs, and dismissed the bill of complaint.

#### DECISION ON THE LAW OF CORPORATIONS.

In the Circuit Court of the United States, Judge Taney presiding, a suit was brought by the Swatara Railroad Company of Maryland, to recover of the executors of John M'Kim, jr., deceased, the sum of \$500, the amount subscribed for ten shares of stock. On the part of the defendant, it was proved that the plaintiff's commissioner to receive subscriptions, had agreed with certain other stockholders, who had previously subscribed

their names on the list, to receive, in payment of their shares, Tide-water Canal stock, at its nominal amount, when, in fact, it was greatly depreciated in the market. This agreement, it was contended, was a fraud upon the other *bona fide* stockholders, and entitled them to a rescission of their subscription.

The Court decided that each stockholder must be charged with notice of the company's charter, which authorized only payments of stock in money; and therefore, as the said agreement to receive depreciated securities was illegal and void, it was incompetent to the parties to the illegal agreement, to set it up in bar of an action brought against them for the stock subscribed; and, if the said parties would be precluded from setting up said agreement, neither could any other *bona fide* subscriber of stock rely upon the said illegal agreement for the purpose of annulling his own subscription. It is proper to state that the articles of subscription, signed by all the stockholders, purported, on their face, to be payable in dollars; but the Court decided that whether the collateral agreement to pay in depreciated securities was in writing, or by parole, it was equally inadmissible as a defence.

#### WAGES OF MINOR SEAMEN.

In the United States District Court, (Boston,) June, 1844. Before Sprague, district judge. *Luxom vs. Osgood*.

A minor, without the knowledge of his father, concealed himself on board of a whaling vessel, before she sailed from Salem, and was not discovered by the master until she had dismissed her pilot. When about a month out, the master stopped at Fayal, where there was an American consul, but said nothing to him about the boy. The boy performed the duty of a seaman during the whole voyage; and, when eighteen months out, signed the shipping articles.

The judge observed, in deciding this case, that it appeared that the ship staid about thirty-six hours at Fayal, and that the captain supposed he could not leave the minor with the consul at that place without paying him three months' wages. This was an error. This would not have been the case of the *discharge* of a seaman, within the statute of 1803, chapter 62; yet having, with the assent of the captain, acted as a seaman on board of the whaling vessel, before her arrival at Fayal, he was a *mariner*, within the meaning of the fourth section of that act; and it would have been the duty of the consul to have afforded him subsistence, and to have sent him to the United States, as it is to be presumed he would have done.

The captain knew that the father was entitled to the services of his runaway son. The captain neglected to request the consul at Fayal to send the boy home, as the consul would have been bound to do, but took him on a three years' whaling voyage, intending to have his services during that time. From that time, he must be deemed to have taken those services voluntarily; and the father is entitled to compensation. Nor can the seaman be deprived of his remedy against the owners because, as is urged, the master has hired more than a complement of men.

His Honor accordingly decreed compensation from the time the ship sailed from Fayal, adopting the lay given those who shipped as boys, and for which this lad subsequently shipped; that is, 1-150; and, in regard to time, he adopted the rule prescribed in shipping articles in case of death, and gave such proportion of 1-150 of the whole products of the voyage, as the time after the ship left Fayal bears to the whole time occupied in performing the voyage.



## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF CHINA.

WE published in the Merchants' Magazine, Volume IX., page 575 to 580, the new Chinese Tariff of Exports and Imports, and also the Regulations of British Trade in China; and in Volume X., pages 480 and 481, Alterations made in the Tariff, and the Regulations of China relating to Warehouses, Old and New Merchants, &c. The Chinese Repository, for March, 1844, furnishes us with the following additional regulations, entitled—

## THE SUPPLEMENTARY TREATY BETWEEN ENGLAND AND CHINA.

Two translations of this treaty have been published—one in the Hong-Kong Gazette, and the other in the Chinese Repository. We have taken the translation of the latter, as the most correct and authoritative. The treaty regulations with England, it is understood, apply equally to the mercantile intercourse of the United States.

The seventeen articles of regulations agreed upon at Canton, between the imperial commissioner, H. E. Kiyng, and the public envoy, H. E. Pottinger; which, having been officially reported to His Majesty, are allowed to be distributed among the five ports, to be a perpetual and uniform law for the management of affairs, and for the preservation of future good feeling.

I. The regulations for levying duties on imported and exported merchandise, which have passed the official seal, shall henceforth be held to be a law in the five ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai.

II. The newly appointed commercial regulations, which have been officially promulgated, shall henceforth be in force at the aforesaid five ports.

III. The fines levied on merchant vessels, which have entered port, and neglected to report themselves at the custom-house, together with the merchandise which has been confiscated to government, according to the third article of the recent commercial treaty, both money and goods, shall all revert to the imperial treasury of China, for the public service.

IV. As soon as the five ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, shall have been opened, the only places allowed for British merchants to trade at, shall be the above-named five ports, and they shall not be permitted to go to other ports; while the Chinese people shall not be permitted to connect themselves with them, and to trade clandestinely in other ports. Furthermore, the public envoy of the English nation has issued a proclamation, clearly forbidding the resort to other places; and, should the merchants of the English nation either break this contract, or disobey this regulation, affecting not to have heard of the proclamation of the public envoy, while they proceed to other ports, and wander about, buying and selling, it shall be lawful for the Chinese officers to confiscate both ship and cargo, altogether, and the English officers are not to make any objection. Should Chinese subjects proceed to other places, and secretly connect themselves with the English merchants, for the purpose of trade, they must be dealt with according to the laws of the country already existing.

V. Since the conclusion of the treaty of Nanking, the government will certainly not be responsible for the debts of merchants; and, according to the fourth article of the recent commercial treaty, the transactions between English and Chinese merchants are not to be conducted any more according to the old system of security hongs, when petitions were made for the payment of debts, as is on record; but henceforward, whether Chinese are indebted to English, or English to Chinese, if the accounts be correct, the persons present, and the property in existence, then the parties must appear before the consuls, and, in a public place, make an agreement; when, in accordance with the contract entered into, the different parties may pursue each other—but there is to be no general security of the whole body for individual merchants.

VI. At Canton, and other of the five ports, the English merchants, whether constant residents or occasional visitors, must not disorderly go into the villages, and gratify their desires in wandering about. Also, they must not go far into the interior to trade; but the Chinese officers ought, in connection with the English consuls, and in accordance with the feelings of the people, and the nature of the country, to consult, and fix a boundary, which must not be passed over, in order to maintain a constant good feeling, and peaceful relations between the two nations. Whenever sailors, and people from the vessels arrive,

they must wait until the consuls and the native officers have first established the regulations, when they may be allowed to go on shore—but if Englishmen disobey these regulations, and disorderly enter the inner territory to ramble about, no matter what class or description of persons they may be, it will then be allowable for the people of the country to seize them, and deliver them over to the consuls of the English nation for punishment, as circumstances may require. But the people must not beat and wound them, lest they infringe upon the established harmony.

VII. In the treaty of Nanking, it has been already stated that Englishmen may take their families, and proceed to the five ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, to dwell, without being insulted or restricted; but the Chinese officers must, in unison with the English consuls, and in conformity with the feelings of the people, consult as to what places or houses, or sites of houses, they may make use of; which it shall be permitted to Englishmen to hire, the rent being according to the scale of prices current at the various ports for such purposes; in conformity with which, bargains may be struck, and contracts entered into—the Chinese, on the one hand, not practising extortion, and the English, on the other, not violently insisting on the hiring of particular spots. The consuls of the English nation shall annually make a report of the number of houses which the English have either built or hired, to the native officers; who shall, in their turn, report it to the proper tribunal. But the number of houses will naturally depend on the number of merchants, and the number of merchants on the state of trade; so that it will be difficult to fix the amount beforehand.

VIII. Formerly, the merchants of every foreign nation were permitted to trade at the single port of Canton, only; but, last year, it was agreed at Nanking that, if the emperor should ratify the treaty, the merchants of the various nations of Europe should be allowed to proceed to the four ports of Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, for the purposes of trade, to which the English were not to make any objection. But, since every other nation has been put upon the same footing with the English, should the emperor in future manifest any new favor towards the various nations, then it should be allowable for the English to share in the same advantages. Neither the English nor foreign nations, however, must make this a pretext for disorderly soliciting further grace, in order to show their firm adherence to the treaty.

IX. Should any lawless Chinese, after infringing the laws, escape to Hong-Kong, or conceal themselves on board of any English men-of-war, or merchant vessels, as soon as the English officers have discovered them, they must be delivered over to the Chinese officers for punishment. Should the Chinese officers, however, make previous inquiry, or discover suspicious circumstances, which the English officers have not found out, then the Chinese officers shall seek an interview with the English officers, in order to examine and seize the offenders. When the criminals have already confessed, or evidence has been elicited, from which it would appear that the individuals in question are runaway felons, then the English officers shall deliver them up, without making any difficulty. Should English sailors or soldiers, or other British subjects, whether natives of England or its colonies, black or white, from whatever cause, escape to China, and conceal themselves there, the Chinese officers shall also seize and confine them, and deliver them over to the nearest English officer for judgment, without the slightest attempt at concealment, to the disturbance of the existing amicable arrangements.

X. At each of the five ports open for trade, there shall be an English man-of-war at anchor, in order to restrain the sailors on board of the English merchant vessels; which power the consuls may also avail themselves of, to keep in order the merchants of Great Britain and her colonies. The sailors on board of such man-of-war shall be subject to the order of the commanding officer on board of such vessel, and not be permitted to enter the inner territory; the laws regarding wandering about having equal reference to the seamen on board of the men-of-war that they have to the sailors from merchant vessels. When the man-of-war is about to leave, another man-of-war shall take her place; and the consul, or charge-d'affaires of the port, shall first inform the Chinese officers, in order to prevent suspicions. Whenever such men-of-war arrive in China, to relieve the others, the Chinese war-junks shall not interrupt them; and, since the English men-of-war do not carry cargo, or conduct trade, they may be exempted from the usual measurement fees, already mentioned in the fourteenth article of the commercial regulations, which are on record.

XI. The treaty of Nanking has already stipulated that, when the amount of money agreed upon shall have been paid, the troops garrisoned at Chusan and Kulang-su shall retire, and yield up those places to the government of China. With reference thereto, it is now agreed that, on the retirement of the troops, all those houses inhabited by the English officers, together with the temporary buildings and barracks, whether built or repaired

by the English, shall not be broken down, but delivered over to the Chinese officers, to be given to the original owners of the land or tenements, while the English shall not require any payment; in order to avoid delays in the evacuation of the place, and disputes of every kind—by which means, the amicable relations now subsisting may be preserved.

XII. The amount of duties and port-charges having now been arranged, in future all offences of British merchants connecting themselves with Chinese traders, for the purposes of smuggling, or evading the duties, or getting screened by the custom-house officers, in order to share the spoils, shall be done away with. The envoy of the British nation has already issued a proclamation, forbidding the English merchants from smuggling in the least degree, and commanding the consuls under his authority to exert themselves in restraining the English merchants who resort to the various ports for the purposes of trade, whilst they make every inquiry to eradicate the aforesaid evils. Should such consuls, on examination, discover any cases of smuggling, they shall immediately report them to the Chinese officers, in order that the smuggled goods may be confiscated, whatever their description or value may be; while the merchant vessels engaged in such transactions shall either be prohibited from trading, or, when their accounts are closed, be strictly required to depart, without the least favor or screening. The Chinese officers also shall take such native traders as have been engaged in smuggling, or such custom-house officers as have been sharing the spoils; and, after severe investigation, punish them according to law.

