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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1844.

ART. I.—GERMANY, AND THE COMMERCIAL TREATY OF BERLIN.

WE think that the great commercial union of the German states, which, in a very short space of time, has wrought among them a reform amounting to revolution, merits a more particular study from our citizens than it has yet generally obtained; and this, as well on account of the resemblance of many of its features to those of our own confederation, as of the relation to it in which we at present stand. Perhaps a few remarks on our part may serve to direct the attention of some to this subject. We will make them without further introduction.

Half a generation ago, only, the schoolboy who was studying his map of what is named Germany, seeing a number of blotches of every shape, size and color, dotted over it from one end to the other, blue, green, red, white and yellow, many times repeated, all numbered, with reference to the margin; because their diminutive size rendered it impossible otherwise to indicate their names; was taught to his astonishment, that each of them represented a sovereignty, or fragment of one, as selfishly independent of its neighbors as though it were one of the first of first rate powers. The traveller in Germany too, was taught the distinct supremacy of each state he visited, more forcibly than the school boy. At the present time, such a one, when he is journeying along through what seems to him to be one and the same country, inhabited by one and the same people, is told often when he can discern no natural boundary even by stretch of imagination, by his merely meeting a boundary post or two, painted differently from the last that he passed by—by meeting differently dressed soldiers and a different assortment of colors for the national flag, that he has changed by one revolution of the wheels of his post chaise, the government, constitution, laws and monarch under whom he lives; he may even by possibility be thus called upon to observe that he has gone from one of the Saxons to a bit of Prussia, Prussia to some of the Hesses, and Hesse to another part of Saxony again, in the course of an hour's drive in one direction, straightforward as the crow flies; then, however, the experi-

ence did not end here with him. He found no single attribute of sovereignty wanting in the smallest of the territories through which he passed. Above all, was he called upon to recognize the existence of that right of independent governments, which consists in the offering of constant annoying impediments to the change of place of man and merchandize. At the crossing of any one of the many Mason & Dixon's lines which divide the territory of one state from that of its neighbors, he was stopped and made to undergo a rigid examination of his person and effects, nor was he permitted to travel onward, before making disbursements for the affixing of certain endorsements to his passport, and for the payment of duties of export and import on his baggage, to certain government police or custom house officers, authorized to receive, or help themselves to the same.

Unnatural, indeed, was this condition of things, and grievous were the consequences also, resulting from it. The self-isolating sort of independence of each German state was detrimental in the highest degree to the just exchanges of commerce between them all. Many have no outlet for their surplus products, and no great channels for receiving their equivalent, but rivers which empty into the sea within the territory of other states. These latter had, consequently, the power of controlling, or even entirely putting a stop to their trade; and this power, although the perjurers of the holy alliance, expressly guaranteed to every subject of the old confederation, the right of freely navigating such rivers, some of them exercised with a most unsparring hand. The brigand barons of the Rhine in the old time were used to lie in wait like spiders watching for flies, ready to pounce upon the poor merchant whose boat passed by their fortress towers, and to either despoil him of all his goods, or commit upon him that partial kind of robbery, which consists in levying toll or custom; so, in our own civilized times was the same sort of wrong perpetrated by their successors, the princes of the empire by the grace of God, Metternich and Lord Castlereagh. All was grist that came to their mill. Scarce any thing that would bear a duty was exempted from it. Each state endeavored to overreach its neighbor by increasing its tariff; and, indeed, for many articles, made it amount to a prohibitory one. As must always happen in such cases, the tax thus imposed upon the merchant, fell upon the people at large, and ultimately, by diminishing his resources and revenues, upon the monarch himself. Commerce languished, and all industry with it, and the subject suffered without profit to his ruler. Besides, to the governments it was a great difficulty to raise these imposts. The similarity of language of the contiguous countries, the noble rivers which run through them, and the want of natural barriers between them—all elements of strength to a people united—disunited, was their weakness. Smuggling abounded, and the immoralities consequent upon it. To suppress this, as far as possible, an army of custom house officers was found necessary, and these, while they devoured the substance of the land, were, of course, so many taken away from the number of producers.

This artificial state of things might have been endured by the Germans, so long as they felt as aliens to one another; but this sort of feeling ceased before Leipzig and Waterloo; and since the pacification, up to our own day, all the tendency of their education has been to teach them, on the other hand, that they are brethren, who ought to prize and cultivate as something sacred, their relationship. All the thinkers of Germany have been given to discoursing upon this theme; and it has been

the fashion among them, in like manner, to deplore the disunion which fritters away the resources of their common land. When, therefore, the people, suffering directly in their existence of every day from the evils of disunion, failed not to discover its absolute needlessness, they very naturally turned the force of the existing active spirit of nationality, upon the actual grievance which oppressed them. Here was an example of the ill—an incarnation of the evil principle; here was an occasion for the application of the remedy. Men talked and wrote upon the matter, from one end of the country to the other, till the slow mind of the mass was moved. The disturbances in 1831, when an exasperated peasantry rose, somewhat like the Rebeccaites of Wales, last year, to destroy the custom houses, where were carried into effect the legalized robberies upon them, were put down by bloodshed and force of arms; but they showed that the burden had grown too oppressive to be any longer borne. It was evident to all who then looked on observingly, that some change must soon take place.

Prussia, the young monarchy of Europe, took the initiative, in availing herself of this disposition. She was governed at this time by an old man whose increasing years were teaching him increasing cautious forethought,—an old man who had been taught, by dear experience of misfortune, more wisdom than it usually falls to the lot of monarchs to possess. Through the want of co-operation of the German potentates, Frederick William had seen himself degraded and stripped of power, his people plundered, and his family insulted; and, on the other hand, he had seen his hated master, Bonaparte driven back to France, and himself disenthralled by the after union of themselves and subjects—reverses from which no fool could fail to draw the obvious lesson. He saw that his dominions were in detached portions separated from each other by intervening domain of other powers; he saw that his Rhenish provinces advanced like "*enfants perdus*" beyond the main body of his possessions, would be an easy prey to the next French invaders that crossed the castled river, and thoughts of the possible propagandist consequences of the revolution of 1830, whose shock in France vibrated throughout Eastern Europe, made him tremble; for he felt that of his own unassisted strength he was as little able to defend his kingdom as thirty years before. In view of continued peace, he might perhaps have thought it more favorable to the interests of despotism, that the detached arrows of the people's strength should not be bound together in one bundle, but in view of war, he saw in it his only hope of salvation. Accordingly, after some time spent in preparatory negotiations, in 1833, he formed a league with the only five Powers he could induce to join him, for the purpose of putting an end, as far at least as the instrumentality of each was concerned, to these evils; calling it the "*Zoll Verein*," or Toll Union. This was the nucleus of the present powerful association. It succeeded so well in attaining its designed object, that as its prosperity increased, other powers found it impossible to resist the wishes of their subjects, and the working of the lationary legislation which the associated states, in some cases, purposely directed against them. They were obliged one after another to give in their adhesion also, to it; and now, the Zoll Verein unites about two-thirds of all the German population.

These have reciprocally established a system of weights and measures, adjusted according to one approved unvarying standard.

A uniform coinage, which secures a uniform measure of value to all the people, and at the same time puts in circulation one coin to remind them that they are one nation.