XIII. Hereafter, whenever Chinese traders shall wish to take goods to Hong-Kong for sale, they must first pay the duties, according to the new regulations, at the respective ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, whilst they obtain permits from the various custom-houses; after which, they may depart without hindrance. Should Chinese traders wish to proceed to Hong-Kong, for the purpose of laying in a stock of goods, they are also permitted to go to the offices of the Chinese authorities at the ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, and ask for a passport, taking care to pay the duties on the importation of their goods. But Chinese merchants purchasing goods at Hong-Kong, must ship them on board of Chinese vessels, which vessel must request a port-clearance from Hong-Kong, just as they obtain a permit from the five ports above-mentioned, to proceed to Hong-Kong. All ships and merchants, provided with such permits, must exhibit them to the Chinese officers every time of their arrival, for inspection and examination, in order to avoid mistakes. At other ports in Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsu, such as Chapu, &c., they not being places of constant intercourse, the Chinese traders are not permitted to ask for permits to go to Hong-Kong; and if they still go, the revenue cutters must combine with the English officers to inquire into their conduct, and report.

XIV. At Hong-Kong, an English officer must be appointed; who, on the arrival of Chinese vessels at that port, for the purpose of purchasing goods, must strictly examine their passes; and, should there be any Chinese vessels or traders not provided with passes, or with passes not furnished at Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, shall consider them as smugglers, and evaders of the duties; while a report of the circumstances shall be sent to the Chinese officers, in order to inquire into the affair. Under such an arrangement, not only will pirates be stopped in their progress, but all kinds of smuggling will be prevented.

XV. As the arrangements at Hong-Kong are certainly not like those at the five ports, and as there are no Chinese officers stationed there, should Chinese traders get in debt to the merchants of other nations, the English officers must settle the affair; but if Chinese debtors escape from Hong-Kong, and return to their native districts, where they have property and inheritances, the English consuls shall draw up an account of the matter, and report it to the Chinese officers, who shall prosecute the parties. But Chinese merchants trading abroad must also have some factory, or persons who stand as security for them. Should English merchants, without inquiring accurately, be deceived by them, the officers cannot inquire farther. With respect to English merchants at the five ports getting into debt to Chinese traders, and escaping to Hong-Kong, on the Chinese officers making a clear statement, accompanied by all the proofs, to the English officers, the latter shall act according to the fifth clause of the present supplementary treaty, in order to put the parties on an equal footing.

XVI. In a former section, it is clearly stated that, whenever Chinese carry goods to Hong-Kong for sale, or convey goods from Hong-Kong to the five ports, they must obtain permits from the various custom-houses. Now it is agreed upon, that the officers of customs at the five ports shall monthly make a statement of the number of permits granted, and of the names of the vessels, and merchants receiving them, together with the description of goods therein specified, whether conveyed from Hong-Kong to the various ports,

or from the various ports to Hong-Kong; which report shall be sent in to the superintendent of customs at Canton, who shall again inform the presiding officer at Hong-Kong, to examine and verify. The English officer shall also make a monthly report of the merchant vessels, resorting thither with their cargoes, to the superintendent of customs at Canton, who shall immediately communicate it to the various custom-houses, for examination and verification. Thus mutually examining and comparing, we may possibly be able to prevent the use of false permits, vain pretences, and smuggling transactions, while matters will be kept in the right channel.

XVII. Small English vessels, such as schooners and cutters, yawls, or fast-boats, of every kind, have hitherto been subject to no duties. It is now agreed upon, that all such vessels going from Hong-Kong to Canton, or from Canton to Macao, with the exception of the letters and packages, and passengers' baggage, which, according to the old regulations, were exempted from duties, if laden with merchantable goods, whether for import or export, or whether with full or half lading, even to a hundred weight of cargo, such vessels, according to their tonnage, shall pay duties, as agreed upon. But these small vessels are not to be put upon the same scale with large foreign ships. Moreover, they clear out and in several times, in the course of a month. Also, they differ from the large foreign ships which anchor at Whampoa, only; so that, if they should be called upon to pay duties, like the large foreign ships, it would necessarily be inconvenient and improper. Henceforth, therefore, these vessels shall be classed in the following manner:—The smallest of them shall be rated at seventy-five tons, and the largest of them at one hundred and fifty tons; and every time they enter port, they shall pay one mace for every ton. Those which do not amount to seventy-five tons, shall be reckoned at that rate; and those above one hundred and fifty tons shall be considered as large foreign vessels; and, according to the new regulations, pay five mace for every ton. With respect to Fuchau, and the other ports, as there are no small vessels of this kind coming and going, it is not necessary to make any regulations.

The regulations for the small vessels above alluded to, here follow:—

1st. All such English schooners, cutters, yawls, or fast-boats, must be provided with a permit from the English officers, written in English and Chinese, stating clearly their size and description, and how much is their tonnage, ready for inspection and examination.

2d. Whenever these small vessels shall arrive at the Bogue, they shall stop and report, just as the large foreign ships do. If they contain merchants' goods, they must also report themselves at the custom-house at Whampoa; and when they arrive at the provincial city, they must deposit their pass at the consul's office, in order to request permission from the superintendent of customs at Canton to unload their cargo; but, should they land their goods without such permission, then they must be dealt with according to the third section of the new commercial regulations, respecting the reporting to the custom-house of goods newly imported.

3d. When the imported goods have all been landed, and the goods for exportation all shipped, the import and export duties, together with the measurement charges, having been paid, the consul at the port shall deliver up the passport, and allow the vessel to depart.

#### PASSPORTS FOR CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following official notice, emanating from the department of state, and dated at Washington, August, 1844, is published for the benefit of citizens of the United States, who purpose going abroad:—

As citizens of the United States, going to foreign countries, may be subjected to inconvenience for the want of sufficient evidence of their national character, the secretary of state deems it proper to give notice that passports will be granted by him, gratis, to such citizens, on his being satisfied that they are entitled to receive them. To prevent delay in obtaining a passport, the application should be accompanied by such evidence as may show the applicant to be a citizen of the United States, where that fact is not already known to the department of state, and with a description of his person, embracing the following particulars, viz:—Age, — years; stature, — feet — inches; forehead, —; eyes, —; nose, —; mouth, —; chin, —; hair, —; complexion, —; face, —. When the applicant is to be accompanied by his wife, children, or servants, or females under his protection, it will be sufficient to state the names and ages of such

persons, and their relationship to the applicant; as one passport may serve for the whole. Certificates of citizenship, or passports granted by the different states and municipal authorities in the United States, are not recognized by the officers of foreign governments; and, for the want of necessary official information as to those authorities, the ministers and consuls of the United States in foreign countries cannot authenticate such documents. It is proper to add, that persons who leave the United States without certificates, or other evidence of their citizenship, expecting to be furnished with passports by the diplomatic agents or consuls of the United States, residing in the country to be visited, are always liable to be disappointed in obtaining them, as these documents are only properly granted on the faith of some evidence that the individuals in whose favor they are applied, are entitled to them. Such testimony it is sometimes difficult, if not impracticable to procure, among strangers; and it is therefore recommended to every citizen of the United States, who purposes going abroad, to furnish himself, before leaving home, with the necessary passport.

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## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

### NAVIGATION OF THE NORTH ELBE.

THE following information, communicated to the department of state, at Washington, (September 4, 1844,) by the charge d'affaires of the United States at Copenhagen, in Denmark, has been published by the Danish "General Customs Chamber, and College of Commerce," indicating the means which have been adopted by that government for the more secure navigation of the North Elbe.

In the North Elbe, between the Vogelsand and the Gelbsand, the following buoys have been placed for the benefit of navigation:—

1. A black buoy, No. 1, on the northeast side of the Vogelsand, in 3 fathoms water, at low tide, N. E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  E. from the great lighthouse at Newerk, E. N. E. from the second light-vessel in the Elbe, and W. S. W. from the beacon on Buchsand Pollu.

2. A black buoy, No. 2, on the northeast side of the Vogelsand, in about 3 fathoms at low water, bearing N. E. by N. from the great lighthouse at Newerk, N. E. by E. from the second light-vessel in the Elbe, and S. W.  $\frac{1}{2}$  W. from the beacon on Buchsand Pollu.

3. A white buoy, on the northeast point of the Gelbsand, in about 3 fathoms at low water, bearing N. N. E. from the great lighthouse at Newerk, N. E. from the second light-vessel in the Elbe, and S. W. by W.  $\frac{1}{2}$  W. from the beacon on Buchsand Pollu.

The two black buoys have a flat top, with a ring on the inside, and a white cross. On the surface, the number of the buoy, and the word "Busum," are cut, and the royal cypher is branded. The white buoy has a red top, on which the name "Busum" is painted in white, and the royal cypher is branded.

The buoys are generally removed on the 1st of December, and replaced by two black, and one white ice-buoy. They are laid down again in the beginning of March.

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### METHOD OF CONVERTING SALT WATER INTO FRESH.

J. S. Sleeper, the editor of the Boston Mercantile Journal, who was for many years a ship-master, gives the following account of a cheap method of converting salt water to fresh, invented many years ago, by an American ship-master. The advantages of such an invention are of great importance to mariners, and should be universally known.

"Make a wooden cover to the largest boiler in the cambouse; in the centre of which insert an inverted tea-kettle, after knocking off the bail, and thus a boiler and a still-head are formed without difficulty. To the spout of the tea-kettle attach a common gun-barrel, to pass through a bucket or tub of cold water, which may be easily contrived, by changing the water in the tub occasionally. The consequence, of course, may be easily anticipated. The steam from the boiler, when the water is heated in the ordinary process of cooking, collects into the tea-kettle, and passes from thence into the gun-barrel, where it is condensed, and may be caught at the end of the gun-barrel, in the shape of a small trickling stream of tolerably good fresh water."



## CHRONOMETERS—UTILITY OF TIME-BALLS.

A writer in the London Nautical Magazine makes the following remarks, which we republish in the Merchants' Magazine, for the benefit of the nautical reader:—

"Ships lying in Plymouth Sound during the winter months, find it next to impossible to get rates for their chronometers; and to obtain the error, is scarcely less difficult. The only means, while the Thunderer remained there, was through the kindness of Mr. Cox, in allowing one of his chronometers to be taken on board occasionally, and comparing. By the error thus obtained, comparisons were given to the fleet of merchant vessels at anchor, and I had opportunities of knowing that, but for this chance, rough as it was, many of them would have gone to sea out in their longitude from ten to thirty miles. Weeks are sometimes spent by vessels from the river putting into this port, and having to wait for a wind. It would appear, therefore, that a time-ball is much required. As an instance of this, in vessels recently from England, it may be mentioned that outwards, when near the Cape de Verd islands, a British barque, going the same way, made her longitude by chronometer twenty-five miles too far to the westward. Longitude is of so much importance in navigating near these islands, and lying as they do in the direct road to India, &c., that, running by night, or in thick weather, it is not surprising that shipwrecks should happen under such circumstances. A blind confidence in chronometers has, doubtless, been the cause of many disasters; and, unless their errors be well ascertained, and the rates corroborated by daily comparisons, the Greenwich times must be uncertain, and ought to induce great caution in running. It is the dependence universally placed in these instruments that calls for every attention and facility being afforded at the ports or places where vessels resort to; and the Downs and Plymouth stand greatly in need of time-balls. It is in the winter months when these are so necessary, when the Downs is frequently full of shipping; and it is likely that a time-ball at Deal would confer a greater benefit than that at Greenwich. The advantage of such an establishment was manifest in the winter of 1842, so famous for westerly gales. At that time, the Downs was crowded; and the Thunderer was requested to make 1 o'clock, Greenwich time, by dipping an ensign from the mast-head. With a hand-lead secured to the tack, it can be done with great exactness; and wherever men-of-war are, a similar method might be usefully adopted by the senior officer's ship. Merchant vessels would then have opportunities of rating their chronometers, instead of the risk attendant on carrying them for comparing; and, since daily comparisons are indispensably necessary for their proper management, it is apparent that all ships should be supplied with no less than three chronometers."

## QUARANTINE LAWS OF THE CANARY ISLANDS.

Information has been received at the department of state, at Washington, from the minister of the United States in Spain, that the following modifications of the quarantine laws of the Canary islands, in regard to the shipping from the United States, having been approved by the supreme junta of health, orders had been issued to carry them into immediate operation.

The modifications alluded to are as follows:—

1st. That all vessels arriving from ports of the United States, north of Cape Hatteras, and bringing clear bills of health, countersigned by the Spanish consul resident in the port of departure, or the collector of the same, shall be admitted to immediate pratique.

2d. That every vessel subject to quarantine shall be permitted to perform it at the port of her destination.

## SHOAL DISCOVERED IN THE CHINESE SEAS.

Captain Keene, of the ship Henry Pratt, recently arrived at New York from Canton, has discovered a dangerous shoal, running north and south, about half a mile in length, apparently level with the water's edge, and having a rock, or dead tree, (many of which he saw floating about,) on the northern end. Having had calms, light airs, and variable currents for two days, he could not determine the exact position of it. By observation next day, placed it in lat. 1. 33. S., long. 107. 27. E. They lay in sight of the shoal from 9 A. M. till 4 P. M., weather very thick and heavy; had 23 fathoms water, muddy bottom, shoal bearing from E. N. E. to S. W., one mile distant. No perceptible current whilst in sight of it—next morning, perceived a N. W. set.

**RAILROAD AND CANAL STATISTICS.**

**SPEED OF RAILROADS.**

Looking back to the year 1829, we find that, in October of that year, a prize of £500 was offered by the Liverpool and Manchester Railroad Company, for a locomotive engine successfully transporting a load equal to three times its own weight, on a nearly level road, at ten miles an hour. And in the Liverpool Times, of October 27, 1829, we are informed that the Rocket, which had secured the prize, after undergoing some alterations "greatly increasing its power, drew the enormous weight of — tons at the rate of from eighteen to twenty miles an hour!" This compares ludicrously with performances we read of daily, of engines drawing a gross load, on level roads, exceeding 500 tons, at a speed of twelve to fifteen miles an hour.

The special train, which conveyed a party of directors and friends from London to Newcastle, on the occasion of the completion of the Darlington and Newcastle railway, accomplished the journey, 303 miles, in the short space of nine hours and thirty-two minutes; being an average of about thirty-two miles an hour, including stoppages—but, as this naked statement would supply a very inadequate idea of the actual rates of progress on some parts of the line, we now give a tabular view of the performance. The train left the Euston square station at three minutes past five in the morning, and reached Newcastle at thirty-five minutes past two in the afternoon. The following are the distances on the respective portions of the line, the time consumed in passing over each, and the rate per hour run:—

	Miles.	Hours.	Minutes.	Rate per hour.
London to Rugby, (Birmingham line,).....	83	2	11	38 miles.
Derby, (Midland counties,).....	49	1	22	36 "
Normanton, (N. Midland,).....	63	1	28	43 "
York, (York and N. Midland,).....	24	0	37	39 "
Darlington, (Gt. N. of England,).....	45	1	13	37 "
Newcastle,.....	39	1	20	29 "
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>303</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>	

Average, 37 miles an hour. The remaining time, 1 hour and 21 minutes, was consumed in stoppages.

The distance between New York and Boston, via Brooklyn and Greenport, may be thus stated:—

Long Island Railroad—New York to Greenport,.....	94 miles.
Steamboat—Greenport to Stonington,.....	30 "
Railroad—Stonington to Providence,.....	55 "
"    Providence to Boston,.....	43 "
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>222 miles.</b>

The distance by water from Greenport to Gale's Ferry, the terminus of the Norwich and Worcester railroad, is about the same as to Stonington, 30 miles. The length of the Norwich and Worcester, and Boston and Worcester railroads, together, is 108 miles; making the distance from New York to Boston, via Norwich, about 16 miles greater than via Stonington—or 232 miles in all. The time of running, by the Norwich route, does not generally exceed that by Stonington and Providence, owing to the detention at the ferry at Providence, &c.

The time required for the performance of the distance from New York to Boston, by the Long Island route, is ten hours; and allotted to the different lines as follows:—

From New York to Greenport,.....	4 hours.
Crossing the Sound to the Norwich and Worcester, or Stonington road,.....	2 "
The remaining distance to Boston, on each of these lines, as now performed,	4 "

## THE FIRST RAILROADS.

The first railroad introduced into the United States, was the Quincy railroad, nearly three miles in length, and leading from the wharf at the mouth of the Neponset river, to the Bunker-Hill quarry. It was built in 1826.

It is stated, in the London Quarterly Review, that, in the north of England collieries, railways, or artificial tracks, for facilitating the draught of carriages, have been employed for two hundred years, and probably much longer. They are described by Roger North, in his *Life of Lord Keeper Guilford*, written about 1676. To diminish friction, as well as to prevent abrasion, iron plates are said to have been nailed on the wooden rails, at Colebroke Dale, in Shropshire, about 1760; and soon after, rails of solid iron were substituted. Railways were common in all the coal and mining districts of Great Britain, early in the present century; and in 1811 there were in South Wales about one hundred and fifty miles of railway. These roads were all constructed to send heavy weights down moderate inclinations, the vehicles returning empty.

The first of the modern, or travelling railroads, that between Darlington and Stockton, chartered in 1821, was opened for passengers September 27th, 1825. The work was under the direction of Mr. Stephenson, who, in the following year, was allowed to employ his locomotive engines in the conveyance of passengers. The act incorporating the Liverpool and Manchester Railway Company received the royal assent May 5th, 1826.

## EFFECT OF RAILWAYS ON CANAL PROPERTY.

In the appendix to a statement issued on behalf of the Grand Canal Company of Ireland, in the matter of the proposed railway to Cashel, there are given some curious details as to the effect of railways on canal property. Thus, the Grand Junction canal, which forms the first 90 miles of water communication between London and Birmingham, had, in the three years immediately preceding the opening of the railway, an annual revenue from tolls, ranging from £174,722 to £198,000, regularly increasing. Since the railway has been fully in operation, this revenue has varied from £121,139 to £113,012. The Rochdale canal is 33 miles long; and, throughout the entire distance, the Manchester and Leeds railway runs parallel to it. In the three years previous to the opening of the railway, the tolls ranged from £62,059 to £59,258. In the last three years, they have varied from £31,533 to £27,165. The Kennet and Avon canal, and the Wilts and Berks canal, are both affected by the Great Western railway; and the tolls of the former have fallen, since the railway was opened, from £46,703 to £32,045; and of the latter, from £19,328 to £8,477. The Forth and Clyde Navigation has gone down from £62,516 to £42,218; and the Union canal, which connects Edinburgh with the Forth and Clyde canal, has had its nett profits reduced by railways from £12,000 to £4,284. The market price of canal stock has, of course, suffered in proportion. Thus, shares in the Grand Junction canal have fallen from £330 to £148 per share; Warwick and Birmingham, from £330 to £180; Worcester and Birmingham, from £84 to £55; Kennet and Avon, from £25 to £9; and Rochdale, from £150 to £61½; while Coventry canal shares, which at one time were as high as £1,200 per share, have fallen as low as £315."

## RAILROAD FREIGHTS.

It has been stated, and we have seen the statement repeated in several newspapers, says the editor of the Boston Daily Advertiser, (Nathan Hale, Esq., who is the President of the Worcester and Boston Company,) that when the Worcester railroad was finished, "a director proposed to farm out the freight of the road for \$15,000 per annum." Such a statement is calculated to give an erroneous impression of the early freight business of

that road. We know not what proposition may have been made by a director, in conversation; but none such as that above stated was ever entertained by the board of directors. A much larger sum than that above named was received for freight in the first six months after the road was completed, and while the means for transacting the freight business were very imperfect.

The freight receipts of the first entire year, returned in the annual reports, amounted to \$54,392; the second year, to \$71,264; and the third, (1838,) \$82,502. In 1839, \$97,751; 1840, \$86,906; 1841, \$105,295; and 1842, \$130,600. This statement shows that there was a steady increase in each year over the year preceding, except in 1840, the first year after the opening of the Western railroad. The nett income of each year, after deducting expenses, not including any compensation for railroads or depots, was as follows:—In 1836, \$19,968; 1837, \$32,804; 1838, \$43,304; 1839, \$54,051; 1840, \$12,467; 1841, \$37,757; 1842, \$48,524. The diminution in the amount of receipts and nett income, on the opening of the Western railroad, was occasioned chiefly by the reduction of the rates of freight on merchandise carried beyond and brought from places beyond Worcester.

The Boston Mercantile Journal very correctly remarks:—"Cultivating sources of freight has hitherto been almost unknown among the railroads of Western New York, and yet it is calculated to add very greatly to their dividends. Take, for instance, the Eastern railroad of Massachusetts. Crowded as it is with passengers, the largest dividend it has yet given is 7 per cent per annum; and the largest dividend it promises, for one year to come, is from 8 to 9 per cent per annum. If that road carried freight, (as the Lowell and Worcester,) it would give at least 10 per cent. Follow the simile:—Take the Auburn and Rochester Railroad. Add, as you certainly can, if it is but attended to, \$56,000 a year, nett income, for freight, and it will divide 10 per cent per annum, instead of 8 per cent, and add to its reserve \$28,000 a year more than it now does."

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#### VALUE OF RAILROADS.

The experience of fourteen years we have had in the use of railroads, says the Richmond Compiler, has taught us three important lessons:—First, that their cost, provided with requisite depot facilities and power, is greater; second, that their cost of maintenance, or keeping the road itself in order, is greater than was formerly estimated; and thirdly, that when constructed, and properly furnished, they are capable of accommodating a larger business, and of transporting at so small an expense as to be able, by low charges, to attract more business than was deemed possible at an early period in their history. But for this last fact, developed entirely during the period above-mentioned, or, it might be said, within the last eight years, all the railroads in Virginia, except the shorter roads for coal transportation, would have been utterly profitless, and perhaps ruinous concerns.

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#### CANAL ACROSS THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA

According to a communication made by M. Arago to the Academy of Sciences of the city of Paris, a contract has been entered into by the Messrs. Baring & Co., of London, with the republic of New Granada, in virtue of which, the republic is to cede to them the line required for the projected canal across the isthmus of Panama, with eighty thousand acres of land on the two banks, and four hundred thousand acres in the interior of the country. Messrs. Baring & Co. had, it is said, in the first instance, fixed the amount of toll for the navigation of the canal at the price of eighteen francs per ton, but they have reduced it to eight francs. The work, upon which from four thousand to five thousand men are to be engaged, is to be completed in five years.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1843.

In the September number of the Merchants' Magazine, page 271, we published the usual annual *summary* statement of the Secretary of the Treasury, of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, for the nine months ending on the 30th of June, 1843. The *general* statement which follows, compiled from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, exhibits the value and the quantity of each article, when given in that document.