Uniform commercial regulations as regards the intercourse of the states with stranger nations; a power being conferred upon the Senate which regulates the affairs of the Union, of making treaties with foreign powers binding upon the whole confederation, which enables them to bargain as buyers by wholesale, united in one firm, and not as heretofore, like petty retailers, striving to underbid each other.

Uniform duties of import, export and transit; and a kind of free trade and intercourse similar to that of our own blessed Union. The frontier states levy the duties agreed upon by the states in council, on merchandise coming from abroad, and the receipts are divided among all of them, in a strict rated proportion to the population of each. The frontier once passed, all goods except salt and playing cards, are free to move wherever their owner lists, many of the interior states having no customs' "cordon" whatever.

The effect of this action has been such as was to be expected from the importance of the enactments cited. The paper barriers which before imprisoned the German inhabitant within his own little precinct, have been entirely broken down, and he is now free to wander about and trade, in almost two-thirds of all the land in which his own tongue is spoken. A change has been given, in consequence, to the whole face of the country. Turnpikes and highways have been mended and widened. Twenty-one railroads, more than eleven hundred miles in length, draw near to each other distant places, separated by an extent of dry land. Steamboats run everywhere on the great rivers and their tributaries, and down them freely float to the ocean, as the Creator intended, the commodities produced in the countries watered by them. To all industry an impulse has been given. With commerce, agriculture and manufactures have received an increase of prosperity. The circulation of capital has been stimulated, the value of property increased.

Nor has the result of the union been, nor will the result of the union be, merely to effect the objects in its terms explicitly specified. The moral consequences are going to prove more important than the material. The lamentable divisions by which have been separated from each other the different parts of the joint country of Frederick and Gœthe, Kant and Leibnitz, are in every sense being healed. The states are no longer Saxo or Lippe this, that, or t'other, Reuss Greitzes, Reuss Schleitzes, or Reuss Lobenstein Ebersdorfs; little patches of territory isolated as if expressly to be successive mouthfuls for a devouring army. They still are called by these names, it is true, and still have the (mal-)administration of their governments, as to many serious matters, confided to little gambling princes and their mistresses, with little courts, little courtiers, and all manner of such expensive prettinesses. But all this has no foundation but "vieux parchemias," and the first storm will sweep it away. Not only the same coin, but the same ideas are circulating everywhere; not only different commodities, but different ideas are interchanged, not only enlightenment, but that other "vis" of the democracy, their sense of numbers, is increasing. All northern and south-western Germany, from the Alps to the Baltic, from the Danube to the Niemer and the Rhine, is becoming like

ourselves, one formed from many—one family of the children of one father land.

In the United States, we are generally unaware how self-relying and well to do a country is this Germany, so much has her condition improved since 1814. At that time, when the cruel wars that harrassed her were ended, and quiet restored, we know that she was dependant upon England for nearly all but the very coarsest manufactures she consumed. This is the case no longer. Thirty years of peace have done what Napoleon with his continental system, backed by all his legions and the united monarchs of the main of Europe, was unable to effect. The soldier generation has passed away, and in its place has grown up that of the mechanic, taught to manage other tools than bayonet, sword, or firelock, in the world's industrial war. At first importing English workmen and English machines—human and iron models, she has learned to produce many things cheaper than the country which furnished her teachers. Germany, (we mean the Germany of the League, for in that sense we must henceforth be understood to use the term and its derivatives,) is capable of raising more than double the quantity of corn necessary for the subsistence of her population, and consequently has a large number of surplus laborers to employ in manufactures. These are more sober, steady, economical and thrifty than the English workmen, and being better educated, are, nine cases out of ten, more intelligent. Her people's food costs them, too, less than the Englishman's, for there are no "corn laws" to enhance its natural just value, and their rents also less. It costs them less to erect their factories, for timber and stone are cheaper, as well as the hire of the carpenter and mason. Machinery, to be sure, costs them more, but a ridiculous law which forbade its export from England, has forced them to learn to make this, too, at a not very material advance of price. From these causes, it is plain that they must derive a great advantage over their competitors. The capitalist has seen this. His investment, no longer exposed to the hazards of war, he has laid out his money in the creation of manufactories and workshops in general, till they swarm in every eligible situation the country affords. So far, indeed, is Germany from being now dependant on Great Britain, that she is, on the contrary, driving her out of many of the foreign markets she was used to call most peculiarly her own. Germany's exports of manufactured cottons alone, have increased 360 per cent, in the seven years ending with 1839; that is to say, to an amount nearly equal to one-sixth of the whole product of Great Britain, and more than five times as great as she takes from that country.

Two of her most important manufactures, however, those of iron and steel, and cotton; the latter employing at the time of the last statement we have met with, 311,532 work people, are still dependant in a certain measure upon England. The former derives thence its chief supply of the raw material; the latter can not make itself its cotton yarn as cheaply as she can for it. In the production of this article, the countrymen of Arkwright, and the spinning jennies, are still superior to the rest of the world; and the Germans have so far found it more to their profit to import from them, in the form of twist, as it is called, four-fifths of the cotton they have been using.\* From this dependence they desire extremely to

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\* Thus, while the importation of loom fabrics from Great Britain diminished from 1832 to 1841, some £300,000 sterling in value, those of twist increased in the same time from £1,197,274 to £2,406,396, or more than double—so as to form nearly one-third the

free themselves. A natural dislike to being thus at the mercy of others, does much, doubtless, to produce this feeling. Its chief cause, however, is to be found in the fact, that Great Britain will not take their products to an at all corresponding extent in exchange. Corn and timber, their most important ones, she excludes by duties that may be called prohibitory; nor is she much more liberal in the admission of others. Such an unequal trade as this, ought not to continue, and Germany says that it shall not. The unfair privileges which her weakness granted, her strength refuses any longer. She has made remonstrances upon remonstrances to Great Britain; yet, though Germany is her best customer, better even lately than the United States, taking as she does seven millions and a half sterling annually of her exported manufactures, which is one-sixth of their entire amount, Great Britain thinks fit to turn a deaf ear to her complaints. Germany has been forced to retaliate in self defence. Already she has made her duty almost prohibitory for Great Britain's coarser kinds of cotton goods; nearly twenty-seven times as great as that upon twist, and quite recently has made an important increase for her mixed cotton and woolen stuffs. Still having failed to induce her to modify her tariff, Germany, wishing only justice, as is proved by her having offered to make direct concessions to the British government, if it would lower the duty on cotton velvets merely, at last says openly, like the old man to the apple stealers, that "if grass won't do, she must have recourse to stones," and declares her determination, come what may, to tax the unfair trader's chief exports to her; iron 33 per cent, and twist, \$1 38 each centner (113 19.50 lbs. nearly) more than at present, or cent per cent. This also seems to be without effect, no return having been made to it on the part of Great Britain but arrogant language, of which the Downing street despatch of the Earl of Aberdeen to Lord Westmoreland, that made its appearance not a great while ago in our newspapers, may be taken as a fair specimen. She abates none of her pretensions, refuses to do any justice, and instead, tries to bully Germany out of her purpose by obscure threats of retaliation and the Lord knows what. But in spite of Lord Aberdeen and his menaces, she will put it into execution. The enhancement of the duty on iron and steel will no doubt increase the cost of her manufactures of these articles; and candidly, we cannot but think her course, in this respect, though perfectly justifiable, unwise, since it may render her unable to sustain herself in her newly obtained markets; but, to spin her own cotton, will cost her but little, and that little the people are willing to pay. Her manufactories of twist have increased up to the present date with surprising rapidity; a sufficient proof of which is to be found in the fact, that her import of *raw* cotton increased 260 per cent in the seven years ending 1840; and the cotton spinners, having grown into an important and powerful interest, are strenuously "agitating" the question of having this tax laid in their favor.