## GENERAL STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Fish—Dried or smoked,.....quintals	174,220	\$381,175
Pickled,.....bbls.	29,198	116,042
“.....kegs	2,713	
Oil—Sperm,.....galls.	476,688	310,768
Whale and fish,.....	2,479,916	803,774
Whalebone,.....lbs.	898,713	257,481
Sperm candles,.....	965,073	243,388
Wood—Staves and heading,.....M.	19,765	1,026,179
Shingles,.....	20,270	
Boards, plank, &c.,.....M. feet	49,754	
Hewn timber,.....tons	1,230	
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 and pitch,.....bbls.	37,454	475,357
Rosin and turpentine,.....	188,952	
Pot and pearl ashes,.....	5,436	541,004
Skins and furs,.....		453,869
Ginseng,.....lbs.	556,533	193,870
Beef,.....bbls.	37,812	1,092,949
Tallow,.....lbs.	7,489,582	
Hides,.....No.	50,340	
Horned cattle,.....	5,181	
Pork,.....bbls.	80,310	2,120,020
Hams and bacon,.....lbs.	2,422,067	
Hogs,.....No.	7,162	
Lard,.....lbs.	24,534,217	
Butter,.....	3,408,274	508,968
Cheese,.....	3,440,144	
Horses,.....No.	2,002	212,696
Mules,.....	1,193	
Sheep,.....	113,609	29,061
Wheat,.....bushels	311,685	264,109
Flour,.....bbls.	841,474	3,763,073
Corn,.....bushels	672,608	281,749
Indian meal,.....bbls.	174,354	554,116
Rye meal,.....	21,770	65,631
Rye, oats, &c.,.....		108,640
Ship bread,.....bbls.	96,572	312,232
“.....kegs	29,351	
Potatoes,.....bush.	144,991	47,757
Apples,.....bbls.	15,412	32,825
Rice,.....tes.	106,766	1,625,726
Indigo,.....lbs.	208	198
Cotton, sea island,.....	7,515,079	.....
“ other,.....	784,782,027	49,119,806
Tobacco,.....hds.	94,454	4,650,979
Flax-seed,.....bush.	35,002	49,406



## GENERAL STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Hops,.....	lbs. 1,182,565	\$123,745
Wax,.....	475,727	137,532
Furniture, household,.....		197,982
Coaches, &c.,.....		48,036
Hats,.....		39,843
Saddlery,.....		17,653
Beer, porter, ale, and cider,.....	casks 88,433	44,064
“ “ “ “	doz. bottles 14,182	
Spirits from grain,.....	galls. 89,546	21,395
Leather,.....	lbs. 317,560	115,355
Boots,.....	pairs 3,646	
Shoes,.....	65,499	407,105
Tallow candles,.....	lbs. 1,998,357	
Soap,.....	3,186,652	278,319
Snuff,.....	20,455	
Tobacco, manufactured,.....	3,404,252	29,434
Linseed oil,.....	galls. 4,185	
Spirits of turpentine,.....	61,053	3,435
Brown sugar,.....	lbs. 68,563	
Cables and cordage,.....	cwts. 2,204	22,198
Lead,.....	lbs. 15,366,918	492,765
Iron—pig,.....	tons 13	120,923*
“ bar,.....	7	
“ nails,.....	lbs. 2,629,201	41,189
“ castings,.....		
Manufactures of iron,.....		370,581
Spirits from molasses,.....	galls. 491,947	117,947
Sugar, refined,.....	lbs. 598,874	47,345
Chocolate,.....	18,447	2,032
Gunpowder,.....	436,589	47,088
Copper and brass,.....		79,234
Medicinal drugs,.....		108,438
Manufactures of cotton—		
Printed and colored,.....		358,415
White,.....		2,575,049
Twist, yarn, &c.,.....		57,312
All other,.....		233,774
Manufactures of flax,.....		326
Wearing apparel,.....		28,845
Combs and buttons,.....		23,227
Brushes,.....		4,467
Billiard-tables, &c.,.....		415
Umbrellas, &c.,.....		4,654
Leather, and morocco skins,.....		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
Glass,.....		25,348
Tin-ware,.....		5,026
Pewter and lead-ware,.....		7,121
Manufactures of marble and stone,.....		8,545
Gold and silver, and gold leaf,.....		1,901
Artificial flowers and jewelry,.....		3,769
Molasses,.....		1,317
Trunks,.....		2,072
Bricks and lime,.....		3,883
Domestic salt,.....	40,678	10,262
Manufactured articles not enumerated,.....		470,261
Other articles,.....		575,199

## VALUE OF FOREIGN EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The following is a statement of the goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1842, and ending on the 30th of June, 1843:—

*Merchandise free of Duty.*

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Anatomical preparations,.....	\$161	Copper, pigs and bars,.....	\$88,592
Crude brimstone, &c.,.....	2,278	“ sheathing,.....	79,452
Barilla,.....	1,001	“ old,.....	56,837
Dye-wood,.....	188,473	Tea,.....	443,601
Other wood,.....	22,784	Coffee,.....	422,860
Hides and skins,.....	7,528	Nutmegs,.....	82
Tin, pigs and bar,.....	25	Cloves,.....	111
“ plates and sheets,.....	557	Worsted stuff goods,.....	491
Bullion gold,.....	450	Linens,.....	3,786
Gold, specie,.....	299,808	Opium,.....	1,912
Silver, “.....	1,113,104	All other articles,.....	362,232

*Merchandise paying duties ad valorem.*

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Cloths and cassimeres,.....	\$24,979	Other manufactures of iron,...	\$20,448
Blankets,.....	108	Brass, manufactures of,.....	496
Hosiery, gloves, etc.,.....	977	Tin, manufactures of,.....	1,179
Worsted stuffs,.....	22,820	Leather, manufactures of,.....	2,854
All other,.....	3,118	Plate glass,.....	210
Cotton goods, colored, etc.,...	251,808	Glass, manufactures of,.....	164
“ white,.....	33,998	Hats and bonnets, etc.,.....	25,619
Twist, yarn, etc.,.....	15,028	Cabinet-ware,.....	1,437
Hosiery,.....	4,881	Wood, manufactures of,.....	22,256
Other manufactures,.....	2,901	China and porcelain,.....	373
Silks, hosiery,.....	1,255	Earthen and stone-ware,.....	25,965
“ not specified,.....	12,793	Plated and gilt-ware,.....	5,776
Silk and worsted goods,.....	4,929	Japan-ware,.....	1,172
Lace, thread and inserting,...	893	Brushes,.....	473
“ bobinet,.....	5,424	Paper hangings,.....	274
Linens, bleached and unbl'ch'd,	154,402	Slates,.....	896
Other manufactures of flax,...	3,479	Clocks,.....	535
Sheeting, brown and white,...	40,662	Watches, and parts,.....	13,193
Tickenburgs, osnaburgs, etc.,..	27,027	Gold and silver manufactures,.	2,202
Other manufactures of hemp,...	4,427	Buttons and moulds,.....	500
Clothing, ready-made,.....	4,192	Coffee,.....	3,534
“ not specified,.....	54	Corks,.....	1,207
Wire, brass, or copper,.....	1,500	Mahogany,.....	38,706
Fire-arms,.....	2,711	Indigo,.....	10,197
Side-arms,.....	112	Wool, manufactured,.....	655
Knives,.....	924	“ exceeding 7 cts. per lb.,	33,996
Needles,.....	495	Merchandise not enumerated,.	1,889,257

*Merchandise paying specific duties.*

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Sewing silk, twist, etc.,.....	\$190	French white wines,.....	\$4,682
Silks not specified,.....	192,539	Portugal “.....	17,041
Raw silk,.....	3,353	Wines of France, in bottle,...	17,328
Flannels,.....	9,504	Portugal, in bottle,.....	2,550
Sail duck,.....	22,160	Wines of Spain,.....	6,326
Cotton bagging,.....	12,358	Spirits from grain,.....	5,288
Oil-cloth,.....	43	Brandy,.....	19,352
Madeira wine,.....	13,310	Spirits of other materials,....	38,142
Sherry,.....	7,169	Cordials,.....	1,635
Champagne,.....	20	Beer, ale, and porter, in bottles,	1,172
Claret, in bottles,.....	9,328	“ “ “ in casks,.	2,200
“ in casks,.....	11,210	Vinegar,.....	848
Sicily wine,.....	2,783	Molasses,.....	18,510

Merchandise paying specific duties—Continued.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Oil—whale, etc.,.....	\$1,227	Manilla, and other hems,.....	\$472
“ olive, in casks, .....	7,869	Sisal grass, etc.,.....	1,198
Castor oil,.....	4,170	Glass, cut,.....	302
Linseed oil,.....	6,288	Cut chandeliers,.....	4,067
Oil of almonds,.....	400	Press glass,.....	200
Cocoa,.....	81,580	Glass tumblers,.....	556
Chocolate,.....	215	Other glass,.....	908
Sugar, brown,.....	69,717	Window glass,.....	2,500
“ white,.....	12,274	Black and green bottles,.....	1,313
“ loaf, etc.,.....	11,168	Demijohns,.....	2,910
Almonds,.....	5,615	Copper nails and spikes,.....	116
Currants,.....	583	Lead, scrap,.....	525
Prunes,.....	130	Pins, in packs,.....	1,253
Figs,.....	3,570	“ in pounds,.....	338
Raisins,.....	35,288	Muskets,.....	8,922
Nuts not specified,.....	5,648	Wrought nails,.....	715
Nutmegs,.....	1,241	Spikes,.....	63
Cinnamon,.....	16,402	Chain cables,.....	708
Cloves,.....	25,344	Chains,.....	183
Pepper, black,.....	24,327	Castings,.....	436
Cayenne pepper,.....	242	Sad irons, etc.,.....	227
Pimento,.....	39,135	Round or square iron,.....	491
Cassia,.....	24,681	Sheet iron,.....	769
Ginger, ground,.....	108	Hoop iron,.....	152
Camphor,.....	27	Band iron, scroll, etc.,.....	417
Cheese,.....	506	Pig iron,.....	570
Hard soap,.....	400	Bar, manufactured by rolling, ..	7,986
Beef and pork,.....	11,993	Bar iron,.....	4,473
Saltpetre,.....	3,683	Steel,.....	59,733
Indigo,.....	111,790	Men's boots,.....	470
Wood, or pastel,.....	659	Men's shoes,.....	122
Opium,.....	11,649	Paper, folio and quarto,.....	70
Glue,.....	86	“ med'm, demi, & foolscap,	9,119
Quinine,.....	138	Sheathing paper,.....	501
Snuff,.....	62	Blank books,.....	1
Cigars,.....	59,154	Books, printed, in boards,.....	2,270
Cotton, unmanufactured,.....	354,188	“ unbound,.....	78
Goats' hair,.....	600	Salt,.....	10,236
White and red lead,.....	559	Coal,.....	34,414
Cordage,.....	61,244	Wheat,.....	8,092
Twine and pack-thread,.....	1,153	Fish, salmon,.....	41
Hemp, unmanufactured,.....	2,012	All other fish,.....	1 375

THE ICE TRADE.

Ice has become so much of an article of commerce, that the word “ice” has taken its place under the nomenclature of the commodities of trade, in the commercial dictionaries of the day. Waterston, in his Encyclopædia of Commerce, published at Edinburgh, during the last year, says:—“Ice is extensively used for a variety of commercial purposes, such as cooling liquors, packing salmon, and as an ingredient in some confections. In warm climates, it is prized as a luxury; and in Bengal, and other hot countries, artificial means are regularly used for its manufacture. Of late years, however, the practice has been adopted of shipping it from cold to warm countries. In September, 1833, a cargo of ice, shipped at Boston, was discharged at Calcutta. The price at which it was offered was 3*d.* per lb.; while the material made by an artificial process could not be sold under 6*d.* It was packed in solid masses, within chambers of double planking, with a layer of refuse tan, or bark, between them; but the Americans expected, by improving methods of packing, to lower the price of future consignments one-half. The whole quantity shipped was one hundred and eighty tons, of which about sixty wasted on the voyage, and twenty on the passage up the river to Calcutta, and in stowing away. Various other vessels, with similar cargoes, have since arrived at India. It is also exported from the United

States to Brazil, and other countries. Ice, for the use of the fisheries, is now admitted duty free into Coleraine, Londonderry, and Sligo."

Since 1833, the trade has increased greatly; and, from the small beginning at Boston, has extended to other northern ports; and a considerable quantity is now annually shipped at New York. Great improvements have been made in packing, so that the wastage is much reduced. Large quantities are also shipped to New Orleans, and other southern ports; and the home consumption of ice has augmented largely. We have no means at hand of ascertaining the quantity consumed in New York; but, since the introduction of Croton water, it must be immense. Salmon, from the state of Maine, and cod and other fish, from Boston, are packed in ice, and sent over the various railroad routes to the interior of western New England, and as far north as Buffalo.

The export of ice from Boston, for the month ending August 31, is as follows:—

TO FOREIGN PORTS.		COASTWISE PORTS.	
	Tons.		Tons.
Bombay and Calcutta,.....	442	New Orleans,.....	2,380
Liverpool,.....	759	Charleston,.....	300
Rio Janeiro,.....	268		
Barbadoes,.....	230½	Total for August,.....	2,680
Trinidad,.....	127	Total since June 1,.....	3,901
		Total, both foreign and coastwise,	6,294½
Total for August,.....	1,626½		
Total since June 1,.....	2,393½		

### EXPORT OF COTTON GOODS FROM ENGLAND.

QUANTITY OF MANUFACTURED COTTON GOODS EXPORTED DURING FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1843-44.

Countries.	PLAIN CALICOES.		PRINTED AND DYED.	
	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.
Barbary and Morocco,.....	114,390	14,800	17,982	5,000
Brazil, and other ports of S. America,	19,759,110	27,517,811	16,640,591	20,374,286
British West Indies,.....	12,243,986	6,086,237	9,467,854	6,074,576
British N. A. colonies,.....	4,948,187	7,353,145	4,676,107	6,872,253
Belgium,.....	368,788	627,660	1,225,003	1,327,825
Coast of Africa, exclusive of Cape,...	2,843,053	1,024,157	9,289,661	2,626,831
Chili and Peru,.....	5,621,716	4,008,367	6,766,647	7,090,633
Cape of Good Hope,.....	2,007,541	891,138	1,695,507	1,052,607
Colombia,.....	1,404,180	1,114,312	2,610,194	1,743,610
Denmark,.....	74,039	609,620	12,938	206,531
Egypt,.....	4,124,942	7,345,504	149,783	1,069,166
France,.....	2,467,749	421,651	724,970	834,522
Foreign West Indies,.....	3,883,624	3,146,466	4,533,013	5,059,308
Gibraltar,.....	9,456,656	5,777,403	4,534,183	5,593,521
Hanse Towns, Mecklenburg, &c.,....	9,291,975	10,110,516	17,565,003	16,095,382
Hanover,.....	20,000	30,798	9,000	3,003
Holland,.....	14,593,419	7,730,080	5,679,597	7,053,108
India,.....		82,268,964		10,458,494
China,.....	92,542,740	46,546,517	12,523,665	2,716,365
Malta, and Ionian isles,.....	3,379,754	1,629,739	1,756,383	836,219
Mauritius and Batavia,.....	838,861	1,022,898	690,492	970,493
Mexico,.....	1,740,608	184,413	3,328,924	1,404,684
New Holland,.....	1,660,656	1,034,882	2,485,077	604,031
Naples and Sicily,.....	3,499,727	2,953,371	2,792,448	3,958,600
Prussia,.....	1,188	2,620	529	140
Portugal, Madeira, Azores, and Cape de Verdes,.....	13,135,400	12,551,468	6,488,030	7,706,487
Russia,.....	529,982	533,507	40,242	134,940
Sweden and Norway,.....	333,453	355,892	377,438	264,225
Spain,.....	17,909	.....	18,755	.....
Sardinia, Tuscany, &c.,.....	11,752,465	6,933,744	8,750,289	7,645,502
Trieste, Venice, and Austrian ports,.	3,965,379	3,485,909	1,690,993	1,270,189
Turkey and Levant,.....	24,698,287	29,108,204	16,090,529	26,931,700
United States of America,.....	1,953,857	4,300,378	3,562,312	5,096,137
Total,.....	253,318,621	276,722,671	145,295,119	152,080,368

## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## THE MERCHANTS OF OLD ENGLAND.

BY THE HON. GEORGE SYDNEY SMITH, M. P.

THE land, it boasts its titled hosts—they could not vie with these,  
 The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas—  
 In the days of great Elizabeth, when they sought the western main,  
 Maugre and spite the Caesar's might, and the menaces of Spain.  
 And the richly freighted argosy, and the good galleon went forth,  
 With the bales of Leeds or Lincoln, and the broadcloths of the North ;  
 And many a veteran mariner would speak 'midst glistening eyes,  
 Of the gain of some past voyage, and the hazards of emprise ;  
 Or, in the long night-watches, the wond'rous tale was told,  
 Of isles of fruit and spices, and fields of waving gold.  
 And the young and buoyant-hearted would oft that tale renew,  
 And dream their dearest dream should be, their wildest hope come true.  
 So, with brave hearts, and dauntless, they sailed for the unknown ;  
 For each he sought his inmost thought, and a secret of his own.  
 And reason fair, how wild soe'er had been each young belief—  
 O reason fair ! had they to dare with Raleigh for a chief !  
 Then, when long years had glided by, in those colonies they made,  
 The same free spirit which was theirs, in those plantations stayed.  
 A refuge here, and shelter, full many an exile found,  
 When the old world grew in dotage, and by priests and kings was bound.  
 And in some far savannah, where man had never been,  
 They came with thoughts as simple as was that savage scene—  
 Or in the lonely prairie they kept their solemn tryst,  
 When sacred word and hymn were heard, and the equal laws of Christ.  
 And the young and strong Republic was by these in virtue bred,  
 She was cradled in adventure, she was nursed in good men's dread.  
 The young and strong republic that has filled the world with fame,  
 And with great praise and marvel of the Anglo-Saxon name.  
 And well she shows her origin in the deeds that she has done,  
 With her Franklin, and her Whitney, and her hero Washington.  
 Then glory to the fathers who had such sons as these,  
 The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas !

The land, it boasts its titled hosts—they could not vie with these,  
 The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas.  
 In the days of the Guelphic Georges, when the dream had come again,  
 Of a treasure land, where a daring hand had only to glean and gain.  
 And all that, in past times, our forefathers had told,  
 Of the gorgeous Mississippi, and the southern seas of gold,  
 Was now outdone, where the eastern sun poured its fire in lava streams,  
 Through bold Dupleix's, Labourdonnaye's, and Lally's conquest schemes ;  
 But little they knew what he could do, when, on fair Plassy's vale,  
 The bright-eyed young adventurer flung his sword into the scale ;  
 And, like the Roman legend, the fate of nations swayed,  
 With the glory of the impulse, and the greatness of the blade.



For the fiat had gone forth, and the Orient was to be  
 The slave of a northern mistress—the island of the free.  
 And of the three great races that met in conflict there,  
 The fierce Mahratta swordsman, and the Mussulman Ameer,  
 Was high above all standards, the Company's displayed,  
 Was high above all war-cries, the war-cry of the Trade.  
 And from that hour there grew the power, was made by no human hand,  
 But as erst was given, in grace from Heaven, to a free and chosen land.  
 For, lo! by a sign that was divine, there were revealed once more,  
 The greatness, and the courage, and the soul that were of yore—  
 And one vast mind, itself combined, the ancient and the new,  
 The ardor of the Christian, and the calm of the Hindoo.  
 And after Hastings, still there came a great and glorious line,  
 Of proconsul on proconsul, to tend his high design—  
 Of counsellors and heroes, whose names shall live for aye,  
 With the Wellesley of Mysore, and the Wellesley of Assaye.  
 Then glory to the merchants, who had such chiefs as these,  
 The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas!

The land, it boasts its titled hosts—they cannot vie with these,  
 The merchants of old England—the Seigneurs of the seas,  
 In the days of Queen Victoria; for they have borne her sway  
 From the fair Atlantic islands, to the islands of Cathay,  
 And o'er one-sixth of all the earth, and over all the main,  
 Like some good fairy, freedom marks and blesses her domain.  
 And of the mighty empires, that arose, and ruled, and died,  
 Since on the sea, his heritage, the Tyrian looked in pride,  
 Not Carthage, with her Hannibal, nor Athens, when she bore  
 Her bravest and her boldest to the Syracusan shore,  
 While the words of Alcibiades yet echoed wide and far,  
 "Where are corn-fields and are olive-grounds, the Athenian's limits are."  
 And in each trireme was many a dream of the west, and its unknown bliss,  
 Of the maidens of Iberia, and the feasts of Sybaris—  
 Not in those younger ages, when St. Mark's fair city ran  
 Her race of fame and frailty—each monarch's courtesan—  
 Not Lusitania in her palmier hour, in those commercial days,  
 When Vasco sailed for Calicut, and Camoens sang his praise—  
 Not Spain, with all her Indies, the while she seemed to fling  
 Her fetters on the waters, like the oriental king—  
 Not one among the conquerors that are, or ever were,  
 In wealth, or fame, or grandeur, with England may compare.  
 But not of this our sovereign thought, when, from her solemn throne,  
 She spoke of the poor, and what they endure, in her low and thrilling tone;  
 And offered a prayer that trade might bear relief through the starving land,  
 To the strong man's weakened arm, and his wan and workless hand.  
 And by the power that was her dower, might commerce once more be  
 The helper of the helpless, and the saviour of the free.  
 Then glory to the merchants, who shall do such deeds as these,  
 The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas!

## GUANO, AND THE GUANO TRADE.

We brought together a number of facts touching the progress of this new branch of commerce, in the September number of this Magazine, and now add some additional information on the subject, derived from a variety of authentic sources.

According to Liebig, the distinguished German chemist, guano has been used by the Peruvians as a manure, since the twelfth century; and its value was considered so inestimable, that the government of the Incas issued a decree, by which capital punishment was inflicted upon any person found destroying the fowl on the Guano islands. Overseers were also appointed over each province, for the purpose of insuring them further protection. Under this state of things, the accumulation of the excrements may well have taken place. All these regulations are, however, now abandoned. Rivero states that the annual consumption of guano, for the purposes of agriculture, amounts to 40,000 fanegas. The increase of crops obtained by the use of the guano, is very remarkable. According to the same authority, the crop of potatoes is increased forty-five times by means of it, and that of maize thirty-five times. The manner of applying the manure is singular. Thus, in Africa, where so much pepper (*capsicum baccatum*) is cultivated, each plant is manured three times. First, upon the appearance of the roots; second, that of the leaves; and lastly, upon the formation of the fruit—(Humboldt.) From this, it will be observed, the Peruvians follow the plan of the Chinese, in manuring the plant rather than the soil. The composition of guano points out how admirably it is fitted for manure—for not only does it contain ammoniacal salts in abundance, but also those inorganic constituents which are indispensable for the development of plants.

The most recent analysis is that of Volckel, who found it to consist of—Urate of ammonia, 9.0; oxalate of ammonia, 10.6; oxalate of lime, 7.0; phosphate of ammonia, 6.0; phosphate of magnesia and ammonia, 2.6; sulphate of potash, 5.5; sulphate of soda, 3.8; sal-ammoniac, 4.2; phosphate of lime, 14.3; clay and sand, 4.7; organic substances not estimated, containing 12 per cent of matter, insoluble in water, soluble salts of iron, in small quantity, water, 32.3—total, 100.0.

Justus Liebig says that the importation of one hundred weight of guano is equal to the importation of eight hundred weight of wheat—so astonishingly fertile is this manure. This is encouraging to the ten millions of oat-meal livers of Great Britain, as immense quantities of it are now coming from Africa.

We learn, from a late London paper, that the ship *Leo* recently arrived at the port of Berwick, with a complete cargo of guano, from Chincha, or the Bug islands. The captain states that he loaded his vessel, (about 426 tons,) in forty-eight hours, the guano lying as thick as 300 feet; and that, had it not been for the trouble of stowing, it might have been done in four or five hours. The guano was conveyed to the hold of the vessel by means of a canvass hose. The Bug islands are three in number, about fifteen miles off Piseo, in latitude 14 deg. 23 m. S., longitude 76 deg. 13 m. There is a rock in the centre of the middle island, which is half a mile in diameter. The rock stands as a sort of landmark in the ocean. The rock appeared to be a kind of whitened boulder, so hard that the crew were unable to procure a ragment of it. The captain visited only two of the islands, and states that the air was very strongly impregnated with ammonia. The coast of Peru abounds with guano. He describes labor in general to be plentiful, and to be had at about 3s. per day, English money; but he had to wait a month for his "turn," as there were thirty vessels there. The population is principally a mixed race of Spaniards and Peruvians, speaking Spanish; and, in the present undisturbed state of the country, says the captain, "fond of plunder."

A late British paper thus sums up the prospect of the guano trade:—

"As guano is likely to come into general use as an available and profitable manure, an idea may be formed of the quantity ultimately required. There are, for instance, in Eng-

land and Wales, 25,000,000 acres of land under cultivation, and almost 16,000,000 in Ireland and Scotland. Supposing, however, that guano be applied, ultimately, to only one-twelfth of this quantity, what a trade would thus be created! Taking it for granted that an acre would require about two hundred weight and a half, 600,000 tons annually would be required; while the import of this quantity would employ some 1,200 vessels, of 500 tons each."