Now, should the spinners obtain the increased protection proposed, should what we may call a rupture of friendly commercial intercourse

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amount of the total imports from thence. The average number of pounds weight of twist imported annually, on an average, of the three years, 1837, 1838, 1839, was 50,888,970 pounds; and if we account 70,000,000 pounds for the quantity of it consumed per annum, at present, which is stated to be the fact, and subtract from it one-fifth, the proportionate quantity manufactured at home, we may set down the annual import of the Zoll Verein at this time, as at least 56,000,000 pounds.

take place, as threatened, between Germany and Great Britain, this important fact is to be remarked; the former is thrown upon us to obtain her supply of cotton, and the English twist which she now imports at an annual cost of something like twelve million dollars, comes from the United States direct, as the raw material.

There can be no doubt that this probable course of trade was early foreseen by Germany, and that in view of it, the negotiations were entered into, which last spring at Washington were brought to such an untimely end. Great Britain sillily makes her manufacturer pay a duty on cotton, equal to about half a cent per pound, or seven per cent ad valorem, as prices go, thus giving to his German rival, of course, a virtual protection of seven per cent, provided he receives his cotton duty free. Germany is thus stimulated to an additional extent to endeavor to secure to herself a permanent supply of this article on the most advantageous terms, by approaching her commercial relations with the United States, and this, so great a benefit to ourselves, she counted upon accomplishing by the late treaty of Berlin.

Let us now say a few words about this instrument. We will be brief; purposely confining our attention to a few of its features that we know with certainty, and to a few facts bearing upon its character and history, that are altogether incontrovertible.

By it, in the first place, we were to give to the Zoll Verein states, about \$270,000, in the remission of duties to that amount on the merchandize we import from them. But this was outweighed more than \$70,000 by those released in our favor on tobacco alone; so that if we had space to devote to this part of our subject, it would be easy to show a heavy balance on the credit side of our treasury books, as far as the lightening of imposts is concerned. Enough, however, of this small sort of argument.

By it, in the second place, we were to give to the Zoll Verein states, if we may judge from what is now sent us, a sale far near \$2,000,000 worth of articles their own manufacture. But, more than \$1,500,000 worth of these, are not manufactured at all in the United States, and therefore interfere with no existing interests on the part of our manufacturers. Subtract then, this sum from \$1,950,000, being the stated value of the manufactures annually imported by us, and we have a remainder of less than \$500,000.

The sum of which, to recapitulate, amounts to pretty nearly this. We were to give, at our cost, to the states forming the Zoll Verein, all and simply, a market for a scant half million's worth of these fabrics in whose confection, they, by possibility, might have become our competitors. It will scarcely be believed by one who examines into this subject for the first time, that this is the whole of what the bugbear language of the committee of the senate calls the "extending to whole classes a large variety of articles comprehended in our tariff."

Yet, to compensate us for the sacrifice of buying this \$500,000 worth of goods at the cheapest prices they are to be had for, the states of the Customs Union offered to open wide to us the gates of their market, and allow us to sell freely our national staples to at least twenty-eight millions of people!

The average value of our exports for the two years, ending September, 1842, was, of cotton, over \$50,000,000; rice, about \$2,000,000; to-

bacco, more than \$10,000,000. Well, they would have admitted our cotton, duty free, our rice, for which there is such an increasing demand in Germany, and our tobacco, almost so; the one paying about a cent a pound, the other, one cent a pound for leaf, one cent and a third for stems; and they would have let our lard, that excellent form in which we Yankees are learning to carry our corn, condensed in volume, to distant markets, come in at something like a cent a pound.

This is the first great concession, that, since the formation of our Union, we have been able to obtain in favor of our tobacco. The great neighbors of Zoll Verein Germany still continue wedded to their old policy of exclusion. At this moment, Austria is laying an impost upon it of near six cents, Russia, from twelve to twenty-five, and Great Britain of seventy-two cents a pound; while France expressly prohibits it, except when her "Regie" or government monopoly administration, finding its domestic and colonial supply deficient, condescends to buy some of it from us for its own use. For half a century we have been paying unearned wages to tobacco agents and other diplomatists of less humble title, but no greater efficiency. Mr. Wheaton is the first of our negotiators who has met with success. This is no doubt to be attributed to his enviable personal influence. His reputation abroad as a scholar, an author, and a jurist, is an honor to our country. Of no one is the society more courted, of no one are the opinions on matters of international law and political economy more respected. In the United States, we all heard with exultation of the sensation which his treatise on the right of search excited in the cabinets of Europe, but many of us were by it, first made to find out the name which he enjoys derived from other sources. It is to fall short of the truth, rather than otherwise, to say, that in our day, no man has stood so high as an American statesman. We are far from wishing to depreciate the greatness of Livingston, or to deny our tribute to his intrinsic worth; but it must be borne in mind that Mr. Wheaton has had a great advantage over him, in being for so long a period the representative of our nation at the Prussian court. We heard it said by a distinguished French journalist, at Paris, last winter, in exaggerated language, which, however, is truthful enough to express our meaning:—"You have many tourist members of Congress, and other similar transitory travelling diplomates, but Henry Wheaton is your only Minister Resident. He is the only one of your emissaries, except the venerable Beasley, of the Havre, from whom they tell us, in passing he it said, your representatives at this court always take their instruction, and whom forsooth, you only call consul—the only one who has lived long enough in the country to which he is accredited, to understand its laws, its customs, or its language, even."

Not to be led off from our subject into a puff, however. From 1838 to 1844, six entire years, this gentleman unweariedly labored to effect this one purpose. Of no opportunity which any vicissitude in the affairs of any one of the members of the Union, any particular conjuncture of circumstances offered, did he fail to avail himself. Aided by his intimate knowledge of German things, as well as great world questions, and by his elevated social position, he was enabled thus, to advantage, to press this subject upon the attention of the statesmen who manage the affairs of the Zoll Verein, and to convince them of what was their true interest. No other man living, we are persuaded, could have completed the nego-

tiation of the late treaty, obliged as he necessarily was, to contend against the intrigues and open opposition of adverse foreign powers.

Great Britain, that was foremost among these, was greatly displeased upon learning of its conclusion. She made angry diplomatic mention of it; and in a recent debate in the House of Commons, Sir Robert Peel went so far as to intimate that her British Majesty's Government did not recognize the right of the United States to confer favors on Germany, or any other nation, not shared to an equal extent by Great Britain.