An intelligent gentleman of Boston, who has lately visited the different islands on the west coast of Africa, at which guano is obtained, publishes in the columns of the Boston Daily Advertiser, for the benefit of commercial men, some account of the extent to which the guano trade is carried, by the English merchants, who have realized speedy and ample fortunes. As the information embraced in this communication appears to be authentic, derived as it is from personal knowledge, and an authentic source, we have concluded to give it below, in the writer's own words:—

"Guano is now a new article here, generally supposed to be the excrement of birds. Such, however, is not the fact. It is the decomposition of animal matter, formed by the seals, in their periodical visits to reefs or rocks, slightly elevated above the surface, from time immemorial, for the purpose of shedding and pupping. The penguin has also made it a rookery. Nature being frail, in the ordinary course of events, the carcasses of both have been deposited here, and layer upon layer has been accumulating, and decomposition taking place, until, on one peculiar island, it is found in a solid mass, of ninety feet in depth, and three-quarters of a mile in circumference. Speculators and theorists have made four or five kinds, and given a different appearance to each, as interest swayed them. There are, however, but two kinds, the pure and impure, both strongly impregnated with ammonia—the former, moist and adhesive, of the color and consistency of common clay, which is not decomposed; the latter of a light brown, perfectly decomposed, and appearing like pulverized mortar. The article, in its purity, can only be obtained in those parallels of latitude where it never rains; and the formation of the island must be peculiar, as it requires a uniform and fervid heat to act upon it. Its uses are various, both for chemical and agricultural purposes, and appears as though designed by an all-wise Providence for the purpose of resuscitating worn-out and exhausted soil. But to the islands:—The first in order is Possession, a barren waste of sand, its arid surface strewed with the bones of seal, and presenting every appearance of having been lately visited for guano. The next in order are the islands of Shark, Seal, and Penguin, in Angra, Pequena bay; at the former of which we saw some six British vessels loading. The article, however, was impure, being obtained in the chasms and fissures of rocks; consequently not decomposed.

"We next proceeded to Ichaboe. Here a scene met our view for which we were perfectly unprepared. A large fleet of English shipping, thirty-six in number, of the largest class, clustering about a mound of earth, isolated in its position, barren on its surface, but teeming with this new substance, guano, in all its purity. The appearance of the island is similar to a tea-cup inverted, as to natural position. The forest of masts would incline the stranger to suppose he was wending his way to a thriving commercial seaport; but the eye wanders in vain for the cheerful, quiet abode of man. Desolation bounds the prospect on one side, and the broad expanse of ocean on the other. One little spot alone appears—a human bee-hive—the centre of all this attraction—the island of Ichaboe. It presents the appearance of a huge fortress, with all its ramparts and abutments—each party, as they work in, leaving their walls perpendicular; and, so hard is the substance, it is necessary to use not only the pickaxe, but the beetle and wedge. Through the sides of the pits, as they are termed, the remains of both seal and fowl are found protruding, and the writer of this article has taken penguin eggs, in a perfect state of preservation, seventy feet from the surface. Upon our arrival here, a stranger, the first unfolding the stars and stripes, some difficulty occurred in loading. This, however, was speedily remedied, and we started, homeward-bound, by way of the West Indies, as per advice of consul at the Cape of Good Hope, to ascertain the consumption of it among the islands; and it was ascertained that the planters were using it extensively. American vessels, however, are not allowed to land it in either the English or French West Indies, but planters can readily be found who will charter a vessel, and follow her to a Danish port, and there receive her cargo at a high price. The fact is, that John Bull has caught Brother Jonathan napping, for the last year, in this new article of traffic—and in one year's time, the pure article will be exhausted. Written documents can be found, by inquiring of L. Whitney, Globe Hotel, which will satisfy the most skeptical."

No mention is made of guano in M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary; and in Water-

ston's more recent Encyclopædia of Commerce, we find only the following brief allusion to the article:—

“Guano, a highly concentrated manure, is a dark yellow substance, of a strong ambrosial odor, found in deposits 50 or 60 feet thick, and of considerable extent, upon the coasts of Peru, the islands of Chinche, near Piseo, and other places more south. It is said to be an accumulation of excrements of herons, flamands, and other birds inhabiting these localities. This substance has of late (1842) become an object of considerable trade.”

The London Agricultural Gazette says that “contracts for Ichaboe (African) guano have been signed, to be delivered from March to the middle of May, 1845, at 6l. 6s. per ton, at Liverpool. The last news from the island of Ichaboe was, that one hundred ships were then waiting their turn to load. It is thought, by some, that in twelve months the stock of guano on Ichaboe island will be exhausted; but it is said there are other islands equally valuable. If that was the case, why should so many ships wait so patiently their turn to be laden? The supply of African guano here, (Liverpool), is very liberal. It is calculated by many importers that guano will be bought on better terms the next three months, than will happen again for years; for the number of ships on their passage, to load at Ichaboe, and those returning laden, will overstock the market, as the season will be over before they can arrive.

## MERCANTILE QUALIFICATIONS,

ONE HUNDRED AND EIGHTY YEARS AGO.

In looking over a lot of old English books, recently imported by D. Appleton & Co., we fell in with a little work of one hundred and seventy-five 18mo. pages, with this title:—“England's Treasure by Foreign Trade; or, the Balance of our Foreign Trade is the Rule of our Treasure. Written by Thomas Mun, Merchant. First published in 1664.” The edition before us bears the imprint, “London: Printed for Thomas Horne, at the South Entrance of the Royal Exchange. 1718.” The volume, divided into twenty-one chapters, it appears from the preface, was addressed to the writer's son. The views embraced in Chapter I., which treats of “*The Qualities which are required in a perfect Merchant of Foreign Trade,*” are as elevated, to say the least, as those entertained by merchants in this year of our Lord, eighteen hundred and forty-four, with all its increased wisdom and accomplishments. In illustration of this remark, and as a specimen of the mercantile spirit and literature of the seventeenth century, we copy the chapter entire:—

### THE QUALITIES WHICH ARE REQUIRED IN A PERFECT MERCHANT OF FOREIGN TRADE.

The love and service of our country consisteth not so much in the knowledge of those duties which are to be performed by others, as in the skilful practice of that which is done by ourselves; and therefore, my son, it is now fit that I say something of the merchant, which I hope, in due time, shall be thy vocation. Yet herein are my thoughts free from all ambition, although I rank thee in a place of so high estimation; for the merchant is worthily called the steward of the kingdom's stock, by way of commerce with other nations, a work of no less reputation than trust, which ought to be performed with great skill and conscience, that so the private gain may ever accompany the public good. And because the nobleness of this profession may the better stir up thy desires and endeavors to obtain those abilities which may effect it worthily, I will briefly set down the excellent qualities which are required in a perfect merchant.

1. He ought to be a good penman, a good arithmetician, and a good accountant, by that noble order of debtor and creditor, which is used only amongst merchants—also, to be expert in the order and form of charter-parties, bills of lading, invoices, contracts, bills of exchange, and policies of insurance.

2. He ought to know the measures, weights, and moneys of all foreign countries, especially where we have trade; and the moneys not only by their several denominations, but also by their intrinsic values in weight and fineness, compared with the standard of this kingdom; without which, he cannot well direct his affairs.

3. He ought to know the customs, tolls, taxes, impositions, conducts, and other charges upon all manner of merchandise exported or imported to and from the said foreign countries.

4. He ought to know in what several commodities each country abounds, and what be the wares which they want, and how and from whence they are furnished with the same.

5. He ought to understand, and to be a diligent observer of the rates of exchanges by bills, from one state to another, whereby he may the better direct his affairs, and remit over and receive home his moneys to the most advantage possible.

6. He ought to know what goods are prohibited to be exported or imported in the said foreign countries, lest otherwise he should incur great danger and loss in the ordering of his affairs.

7. He ought to know upon what rates and conditions to freight his ships, and insure his adventures from one country to another, and to be well acquainted with the laws, orders, and customs of the insurance office, both here and beyond the seas, in the many accidents which may happen upon the damage or loss of ships or goods, or both these.

8. He ought to have knowledge in the goodness and in the prices of all the several materials which are required for the building and repairing of ships, and the divers workmanships of the same, as also for the masts, tackling, cordage, ordnance, victuals, munition, and provisions of many kinds; together with the ordinary wages of commanders, officers, and mariners—all which concern the merchant, as he is an owner of ships.

9. He ought, (by the divers occasions which happen, sometimes in the buying and selling of one commodity, and sometimes in another,) to have indifferent, if not perfect knowledge, in all manner of merchandise or wares; which is to be, as it were, a man of all occupations and trades.

10. He ought, by his voyaging on the seas, to become skilful in the art of navigation.

11. He ought, as he is a traveller, and sometimes abiding in foreign countries, to attain to the speaking of divers languages, and to be a diligent observer of the ordinary revenues and expenses of foreign princes, together with their strength both by sea and land, their laws, customs, policies, manners, religions, arts, and the like; to be able to give account thereof, in all occasions, for the good of his country.

12. Lastly, although there be no necessity that such a merchant should be a great scholar, yet is it (at least) required that in his youth he learn the Latin tongue; which will the better enable him in all the rest of his endeavors.

Thus have I briefly showed thee a pattern for thy diligence, the merchant in his qualities; which, in truth, are such, and so many, that I find no other profession which leadeth into more worldly knowledge. And it cannot be denied but that their sufficiency doth appear, likewise, in the excellent government of state at Venice, Luca, Genoa, Florence, the Low Countries, and divers other places of Christendom. And in those states, also, where they are least esteemed, yet is their skill and knowledge often used by those who sit in the highest places of authority. It is, therefore, an act beyond rashness in some, who do disenable their counsel and judgment, (even in books printed,) making them incapable of those ways and means which do either enrich or impoverish a commonwealth, when, in truth, this is only effected by the mystery of their trade, as I shall plainly show in that which followeth. It is true, indeed, that many merchants here in England, finding less encouragement given to their profession than in other countries, and seeing themselves not so well esteemed as their noble vocation requireth, and according to the great consequence of the same, do not therefore labor to attain unto the excellency of their profession; neither is it practised by the nobility of this kingdom, as it is in other states, from the father to the son, throughout their generations, to the great increase of their wealth, and maintenance of their names and families; whereas the memory of our richest merchants is suddenly extinguished—the son, being left rich, scorneth the profession of his father; conceiving more honor to be a gentleman, (although but in name;) to consume his estate in dark ignorance and excess, than to follow the steps of his father, as an industrious merchant, to maintain and advance his fortunes.

#### IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT IN ENGLAND.

It affords us pleasure to record, in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, every advance made in the progress of liberal and humane principles. England has at length done her duty—erasing from her statute-books one of the barbarisms of the past, by abolishing imprisonment for debt. It is a crying shame that America should be behind her Anglo-Saxon progenitors across the Atlantic, by permitting, in a large majority of the states, imprisonment for poverty. Let it be remembered, that in 1844, the insolvent bill, abolishing imprisonment for debt, passed, with the general concurrence of the British Parliament. "The principle of this bill," said Sir J. Graham, "is, that every debtor shall be released



upon the surrender of his property, and this without any imprisonment, in cases where the debt does not exceed twenty pounds; and in debts, also, of whatever amount, if he apply before execution, whilst at liberty. What more, indeed," said Sir J. Graham, "ought the creditor to require, "than that the debtor should give up all his property? He might, indeed, have none to give up; but it was surely most unjust, when that was the case, to apply the torture of imprisonment, in order to extract payment from his friends. The highest legal authorities were in favor of the bill; so was the experience of Scotland, where its principle had worked extremely well. Under that principle, shopkeepers would exercise more caution, and the poorer classes be relieved from many extortionate practices."

The twenty pound clause was introduced to put an end to the extortions under the tally system, and the loan societies. It remains to be added, that the new act contains a further clause, of very great importance; namely, that after the final order of the court, to be given on the fair surrender of the present property of the debtor, his further acquired property is not to be taken. The words of the act, upon this point, are as follows:—

"And be it enacted, That, in construing this act, the word 'property' shall mean and include all the real and personal estate, and effects of the petitioner, within this realm and abroad, (except the wearing apparel, beds, and implements, not exceeding the value of twenty pounds,) and all the future estate, right, title, and trust of such petitioner, in or to any real or personal estate and effect, within this realm or abroad, which such petitioner may purchase, or which may revert, descend, or be devised or bequeathed to him, or come to him, before he shall have obtained the final order, and all debts due to such petitioner before he shall have received the final order."