We have, we think, stated already sufficient reasons to explain why this should be so; but one, the chiefest, still needs perhaps to be pointed out. In the event of Germany taking our agricultural produce in direct exchange for her own manufactures, it is too plain to need demonstration, that we would have taken these in preference to the manufactures of Great Britain, who does her best to exclude such agricultural produce, and thus she would have seen herself compelled, under pain of losing her trade with us, to abolish her present restrictive system. This action too, would have taken place to no trifling extent, on account of the magnitude of the market opened to us. The single item of tobacco is sufficient in this way to affect her interests to a most injurious extent. We conceive it impossible to form a just estimate, which would not appear extravagant, of the quantity which, under the treaty, we should have exported of it within a few years, when the large tracts of land at present devoted to its culture in Germany, would have ceased to compete with our own south and west. Still, it is not the quantity of tobacco which the Germans of the Zoll Verein alone, are capable of smoking, chewing, or snuffing, when prices may be reduced to them, from one end of the year to the other, which we have to consider. The contrabandist also, would have consumed his portion. Cotton fabrics, of no diminutive bulk are smuggled so largely into Austria, Russia and Poland, that substantial houses at Leipzig guarantee to carry them safely beyond the custom house lines of these countries, at rates varying from 10 to 12 per cent; and, certain it is, that Nicot's plant is more easily transported with secrecy than heavy tickings, or six cent shirtings. As for Austria, it is a notorious truth, that scarcely a shawl, glove, or French silk, that the Viennese wear, ever pays a cent of duty to her government; and, as for Russia, the starving Cossack douaniers by whom her dominions are belted round, are much too poorly paid to be able, for one moment, to resist the bribes of the men, who may offer to share with them their profit of \$1 50 on every round of segars, and 25 cents for the same weight of stemmed leaves. The cheap tobacco, once landed in the states of the Union, it goes from them to their neighbors as naturally as water runs to find its own level.

Great Britain, then, might well be displeased, as we have said. With the "German United States," for our allies, in the proud contest for the mercantile supremacy of continental Europe, in commerce and manufactures, on her own sea, and with her own iron, we would have surpassed her. But an American Senate has avenged the quarrel of that proud empire; and Prussia and her associates are well rebuked for their ill advised manifestations of friendship toward us.

It sickens and saddens us to talk of these things, when we think of the treaty's fate, and that we are but pronouncing its obituary. We have not said all that we intended about the rising greatness of the Zoll Verein Association. Only a few years will go by, before the twelve millions of

German Austria, and the three millions of Hanover, Oldenburgh, and Brunswick, will also form part of it, increasing its population to over forty-two millions, or more than that of any European power, save semi-Asiatic Russia. We had thought too, of many more facts to state, which bear upon the question of the treaty, particularly as to the manner in which our shipping interest would have been benefitted by the great carrying trade it would have opened to us; but, let all this pass.

One word only, more. Our ancestors came from England. The ancestors of our ancestors came from this same Germany. If England is to be called our *mother* country, then soberly and without jest, we must claim Germany for our maternal grandfather-land. We bear not its name, but we take our blood from it. And now, that the world is ceasing to be considered as left by God to his children, only that they may quarrel about the inheritance thereof, and shed each other's blood for its appropriation, shall we remain as a German calls it, "thus lonely in the wide bosom of the all, encased each of us in his transparent 'ice palace,' our brother visible in his, making signals and gesticulations to us, visible but unattainable." Shall we not embrace our relations and acknowledge them to be our kin?

Looking into futurity, are not those connections for our nation likely to be most profitable and permanent, which nature bids us to form? And of which of the three great countries of Europe, nearest us, can this be said, with most truthfulness, to be the fact?

France is not like us. Notwithstanding all that has happened to draw us near to her; although we have twice fought together against a common foe, although she gave us La Fayette, although we sheltered her exiles, no favoring legislation, no chain of events, no earnest and honest desire we have to do so, have been able to deceive us into the belief that her people are homogeneous with our own. We can admire her liberality of sentiment and her noble and generous impulses, but we cannot assimilate our people to hers, we cannot make them feel alike. They are, and ever must be to us, strangers, having to be sure, great claim to our esteem, respect and good will, but still strangers.

With England, conflicting interests, and the heart burnings of our sad quarrels, bid fair, for a long time, for family quarrels last the longest, says the proverb, to forbid any cordial union.

But, with Germany we obey the laws of nature in forming a heart and hand alliance. After the English, no people resemble our own like hers. We need not dwell upon their good qualities; upon their perseverance, their economy, their good-heartedness, their wholesome common sense, their admirable contentment, their sterling morality, the sound democratic instincts which seem to flow from this combination of good qualities, as their legitimate consequence. The commonwealth of Pennsylvania, at least, knows how they abound in those her invaluable citizens, the children of the elder branch of the Teuton family, who differ from her Anglo Saxon others, in having come to America direct, instead of via England. We were assured some time since, on good authority, that among the contemplated provisions of the treaty was one which stipulated that a very onerous tax, which is laid by many German governments on the effects of emigrants from home, should not be extended to those emigrating to the United States; thereby securing to us an increased number of them, and that too, from the more wealthy classes. Of this tie of Union, we

can only hint at the excellencies. Like many other admirable features of the rejected treaty, its very existence is matter of doubt, the Senate having hid it, and its evidence of their shame, from the public eye. I. L. K.

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ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE PRAIRIES.

THE commercial enterprise of the United States—a feature so peculiarly national—seems ever to be seeking new avenues for its development; not content with the ample range of its native soil, so exuberant and prolific in almost every species of natural wealth, it seeks not only the navigation of the seas, and the establishment of its marts in the several maritime ports of the civilized globe, but we find also a new class of hardy adventurers, daring the perils of the far-spreading prairies, those “land oceans” of the western world, and penetrating into the very core of our vast continent, hazarding their lives, heedless alike of maurauding Indians, and the various hardships and privations incident to such adventurous exploits. An energy of spirit so dauntless and invincible, unparalleled among the nations of the world, if we simply except the elder branches of the great Anglo-Saxon family, may well excite our admiration, and be deemed worthy of all emulation. The commercial achievements of the ancients, the people of Egypt, of Babylon, Palmyra, and other renowned cities of the East, must yield the palm to those of our own times. If the productive wealth of a nation is to be inferred from its mercantile skill and industry, to compute that of the United States, might prove no easy task; and if the prognosis of the future may be predicated from the past, the brilliant successes which, ultimately await us in the destinies of our vast republic, would also supply a theme no less delightful to contemplate, and a problem no less difficult of solution.

The recent appearance of Mr. Gregg’s valuable volumes, “*The Commerce of the Prairies*,”\* which we have perused with much satisfaction and interest, seems likely to impart a strong impulse to the public mind on the subject of which he treats; and as it falls strictly within the province of our journal, we propose to present our readers with some extracts from his entertaining pages, selecting those items of information most suitable to the character of our work, and which will, of course, prove most acceptable to our readers. Before, however, entering upon the statistics of the Santa Fe trade, it may not be amiss to take a brief glance at some of the interesting details with which his journal abounds. “A tour on the prairies,” says our author, is certainly a dangerous experiment for him who would live a quiet contented life among his friends and relations at home; not so dangerous to life or health, as prejudicial to his domestic habits. Those who live pent up in our large cities, know but little of the broad, unembarrassed freedom of the great western prairies. Viewing them from a snug fire-side, they seem crowded with dangers, labors and sufferings; but once upon them, and these appear to vanish and are soon forgotten.” So singularly evident was this in the experience of our enthusiastic tourist, that he confesses his passion for prairie-life he never ex-

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\* *Commerce of the Prairies*, or the Journal of a Santa Fe trader, during eight expeditions across the great western Prairies, and a residence of nearly nine years in Northern Mexico; with Engravings. By I. Gregg. 2 vols. New York: Henry G. Langley.