This, and the non-imprisonment in execution as to all debts not exceeding twenty pounds, are the two main alterations of the former law.

#### THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

SIR—Having, according to previous arrangement, deferred the presentation of my solution to the question above named, to the 20th ult., in order to afford sufficient time to any of your or my correspondents to consider, and, if deemed prudent, to *qualify* their former attempts on this subject; and having, to this date, neither seen nor heard of any, to such an effect, I now present the *exact* solution.

In doing so, I deem it proper to remark that, where mercantile transactions are conducted on so *limited* a scale as those in question, I have excluded the introduction of *company books*; and have consequently embodied the solitary transaction dependent thereon, in *books proper*—the result, however, being of necessity the *same*.

How a *few* of my correspondents have contrived to cheat themselves into the belief that my intention was that Caleb W—— and I should share *proportionally* in the gain or loss which may occur, notwithstanding the fact, that I distinctly stated, that we were to share *equally*—a particular which I endeavored carefully to impress, by italicising, as I do now, the word which expressed those conditions;—how, I repeat, any of my correspondents, under such circumstances, could have thus conceived, is, to my judgment, not less extraordinary, than that they should have failed to discover the non-existence of any other mode of justifying these conditions, than that of charging Caleb W—— with *half* of the extra stock put into company by me; so as to place our claims on an *equality*. In a word, these considerations, blended with others, not now prudent or necessary for me to explain, have led me to the inference that our mercantile community *still* need a concise, *self-instructing*, and practical treatise on the subject of book-keeping; comprising, amongst other particulars, all *possible* cases in partnerships and their dissolutions. Under such an impression, I propose to undertake the effort; in which, shall I have the mortification to fail, I shall then console myself with the cheering reflection that I meant no evil; that I contemplated good; and that I fought the battle, though I missed the victory.

In conclusion, I admit that a communication, signed "F. L. R.," from Baltimore, just received, has given the solution to the question—a slight discrepancy excepted; namely, that of his having substituted, for the appropriate and indispensable title *stock*, the name of the *acting* merchant. This practice, for various reasons, not *now* necessary to be discussed, is founded on an incorrect and injudicious view of the nature of debtor and creditor; as, on some future occasion, I shall show. "D. R.," of 262 Broadway, has given a true solution; so has "E. L. H."

I am, sir, very respectfully,

Your obliged and obedient servant,

J. W. WRIGHT.

JOURNAL.		DAY-BOOK.	
		MAY 1, 1844.	
DRS.			
Stock, (for what I owe,)....	\$5,000 00	Borrowed from John Goodman,....	\$5,000 00
Cash,.....	5,000 00		
	\$10,000 00		
CRS.			
J. Goodman,.....	\$5,000 00		
Stock, (for what I possess,).....	5,000 00		
	\$10,000 00		
		MAY 5.	
DRS.			
Blue cloth in company,....	\$3,600 00	Bought, for cash, 20 pieces blue cloth, at \$100 per piece. Put them into company with Caleb W., who advances 16 pieces. Our stock not to be increased; each partner to share <i>equally</i> in the gain or loss during trade. I, as manager, to receive 5 per cent on the sales,.....	\$3,800 00
Caleb W.,.....	200 00		
	\$3,800 00		
CRS.			
Cash,.....	\$2,000 00		
Caleb W.,.....	1,800 00		
	\$3,800 00		
		MAY 8.	
DR.			
Cash,.....	\$640 00	Sold, for cash, 8 pieces of blue cloth in company, at \$80 pr. piece,	\$640 00
CR.			
Blue cloth in company,.....	\$640 00		
		MAY 12.	
DRS.			
Blue cloth, <i>proper</i> ,.....	\$1,400 00	Dissolved partnership with Caleb W., and divided the unsold blue cloth <i>equally</i> between us. He takes 14 pcs. at cost, equal to \$1,400 00 I take to my own account 14 pieces, . 1,400 00 My commission on \$640, (the sales,) . 32 00 The gross loss on the sales is..... 160 00	\$2,992 00
Caleb W., for his part, and half loss,.....	1,496 00		
Profit and loss for my loss, .	96 00		
	\$2,992 00		
CRS.			
Blue cloth in company, for am't drawn out, and loss,.....	\$2,960 00		
Commission,.....	32 00		
	\$2,992 00		
		MAY 15.	
DR.			
J. Goodman,.....	\$2,000 00	Sent, by order of J. Goodman, linen bought for cash, to the amount of..... \$1,931 22	
CRS.		Paid for charges, at shipping,..... 20 00	
Cash,.....	\$1,951 22		
Commission,.....	48 78		
		My com., at 2½ p. ct., 48 78	
			\$2,000 00

LEGER.

1844. DR. STOCK,			1844. CONTRA CR.		
May 1.	To sundries, for what I owe, .....	\$5,000 00	May 1.	By sundries, for what I possess, .....	\$5,000 00
	To profit and loss, for my nett loss in trade,	15 22		By balance for decrease in capital, .....	15 22
		\$5,015 22			\$5,015 22
DR. CASH,			CONTRA CR.		
May 1.	To sundries, .....	\$5,000 00	May 5.	By sundries, paid for blue cloth, .....	\$2,000 00
" 8.	To cloth in company, ..	640 00	" 15.	By J. Goodman, for linen, &c., .....	1,951 22
		\$5,640 00		By balance on hands, ..	1,688 78
					\$5,640 00
DR. J. GOODMAN,			CONTRA CR.		
May 15.	To sundries, for amount linen, &c., .....	\$2,000 00	May 1.	By sundries, borrowed from you, .....	\$5,000 00
	To balance due to you,	3,000 00			\$5,000 00
		\$5,000 00			
DR. BLUE CLOTH IN CO.			CONTRA CR.		
May 5.	To sundries, for. pcs. 36	\$3,600 00	May 8.	By cash, sold... pcs. 8	\$640 00
	36	\$3,600 00	" 12.	By sund. drawn out, and loss on part sold, " 28	2,960 00
				36	\$3,600 00
DR. CALEB W.,			CONTRA CR.		
May 5.	To sundries, for 2 pcs. blue cloth, at \$100 per piece, .....	\$200 00	May 5.	By sundries, for your half of 36 pcs. broad-cloth, at \$100 per piece, .....	\$1,800 00
May 12.	To sundries, for 14 pcs. blue cl'th, & your loss,	1,496 00			\$1,800 00
	To balance due to you,	104 00			
		\$1,800 00			
DR. BL. CL'TH (proper),			CONTRA CR.		
May 12.	To sundries, for. pcs. 14	\$1,400 00		By balance on hands, .....	\$1,400 00
	14	\$1,400 00		14	\$1,400 00
DR. PROFIT AND LOSS,			CONTRA CR.		
May 12.	To sundries, lost on blue cloth, .....	\$96 00		By commission, .....	\$80 78
		\$96 00		By stock lost in trade, ..	15 22
					\$96 00
DR. COMMISSION,			CONTRA CR.		
	To profit and loss, .....	\$80 78	May 12.	By sundries, gained on blue cl'th in company,	\$32 00
		\$80 78	" 15.	By J. Goodman, on linen, &c., .....	48 78
					\$80 78
DR. BALANCE,			CONTRA CR.		
	To cash, .....	\$1,688 78		By J. Goodman, .....	\$3,000 00
	To blue cloth (proper) on hands, .....	1,400 00		By Caleb W., .....	104 00
	To st'ck for decr. in cap.	15 22			\$3,104 00
		\$3,104 00			

## THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Parker's Semaphoric Signal Book, in Three Parts; containing the Marine Telegraph Code of Signals, with the Appendix; the United States Telegraph Vocabulary, embracing Marryatt's New Code of Signal Numbers, as adopted by the British, French, Spanish, Dutch, American, and European Merchant Vessels, and adopted at Lloyd's Coffee-House, London, and used by the Liverpool and Holyhead Line of Telegraphs. To which is annexed, The Names of Two Thousand sail of American Vessels, who are supplied with the Marine Telegraph Flags, designating Telegraph Numbers and Signal Books; among whom are included the Government Vessels of War, and Revenue Cutters.* Third edition. By JOHN R. PARKER, Sole Proprietor. New York: 1844.

Mr. Parker's copious title-page, which we have quoted entire, sufficiently indicates the design of this volume. The subject is one of great importance to the mercantile interest of New York; and, indeed, of the United States. The system of Mr. Parker has long been in successful operation in Boston, and several other ports in the United States, and has given entire satisfaction to all concerned. The author has devoted more than twenty years to the subject, and the result of his time and labor is such as to command for it the universal acceptance and adoption of the entire commercial community. We have published, in a former part of this Magazine, a paper on the subject, from one who thoroughly understands the whole system; which we commend to the notice of all concerned in an enterprise which has for its object the preservation of life and property—interests that are too highly appreciated in this community to require the enforcement of the periodical press. We are quite sure that Mr. Parker will meet with a hearty response from the intelligent merchants of New York, to whom we most cordially commend him, and his invaluable system.

- 2.—*The Literary Remains of the Rev. Jonathan Maxcy, D. D., Second President of Brown University, R. I., late President of Union College, N. Y., and of the South Carolina College. With a Memoir of his Life.* By ROMEO ELTON, D. D. New York: A. V. Blake.

The writings of Dr. Maxcy, embraced in the present volume, are surpassed by few in intrinsic excellence and value, and must take an elevated rank among the productions of American literature. "The intelligent and cultivated reader will perceive in them genius, a refined taste, beauty of imagery, and vigor of thought and diction. They breathe a liberal and catholic spirit, resulting from deep piety, and high mental endowments. In the language of his biographer, "he could not substitute the Shibboleth of a party in the place of love to God, and the practical exhibition of the Christian virtues." The volume consists principally of sermons, and orations or addresses delivered before literary and classical associations; and discusses subjects of vital interest with great force, ability, and clearness.

- 3.—*Biographical, Literary, and Philosophical Essays, contributed to the Eclectic Review.* By JOHN FOSTER, author of "Essays on Decision of Character, Popular Ignorance, and Christian Morals." 12mo., pp. 448. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This handsomely printed volume contains twenty, selected out of fifty-nine, critical articles of the author, originally published in the London Critical Review, and recently collected and published in England, in two octavo volumes. The papers embraced in the present volume were selected with reference to the diversity and interest of the topics, their congeniality to American readers, and as exemplifying the mental and moral characteristics of their renowned author. In all the higher and more permanent qualities of intellect, in their largeness of view, penetrating subtlety of thought, deep insight into human nature, and sympathy with the nobler and more lofty forms of spiritual experience, these essays will be found eminently worthy of their author, and subservient to his permanent repute.

- 4.—*Practical Sermons for every Sunday, and Principal Holiday in the Year.* By the Rev. CHARLES BRADLEY, Vicar of Glasbury, &c. First American, from the last London edition. 8vo., pp. 288. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This collection of sermons has passed through seven editions in England, and enjoyed a popularity with orthodox Christians, of different denominations, rarely bestowed on similar publications. We notice, also, appended to the volume, the recommendations of such men as Bishops M'Ilvaine and Hopkins, Dr. Milner, the Rev. E. W. Kirk, of the Presbyterian denomination; Rev. Dr. Williams, of the Baptist; Dr. Peck, of the Methodist, and many others, equally distinguished as popular theologians. The Rev. Dr. Sprague, of Albany, one of the best writers in the denomination to which he belongs, says—"They are characterised by great simplicity and perspicuity, by deeply evangelical views, and by a fervor and unction, which render them alike attractive and impressive."

- 5.—*Life and Eloquence of the Rev. Sylvester Larned, First Pastor of the First Presbyterian Church in New Orleans.* By A. R. GURLEY, New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Besides the well written and sensible memoir of Larned, this handsomely printed duodecimo of 400 pages contains a selection from his pulpit eloquence, consisting of thirty-three discourses of religion. "No minister of the same age," says the biographer, "has ever, at least in this country, left deeper impressions of his eloquence;" and, however any may dissent from the views inculcated, it must be admitted that the sermons comprised in the present volume are worthy of critical examination and study, by those who would combine in their sermons ease and elevation, with simplicity and energy. By the lay members of the Presbyterian Church, generally, we presume they will be read for higher ends—that in them their author will continue, though dead, to speak with interest and power.