pects to survive; indulging his predilections for the companionship with the mustang and the buffalo, and fraternizing with the little prairie hogs, wild colts, and still wilder Indians, "the unconquered Sabæans" of the desert. It was this fondness for adventurous enterprize that induced Mr. Gregg to repeat his visits to New Mexico, and engage in eight successive trips across the western wilds; while but for the fascinations with which the first inspired him, and which was undertaken with the view of reinstating his impaired health, the pleasant and instructive volumes he has presented us, would have been lost to the world. From his extensive experience, therefore, no less than the scrupulous exactness of his details, Mr. Gregg's statements prefer the highest claims to our consideration. Cradled upon the confines of the prairies, he became familiar with the habits and features of prairie life, added to which, his subsequent intercourse with the traders, among whom he has been long a leading proprietor, and since a resident of about nine years in Santa Fe, are facts which necessarily give to his opinions and observations a high degree of authority. We can scarcely hope to impart to the reader with the freshness and vivid picturesqueness of the original record, a sketch of the incidents and progress of one of these trips; yet for the better appreciation of the subject, we propose to group a few together from his agreeable narrative. Mr. Gregg commences his work with brief historical notices of the progressive development of the Santa Fe trade with the United States, as follows:

"The overland trade between the United States and the northern provinces of Mexico, seems to have had no very definite origin; having been rather the result of accident than of any organized plan of commercial establishment. For a number of years its importance attracted no attention whatever. From Captain Pike's narrative we learn, that one James Pursley, after much wandering over the wild and then unexplored regions west of the Mississippi, finally fell in with some Indians on the Platte river, near its source in the Rocky Mountains; and obtaining information from them respecting the settlements of New Mexico, he set out in company with a party of these savages, and descended, in 1805, to Santa Fe, where he remained for several years—perhaps till his death. It does not appear, however, that he took with him any considerable amount of merchandise.

"Although Captain Pike speaks of Pursley as the first American that ever crossed the desert plains into the Spanish provinces, it is nevertheless related by the same writer, that, in consequence of information obtained by the trappers, through the Indians, relative to this isolated province, a merchant of Kaskaskia, named Morrison, had already dispatched, as early as 1804, a French Creole, by the name of La Lande, up Platte river, with directions to push his way into Santa Fe, if the passage was at all practicable. The ingenious emissary was perfectly successful in his enterprize; but the kind and generous treatment of the natives overcame at once his patriotism and his probity. He neither returned to his employer nor accounted for the proceeds of his adventure. His expansive intellect readily conceived the advantages of setting up in business for himself upon this "borrowed" capital; which he accordingly did, and remained there, not only unmolested, but honored and esteemed till his death, which occurred some fifteen or twenty years afterward—leaving a

large family, and sufficient property to entitle him to the fame of *rico* among his neighbors.

"The Santa Fe trade attracted very little notice, however, until the return of Captain Pike, whose exciting descriptions of the new El Dorado spread like wildfire throughout the western country. In 1812, an expedition was fitted out under the auspices of Messrs. McKnight, Beard, Chambers, and several others, (in all about a dozen,) who, following the directions of Captain Pike across the dreary western wilds, finally succeeded in reaching Santa Fe in safety. But these new adventurers were destined to experience trials and disappointments of which they had formed no conception. Believing that the declaration of Independence by Hidalgo, in 1810, had completely removed those injurious restrictions which had hitherto rendered all foreign intercourse, except by special permission from the Spanish Government, illegal, they were wholly unprepared to encounter the embarrassments with which despotism and tyranny invariably obstruct the path of the stranger. They were doubtless ignorant that the patriotic chief Hidalgo had already been arrested and executed, that the royalists had once more regained the ascendancy, and that all foreigners, but particularly Americans, were now viewed with unusual suspicion. The result was that the luckless traders, immediately upon their arrival, were seized as spies, their goods and chattels confiscated, and themselves thrown into the *calabozos* of Chihuahua, where most of them were kept in rigorous confinement for the space of nine years; when the republican forces under Iturbide getting again in the ascendant, McKnight and his comrades were finally set at liberty. It is said that two of the party contrived, early in 1821, to return to the United States in a canoe, which they succeeded in forcing down the Canadian fork of the Arkansas. The stories promulgated by these men soon induced others to launch into the same field of enterprise, among whom was a merchant of Ohio, named Glenn, who, at the time, had an Indian trading-house near the mouth of the Verdigris river. Having taken the circuitous route up the Arkansas towards the mountains, this pioneer trader encountered a great deal of trouble and privation, but eventually reached Santa Fe with his little caravan, before the close of 1821, in perfect safety.

"During the same year, Captain Becknell, of Missouri, with four trusty companions went out to Santa Fe by the far western prairie route. This intrepid little band started from the vicinity of Franklin, with the original purpose of trading with the Iatan or Comanche Indians; but having fallen in accidentally with a party of Mexican rangers, when near the Mountains, they were easily prevailed upon to accompany them to the new emporium, where, notwithstanding the trifling amount of merchandise they were possessed of, they realized a very handsome profit. The fact is, that up to this date New Mexico had derived all her supplies from the Internal Provinces by the way of Vera Cruz; but at such exorbitant rates, that common calicoes, and even bleached and brown domestic goods, sold as high as two and three dollars per *vara* (or Spanish yard of thirty-three inches. Becknell returned to the United States alone the succeeding winter, leaving the rest of his company at Santa Fe.

"The favorable reports brought by the enterprising captain, stimulated others to embark in the trade; and early in the following May, Colonel Cooper and sons, from the same neighborhood, accompanied by several others, (their whole number about fifteen,) set out with four or five thou-

sand dollars' worth of goods, which they transported upon pack-horses. They steered directly for Taos, where they arrived without any remarkable occurrence.

"The next effort of Captain Becknell was attended with very different success. With a company amounting to near thirty men, and perhaps five thousand dollars' worth of goods of various descriptions, he started from Missouri, about a month after Colonel Cooper. Being an excellent woodsman, and anxious to avoid the circuitous route of the Upper Arkansas country, he resolved this time, after having reached that point on the Arkansas river since known as the "Caches," to steer more directly for Santa Fe, entertaining little or no suspicion of the terrible trials which awaited him across the pathless desert. With no other guide but the starry heavens, and, it may be, a pocket-compass, the party embarked upon the arid plains which extended far and wide before them to the Cimarron river.

"The adventurous band pursued their forward course without being able to procure any water, except from the scanty supply they carried in their canteens. As this source of relief was completely exhausted after two days' march, the sufferings of both men and beasts had driven them almost to distraction. The forlorn band were at last reduced to the cruel necessity of killing their dogs, and cutting off the ears of their mules, in the vain hope of assuaging their burning thirst with the hot blood. This only served to irritate the parched palates, and madden the senses of the sufferers. Frantic with despair, in prospect of the horrible death which now stared them in the face, they scattered in every direction in search of that element which they had left behind them in such abundance, but without success.

"Frequently led astray by the deceptive glimmer of the mirage, or false ponds, as those treacherous oases of the desert are called, and not suspecting (as was really the case) that they had already arrived near the banks of the Cimarron, they resolved to retrace their steps to the Arkansas. But they now were no longer equal to the task, and would undoubtedly have perished in those arid regions, had not a buffalo, fresh from the river's side, and with a stomach distended with water, been discovered by some of the party, just as the last rays of hope were receding from their vision. The hapless intruder was immediately dispatched, and an invigorating draught procured from its stomach. I have since heard one of the parties to that expedition declare, that nothing ever passed his lips which gave him such exquisite delight as his first draught of that filthy beverage.