- 6.—*Lectures on the Institution of the Sabbath.* By JOHN S. STONE, D. D. New York: A. V. Blake.

This elegantly printed volume takes the orthodox view of the institution of the Sabbath. Dr. Stone discusses, in a course of eight lectures, the objections and proof of its early institution; and adduces, in the three first, arguments in favor of its perpetual and universal obligation. The fourth exhibits the argument for the change of the Sabbath from the seventh to the first day of the week. In the fifth, sixth, and seventh, the duties, benefits, and the sinfulness of its violation, are considered; and the author concludes, in the eighth, by urging measures for the proper sanctification of the day.

- 7.—*The Land of Israel, according to the Covenant with Abraham, with Isaac, and with Jacob.* By ALEXANDER KEITH, D. D., author of the "Evidences of Prophecy," "Demonstrations of the Christian Religion," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume will be read with profit by all who view with interest the prophetic, or historical part of the Bible. It embraces interesting retrospective and prospective sketches of Judea and Judaism, and may be considered as in part a sequel to Dr. K.'s treatise on the Evidence of Prophecy, besides forming an introduction to other scriptural topics, of momentous import to Gentiles, as well as Jews. It has numerous maps, and engravings illustrating scenes, scenery, and events in the history of the land of Israel.

- 8.—*Leisure Hours. A Choice Collection of Readings in Prose.* By Professor E. A. ANDREWS. New and illustrated edition. 12mo., pp. 340. Boston: T. H. Carter.

Here are thirty-seven tales or essays, selected with taste and judgment, from various English publications, which have either never been published in this country, or have but a very limited circulation. As a companion for leisure hours, the family circle, or which may accompany the reader, while travelling by land or water—go with him when he flies from the heat, and mire and dust of the city, to the pure air, and refreshing shade, and quiet enjoyments of the country, we know not a more delightful or pleasant companion; except, indeed, some loved and gentle being, whose soul is radiated with just such thoughts and feelings as are expressed in almost every page of this excellent work.



9.—*The French Importer's Ready Calculator; for the use of Importers and Dealers in French Goods, Custom-Houses, Exchange Brokers, and others, who have occasion to use French Measures or Currency.* By WILLIAM WARD. New York: J. S. Redfield.

It will perhaps be recollected that we noticed the proposals of Mr. Ward for publishing this work, in the August number of this Magazine, and gave a brief synopsis of the plan. A careful and minute examination of a copy of it, now before us, has satisfied us of its great utility to all persons interested in the French trade, or who may have occasion to use French measures or currency. It contains eight tables, which exhibit the amount per cent to add to original cost of goods, to determine their nett, or actual cost to the importer; the method of arriving at the cost per cent of importing; francs per metre reduced to dollars per yard, with advance per cents; francs per aune reduced to dollars per yard, with advance per cents; francs reduced to dollars, with advance per cents; francs reduced to dollars, from 1 to 1,000,000; metres reduced to yards, from 1 to 100; and aunes reduced to yards, from 1 to 100. The work has been examined and approved by many of the first French houses in New York, and may be implicitly relied on for its entire accuracy. It is handsomely printed, and neatly and substantially bound.

10.—*The Whole Works of Robert Leighton, D. D., Archbishop of Glasgow. To which is prefixed, A Life of the Author.* By JOHN NORMAN PEARSON, M. A., of Trinity College, Cambridge. Svo., pp. 800. New York: J. C. Riker.

This is not only the first edition of the literary remains of Archbishop Leighton, ever published in this country, but the most perfect and complete that has been brought together in one volume. Two editions, we are informed by the American editor, (one published in London, in 1835, and the other in Edinburgh, in 1840,) were designated as the most approved standards. It was found, however, that the former comprised materials which were not inserted in the latter, and the Edinburgh included some articles not comprised in the English copy. The American copy before us combines the whole, found in both series. Besides this, one of our most critical and careful divines has prepared a table of the texts of scripture, and an index of the subjects, which altogether renders this as complete and perfect as could be desired. Leighton's exposition of the first epistle of Peter, which occupies three hundred and fifty pages of the volume, much enhances the value of the work; of which it has been pronounced, "that an expository work upon any portion of the sacred volume cannot be named, which, for exalted devotion, and richness of evangelical sentiment, equals the annotations of Leighton."

11.—*Illustrated Astronomy. A Pictorial Display of the Astronomical Phenomena of the Universe.* With sixty-three colored plates, illustrating a series of Familiar Discourses in Astronomy. Royal 16mo. New York: R. W. Barnard & Co.

We have, in this handsome volume, a concise and practical treatise descriptive of astronomy, accompanied by accurate illustrative plates, neatly colored. The prominent features of the present work are the novelty and simplicity of the plan, and the elegance of its execution. A careful examination of its arrangements has convinced us of its fitness to impart a clear and comprehensive knowledge of a science which, perhaps, more emphatically than any other, "declares the glory of God." Well might the poet exclaim, in the contemplation of the holy scripture of the heavens, "The undevout astronomer is mad!"

12.—*The Ingoldsby Legends; or, Mirth and Marvels.* By THOMAS INGOLDSBY, Esq. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Horne, in his "New Spirit of the Age," declares that "Ingoldsby Legends" surpass in freedom, and melody of comic versification, and in the originality of compound rhymes, everything that has appeared since the days of Hudibras and Peter Pindar. The present edition is very handsomely printed, and illustrated with eight of Cruikshank's inimitable designs.

- 13.—*The Hawthorn; A Christmas and New Year's Present, for 1845.* New York: J. C. Riker.

The statement that Mrs. Childs, Mrs. Sigourney, Miss Leslie, and Mrs. Hughes, have contributed chiefly to the pages of this handsome volume, will perhaps give a better idea of its character, than anything we could say in the necessary limited space allotted to our descriptive, rather than critical notices of new works. The agreeable narrative, tale, or poem, is here made subservient to truth and goodness; so that those who take up the book for mere amusement will scarcely lay it down without the innocent gratification of their taste; and, what is of far higher importance, the desire of appropriating the goodness of heart and purity of life that gently breathes from every page.

- 14.—*The Rose, or Affection's Gift, for 1845.* Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. Illustrated with ten highly finished steel engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The present volume of this agreeable little annual, which has been continued several years, well sustains its character. Its literary department is supported by the productions, original and selected, of well known and favorite authors; and the pencil of the artist, and the burin of the engraver, have lent their aid, as usual, to complete its excellence, which is of a more durable character than the transitory season it will contribute to render happy. It contains some fifty articles, in prose and verse, of varied length and interest, and ten pretty and appropriate illustrations.

- 15.—*The Keepsake; A Christmas, New Year's, and Birth-Day Present, for 1845.* Illustrated with ten steel plates. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the first issue of an American "Keepsake." The engravings are all neatly executed, and several of them are highly creditable specimens of the art. There are forty-two pieces, in prose and verse—tales, sketches, and poems—from well known and favorite writers. It is, on the whole, a volume worthy of the best days of annual literature—a volume in which the eye and the intellect will find equal gratification.

- 16.—*The Housekeeper's Annual, and Ladies' Register, for 1845.* Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

Besides the usual monthly calendar of the common almanac, this little manual, of about one hundred pages, contains matter calculated to amuse, as well as instruct. The numerous receipts for domestic cookery, and other household affairs, together with its beautiful external appearance, will, we doubt not, render it an agreeable companion for the parlor or the work-table.

- 17.—*Anecdotes of the American Revolution.* New York: Alexander V. Blake.

This little volume, one of an excellent series for family or district school libraries, consists of anecdotes illustrative of the men who figured, and the events that transpired, during the revolutionary struggle of this country. They were principally selected by a youth of twelve, and evince a discriminating judgment and taste that would be creditable to the experience and maturity of more advanced years.

- 18.—*The Beechen Tree. A Tale. Told in Rhyme.* By F. W. THOMAS, author of "Clinton Bradshaw," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

An interesting story, "told" in easy and graceful rhyme. It is beautifully printed, and forms a handsomely bound volume, of about one hundred pages.

- 19.—*Pocket Editions of Select Novels, without Abridgment. No. 3.—Tales of Glauber-Spa.* Two volumes in one. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The tales embraced in this volume were first published in 1832. They are eight in number; and when we say, for the information of those who have not read them, that they were written by Miss C. M. Sedgwick, Messrs. J. K. Paulding, W. C. Bryant, R. C. Sands, and William Leggett, we have said all that is necessary to the admirers of these favorite authors.

- 20.—*Elements of Logic, together with an Introductory View of Philosophy in General, and a Preliminary View of the Reason.* By HENRY P. TAPPAN. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The present treatise differs in its scope and design from the systems of logic which have hitherto been given to the world. It differs from the Aristotlian, which is simply the method of deduction; and as such, is incomplete. It appears to combine the important parts of Aristotle, Plato, and Bacon; to make out the system of logic under its several departments, and present it not merely as a method of establishing or obtaining inferences from truths, but also as a method of establishing those first truths and general principles which must precede all deduction. Its arrangement is systematic; and, on the whole, is rendered clear and comprehensive.

- 21.—*Puss in Boots, and the Marquis of Carabas.* A pure Translation from the original German, illustrated with twelve original designs by Otto Speckler, engraved by Lossing. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

An elegant little volume, that will amuse, if it does not instruct. The designs are capital, and the execution of the work decidedly the best we have ever seen in books for children.

- 22.—*Christ's Warning to the Churches, with an Appendix on the Apostolic Succession.* By JOSEPH LATHROP, D. D. With an Introductory Notice, by the Rev. J. M. WAINRIGHT, D. D. New York: Alexander V. Blake.

This is one of the many works of the past, reproduced to satisfy the demand of the times in the matter of Episcopacy vs. Congregationalism, and will doubtless be read with interest by both parties.

WORKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

- 1.—*Woman, as Virgin, Wife, and Mother; An Epitome of Social Duties and Domestic Enjoyments.* By the Rev. JOSIAH COLTON, D. D. New York: Wilson & Co.
- 2.—*Letter-Writing Simplified by Precept and Example, embracing Practical Illustrations of Epistolary Correspondence of every Age, Degree, and Station of Life.* New York: Wilson & Co.
- 3.—*The Mother's Medical Adviser, on the Diseases and Management of Children. With Recipes.* By THOMAS WAKLEY, M. P., Editor of the "London Lancet." New York: Wilson & Co.
- 4.—*Rambleton: A Romance of Fashionable Life in New York, during the Great Speculation of 1836.* By SEATSFIELD. Translated from the German. New York: J. Winchester. [To be completed in six parts, of 72 pages each.]
- 5.—*Evenings of a Workingman; being the Occupations of his Scanty Leisure.* By JOHN OVERS. With a Preface relative to the Author. By CHARLES DICKENS. New York: J. Winchester.
- 6.—*Mary Schneider, the Amber-Witch.* Translated from the German. By Lady DUFF GORDON. New York: J. Winchester.

NEW BRIGHTON COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.

A description of the location, discipline, studies, terms, &c., of this institution, will be found on the opposite page, in the advertising department of the Magazine. Of Mr. Le Row, the Principal, we can speak from personal knowledge; and we are sure that the experience of all parents who have placed their children under his tuition, will unite with us in the opinion we now express, of his eminent qualifications as a teacher of youth; the best evidence of which is afforded in the progress so uniformly made by the pupils under his charge. The assistants in the several departments of collegiate and commercial education, are men of superior learning, and correct morals; and take a deep interest in the cause of education, generally. So high is our opinion of the peculiar advantages to be derived at this school, that, after visiting numerous similar establishments in New York and New England, we were induced, from the highest considerations, to give the preference to the Collegiate School of Mr. Le Row, at New Brighton, where we have placed an only son. It will be seen, by the advertisement, that flogging constitutes no part of the discipline; a fact that speaks volumes for the wisdom and capacity of the worthy Principal.