"This providential relief enabled some of the strongest men of the party to reach the river, where they filled their canteens, and then hurried back to the assistance of their comrades, many of whom they found prostrate on the ground, and incapable of further exertion. By degrees, however, they were all enabled to resume their journey; and following the course of the Arkansas for several days, thereby avoiding the arid regions which had occasioned them so much suffering, they succeeded in reaching Taos, (sixty or seventy miles north of Santa Fe,) without further difficulty. Although travellers have since suffered excessively with thirst upon the same desert, yet, having become better acquainted with the topography of the country, no other equally thrilling incidents have subsequently transpired.

"It is from this period—the year 1822—that the virtual commence-

ment of the Santa Fe Trade may be dated. The next remarkable era in its history is the first attempt to introduce wagons in these expeditions. This was made in 1824 by a company of traders, about eighty in number, among whom were several gentlemen of intelligence from Missouri, who contributed, by their superior skill and undaunted energy, to render the enterprise completely successful. A portion of this company employed pack mules: among the rest were owned twenty-five wheeled vehicles, of which one or two were stout road-wagons, two were carts, and the rest Dearborn carriages—the whole conveying some \$25,000 or \$30,000 worth of merchandise. Colonel Marmaduke, the present lieutenant governor of Missouri, having formed one of the party, has been pleased to place his diary of that eventful journey at my disposal; but want of space necessarily compels me to pass over the many interesting and exciting incidents which it contains. Suffice it to say, that the caravan reached Santa Fe with much less difficulty than must have been anticipated from a first experiment with wheeled vehicles. The route, indeed, appears to have presented fewer obstacles than any ordinary road of equal length in the United States.

“It was not until several years after this experiment, however, that adventurers, with large capital, began seriously to embark in the Santa Fe trade. The early traders having but seldom experienced any molestations from the Indians, generally crossed the plains in detached bands, each individual rarely carrying more than two or three hundred dollars' worth of stock. This peaceful season, however, did not last very long; and it is greatly to be feared that the traders were not always innocent of having instigated the savage hostilities that ensued in after years. Many seemed to forget the wholesome precept, that they should not be savages themselves because they dealt with savages. Instead of cultivating friendly feelings with those few who remained peaceful and honest, there was an occasional one always disposed to kill, even in cold blood, every Indian that fell into their power, merely because some of the tribe had committed some outrage either against themselves or their friends.

“Since the commencement of this trade, returning parties have performed the homeward journey across the plains with the proceeds of their enterprise, partly in specie, and partly in furs, buffalo rugs and animals. Occasionally, these straggling bands would be set upon by marauding Indians, but if well armed and of resolute spirit, they found very little difficulty in persuading the savages to let them pass unmolested; for, as Mr. Storrs very justly remarks, in his representation presented by Colonel Benton, in 1825, to the United States Senate, the Indians are always willing to compromise when they find that they cannot rob ‘without losing the lives of their warriors, which they hardly ever risk, unless for revenge or in open warfare.’

“The case was very different with those who through carelessness or recklessness ventured upon the wild prairies without a sufficient supply of arms. A story is told of a small band of twelve men, who, while encamped on the Cimarron river, in 1826, with but four serviceable guns between them, were visited by a party of Indians (believed to be Arrapahoes,) who made at first strong demonstrations of friendship and good will. Observing the defenceless condition of the traders, they went away, but soon returned about thirty strong, each provided with a *lazo* and all on foot. The chief then began by informing the Americans that

his men were tired of walking, and must have horses. Thinking it folly to offer any resistance, the terrified traders told them if one animal apiece would satisfy them, to go and catch them. This they soon did; but finding their requests so easily complied with, the Indians held a little parley together, which resulted in a new demand for more—they must have two apiece. 'Well, catch them!' was the acquiescent reply of the unfortunate band—upon which the savages mounted those they had already secured, and, swinging their lazos over their heads, plunged among the stock with a furious yell, and drove off the entire *caballada* of nearly five hundred head of horses, mules and asses.

"The fall of 1828 proved still more fatal to the traders on their homeward trip; for by this time the Indians had learned to form a correct estimate of the stock with which the return companies were generally provided. Two young men named McNees and Monroe, having carelessly lain down to sleep on the banks of a stream, since known as McNees's creek, were barbarously shot, with their own guns, as it was supposed, in very sight of the caravan. When their comrades came up, they found McNees lifeless, and the other almost expiring. In this state the latter was carried nearly forty miles to the Cimarron river, where he died, and was buried according to the custom of the Prairies.\*

"Just as the funeral ceremonies were about to be concluded, six or seven Indians appeared on the opposite side of the Cimarron. Some of the party proposed inviting them to a parley, while the rest, burning for revenge, evinced a desire to fire upon them at once. It is more than probable, however, that the Indians were not only innocent but ignorant of the outrage that had been committed, or they would hardly have ventured to approach the caravan. Being quick of perception, they very soon saw the belligerent attitude assumed by some of the company, and therefore wheeled round and attempted to escape. One shot was fired, which wounded a horse and brought the Indian to the ground, when he was instantly riddled with balls! Almost simultaneously another discharge of several guns followed, by which all the rest were either killed or mortally wounded, except one, who escaped to bear to his tribe the news of their dreadful catastrophe!

"These wanton cruelties had a most disastrous effect upon the prospects of the trade; for the exasperated children of the desert became more and more hostile to the 'pale faces,' against whom they continued to wage a cruel war for many successive years. In fact, this same party suffered very severely a few days afterwards. They were pursued by the enraged comrades of the slain savages to the Arkansas river, where they were robbed of nearly a thousand head of mules and horses. But the Indians were not yet satisfied. Having beset a company of about twenty men, who followed shortly after—they killed one of their number, and subsequently took from them all the animals they had in their possession. The unfortunate band were now not only compelled to advance on foot, but were even constrained to carry nearly a thousand dollars each upon their backs to the Arkansas river, where it was *cached*, (concealed in the

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\* These funerals are usually performed in a very summary manner. A grave is dug in a convenient spot, and the corpse, with no other shroud than its own clothes, and only a blanket for a coffin, is consigned to the earth. The grave is then usually filled up with stones or poles, as a safe-guard against the voracious wolves of the prairies.

ground,) till a conveyance was procured to transfer it to the United States.

"Such repeated and daring outrages induced the traders to petition the federal government for an escort of United States troops. The request having been granted, Major Riley, with three companies of infantry and one of riflemen, was ordered to accompany the caravan which left in the spring of 1829, as far as Chouteau's Island on the Arkansas river. Here the escort stopped, and the traders pursued their journey through the sand-hills beyond. They had hardly advanced six or seven miles, when a startling incident occurred which made them wish once more for the company of the gallant Major and his well-disciplined troops. A vanguard of three men, riding a few hundred yards ahead, had just dismounted for the purpose of satisfying their thirst, when a band of Kiawas, one of the most savage tribes that infest the western prairies, rushed upon them from the immense hillocks of sand which lay scattered in all directions. The three men sprang upon their animals, but two only who had horses were enabled to make their escape to the wagons; the third, a Mr. Lamme, who was unfortunately mounted upon a mule, was overtaken, slain and scalped before any one could come to his assistance. Somewhat alarmed at the boldness of the Indians, the traders dispatched an express to Major Riley, who immediately ordered his tents to be struck; and such was the rapidity of his movements, that when he appeared before the anxious caravan, every one was lost in astonishment. The reinforcement having arrived in the night, the enemy could have obtained no knowledge of the fact, and would no doubt have renewed the attack in the morning, when they would have received a wholesome lesson from the troops, had not the *reveille* been sounded through mistake, at which they precipitately retreated. The escort now continued with the company as far as Sand creek, when, perceiving no further signs of danger, they returned to the Arkansas, to await the return of the caravan in the ensuing fall.

"The position of Major Riley, on the Arkansas, was one of serious and continual danger. Scarce a day passed without his being subjected to some new annoyance from predatory Indians. The latter appeared, indeed, resolved to check all further concourse of the whites upon the prairies; and fearful of the terrible extremes to which their excesses might be carried, the traders continued to unite in single caravans during many years afterwards, for the sake of mutual protection. This escort under Major Riley, and one composed of about sixty dragoons, commanded by Captain Wharton, in 1834, constituted the only government protection ever afforded to the Santa Fe trade, until 1843, when large escorts under Captain Cook accompanied two different caravans as far as the Arkansas river."

Himself a valetudinarian, as already stated, our author had ample opportunities for testing the beneficial effects of the salubrious atmosphere of the prairies; which, together with the peculiarities of diet incident to prairie life and its regular exercise in the open air, effectually tended to reinstate his health; so that the "commerce of the prairies" offers other immunities beside those of large pecuniary emolument. The established post of debarkation is the town of Independence, situate about a dozen miles from the Indian border, and two or three south of the Missouri river. The caravans generally start in the month of May; the ordinary supplies for each person are usually as follows: about fifty pounds of flour,

as many of bacon, ten of coffee, and twenty of sugar, with a little salt, crackers, beans, &c.; the plentiful herds of buffalo to be met with throughout the journey affording an ample supply of fresh meat. The wagons are drawn by eight mules, or oxen, the former being now generally preferred on many accounts to the horse, except when occasionally used for hunting in the chase. Oxen have been found to retain their strength far beyond the mules in these expeditions, especially when they had to pass through muddy or sandy places, yet they fail when the grass becomes drier and shorter, and on this account, mules have been after all generally employed. It is usual for the traders at first to move off in detached parties, till they reach Council Grove, about ten days' journey, the rendezvous where they become organized into a general body or *caravan* for their mutual defence and security during the remainder of their journey. Travellers suffer more loss and annoyance from the straying of cattle during the first hundred miles, from the neglect in properly looking after them, than at any subsequent period; the frequent surprisals of the Indians rendering greater vigilance, in this respect, afterwards indispensably necessary. After leaving Council Grove, not a single human habitation—not even an Indian wigwam, it seems, greets the vision of the prairie adventurer. The name given to this spot is stated by Mr. Gregg to have resulted from the stipulated payment of some eight hundred dollars, in merchandize, having been paid to some bands of the Osages, in 1825, by the United States commissioners, Reeves, Sibley and Mathas, for ensuring the suspension of hostile invasion of these wild "sons of the soil" upon the traders to Santa Fe. Having entered the name of every member of the company, with the number of wagons, &c., and elected a captain for the command, with a lieutenant to its several divisions—a precaution essentially requisite, as these expeditions frequently number one hundred wagons, and a corresponding complement of men with their rifles, including some small mounted cannons, they proceed upon their travel, at the exhilarating cry "all's set," "catch up." They meet with buffalo and Indian in about the same latitude, but their welcome for the former is far more enthusiastic and sincere, for their stomachs' sake, than the latter, dauntless as they sometimes show themselves on the approach of the "ferocious foe." After a few encounters with the Indians, the party were surprised by the appearance of the grizzly bear, about which such exaggerated stories have been given by travellers. One of the company, a giant blacksmith, and general repairer of wagons, named Campbell, and who was, in short, the most appropriate subject for a regular grizzly-bear scrape, had laid himself down upon the shade of a bush, upon the brink of a precipice about ten feet high, was taking a comfortable snooze, while his companions were sporting in the neighborhood. During the chase, one of the young bears, which had been scared from its mother, was perceived loping down the trail towards the camp, apparently heedless of the company. Several of them seized their guns, and as it sprang across the ravine through a break near the spot where Campbell lay, they gave it a salute, which caused it to tumble back wounded into the branch, with a frightful yell. Campbell, being suddenly roused by the noise, says the narrator, started up with the rapidity of lightning, and tumbled over the precipice upon the bear. "Whaugh!" growled master bruin—"Murder!" screamed the giant—"Clinch it, Campbell, or you're gone!" exclaimed his comrades; for no one could venture to shoot for fear of kill-

ing the man. The latter, however, had no notion of closing clutches with his long-clawed antagonist, but busied himself in vain attempts to clamber up the steep bank; while the bear rising upon his hinder legs, and staring a moment at the huge frame of the blacksmith, soon made up his mind as to the expediency of "turning tail," and finally succeeded in making his escape, notwithstanding a volley of shot that were fired after him.

Mr. Gregg alludes more than once to those singular animals, the prairie-dog, and their habits of colonization. The prairie-dog bears some affinity with the marmot, especially so in their torpidity during winter; a collection of their burrows, in some cases extending over an area of several square miles, and amounting to some thousands in the same vicinity, has been not inaptly termed by travellers, "a dog-town." They seem to be remarkably social and domestic in their habits. "Approaching a village," says our author, "the little creatures may be observed frisking about the 'streets,' passing from one domicile to another, apparently on visits—sometimes a few clustered together as though in council—others brushing the little hillock about the door, or cleansing their 'houses'—but all quiet, except when a stranger approaches; when each streaks it to his home, while by shrill yelps they convey the note of alarm to the whole neighborhood. This done, they dart down into their deep burrows and are seen no more till the cause of their consternation has seemed to have disappeared." But to return to those portions of the work of a strictly commercial character; we shall subjoin the continuation of Mr. Gregg's statements on this subject.

"The Santa Fe trade, though more or less fluctuating from its origin, continued to present an average increase and growth down to the year 1831. During the same period, the prices of goods continued to go down in even a more rapid ratio. Since 1831, the rates of sales have continued steadily to fall to the latest period of the trade, although there has been no average increase in the number of adventurers, or amount of merchandize."

Some general statistics of the Santa Fe trade may prove not wholly without interest to the mercantile reader. With this view, Mr. Gregg prepared the following table of the probable amounts of merchandize invested in the Santa Fe trade, from 1822 to 1843 inclusive, and about the portion of the same transferred to the Southern markets (chiefly Chihuahua) during the same period; together with the approximate number of wagons, men and proprietors engaged each year. The table is not given as perfectly accurate, yet it is believed to be about as nearly so as any that could be made out at the present day. The column marked "Pro's." (Proprietors,) though even less precise than the other statistics, presents about the proportion of the whole number engaged each year who were owners. At first, as will be seen, almost every individual of each caravan was a proprietor, while of late the capital has been held by comparatively few hands. In 1843, the greater portion of the traders were New Mexicans, several of whom, during the three years previous, had embarked in this trade, of which they bid fair to secure a monopoly. The amount of merchandize transported to Santa Fe each year, is set down at its probable cost in the Eastern cities of the United States. Besides freights and insurance to Independence, there has been an annual investment, averaging nearly twenty-five per cent upon the cost of the stocks,

in wagons, teams, provisions, hire of hands, &c., for transportation across the prairies. A large portion of this remaining unconsumed, however, the ultimate loss on the outfit has not been more than half of the above amount. Instead of purchasing outfit, some traders prefer employing freighters, a number of whom are usually to be found on the frontier of Missouri, ready to transport goods to Santa Fe, at ten to twelve cents per pound. From thence to Chihuahua the price of freights is six to eight cents, upon mules, or in wagons. The average gross returns of the traders has rarely exceeded fifty per cent upon the cost of their merchandise, leaving a net profit of between twenty and forty per cent; though their profits have not unfrequently been under ten per cent; in fact, as has before been mentioned, their adventures have sometimes been losing speculations.

Years.	Amt. Mdse.	W'g's.	Men.	Pro's.	T'n to Ch'a.	Remarks.
1822,.....	15,000	....	70	60	.....	Pack animals only used.
1823,.....	12,000	....	50	30	.....	“ “
1824,.....	35,000	26	100	80	3,000	“ and wag'ns.
1825,.....	65,000	37	130	90	5,000	“ “
1826,.....	90,000	60	100	70	7,000	Wag'ns only, henceforth.
1827,.....	85,000	55	90	50	8,000	
1828,.....	150,000	100	200	80	20,000	3 men killed—(the first)
1829,.....	60,000	30	50	20	5,000	1st U. S. Es., 1 trader k'd.
1830,.....	120,000	70	140	60	20,000	First ox'n used by traders.
1831,.....	250,000	130	320	80	80,000	Two men killed.
1832,.....	140,000	70	150	40	50,000	} Party def'd on Canadian, } 2 men killed, 3 perished.
1833,.....	180,000	105	185	60	80,000	
1834,.....	150,000	80	160	50	70,000	2d U. S. Escort.
1835,.....	140,000	75	140	40	70,000	
1836,.....	130,000	70	135	35	60,000	
1837,.....	150,000	80	160	35	80,000	
1838,.....	90,000	50	100	20	40,000	
1839,.....	250,000	130	250	40	100,000	Arkansas expedition.
1840,.....	50,000	30	60	5	10,000	Chihuahua “
1841,.....	150,000	60	100	12	80,000	Texas Santa Fe exped.
1842,.....	160,000	70	120	15	90,000	
1843,.....	450,000	230	350	30	300,000	3d U. S. Es., ports closed.

“From 1831 to the present date, prices have scarcely averaged, for medium calicoes, thirty-seven cents, and for plain domestic cottons thirty-one cents per yard. Taking assortments round, 100 per cent upon United States costs were generally considered excellent sales: many stocks have been sold at a still lower rate. The average prices of Chihuahua are equally low, yet a brisker demand has rendered this the most agreeable and profitable branch of the trade.

“The first attempt to introduce American goods into the more southern markets of Mexico from Santa Fe, was made in the year 1824. The amounts were very small, however, till towards the year 1831. For a few of the first years, the traders were in the habit of conveying small lots to Sonora and California; but this branch of the trade has, I believe, latterly ceased altogether. Yet the amounts transferred to Chihuahua have generally increased; so that for the last few years, that trade has consumed very nearly half of the entire imports by the Missouri caravans.

“The entire consumption of foreign goods in the department of Chihuahua, has been estimated, by intelligent Mexican merchants, at from two to three millions annually; the first cost of which might be set down at nearly one half. Of this amount the Santa Fe trade, as will be seen

from the accompanying table, has not furnished a tenth part; the balance being introduced through other ports, viz. : Matamoros, whence Chihuahua has received nearly half its supplies—Vera Cruz via the city of Mexico, whence considerable amounts have been brought to this department—Tampico, on the Gulf of Mexico, and Mazatlan, on the Pacific, via Durango, whence the imports have been of some importance—while nearly all the west of the department, and especially the heavy consumption of the mining town of Jesus-Maria, receives most of its supplies from the port of Guaymas on the Gulf of California; whence, indeed, several stocks of goods have been introduced as far as the city of Chihuahua itself. In 1840, a large amount of merchandize was transported directly from the Red River frontier of Arkansas to Chihuahua; but no other expedition has ever been made in that direction.

“By far the greatest portion of the introductions through the sea-ports, just alluded to, have been made by British merchants. It is chiefly the preference given to American manufactures, which has enabled the merchandise of the Santa Fe adventurers to compete in the Southern markets, with goods introduced through the sea-ports, which have had the benefit of the draw-back. In this last respect our traders have labored under a very unjust burden.

“It is difficult to conceive any equitable reason why merchants, conveying their goods across the prairies in wagons, should not be as much entitled to the protection of the government, as those who transport them in vessels across the ocean. This assistance might have enabled our merchants to monopolize the rich trade of Chihuahua; and they would, no doubt, have obtained a share of that of the still richer departments of Durango and Zacatecas, as well as some portion of the Sonora and California trade. Then rating that of Chihuahua at two millions, half that of Durango at the same, and a million from Zacatecas, Sonora, etc., it would ascend to the clever amount of some five millions of dollars per annum.

“In point of revenue, the Santa Fe trade has been of but little importance to the government of Mexico. Though the amount of duties collected annually at this port has usually been fifty to eighty thousand dollars, yet nearly one-half has been embezzled by the officers of the customs, leaving an average net revenue of perhaps less than forty thousand dollars per annum.

“It is not an unimportant fact to be known, that, since the year 1831, few or none of the difficulties and dangers which once environed the Santa Fe adventurer have been encountered. No traders have been killed by the savages on the regular route, and but few animals stolen from the caravans. On the whole, the rates of insurance upon adventures in this trade should hardly be as high as upon marine adventures between New York and Liverpool. While I declare, however, the serious dangers and troubles to have been in general so slight, I ought not to suppress at least an outline of the difficulties that occurred on the prairies in 1843, which were attended with very serious consequences.

“It had been reported in Santa Fe as early as November, 1842, that a party of Texans were upon the prairies, prepared to attack any Mexican traders who should cross the plains the succeeding spring; and as some Americans were accused of being spies, and in collusion with the Texans, many were ordered to Santa Fe for examination, occasioning a deal

of trouble to several innocent persons. Than this, however, but little further attention was paid to the report, many believing it but another of those rumors of Texan invasion which had so often spread useless consternation through the country.

“So little apprehension appeared to exist, that, in February, 1843, Don Antonio Jose Chavez, of New Mexico, left Santa Fe for Independence, with but five servants, two wagons, and fifty-five mules. He had with him some ten or twelve thousand dollars in specie and gold bullion, besides a small lot of furs. As the month of March was extremely inclement, the little party suffered inconceivably from cold and privations. Most of them were frost-bitten, and all their animals, except five, perished from the extreme severity of the season; on which account Chavez was compelled to leave one of his wagons upon the prairies. He had worried along, however, with his remaining wagon and valuables, till about the tenth of April, when he found himself near the Little Arkansas, at least a hundred miles within the territory of the United States. He was there met by fifteen men from the border of Missouri, professing to be Texan troops, under the command of one John M'Daniel. This party had been collected, for the most part, on the frontier, by their leader, who was recently from Texas, from which government he professed to hold a captain's commission. They started no doubt with the intention of joining one Col. Warfield, (also said to hold a Texan commission,) who had been upon the plains near the mountains, with a small party, for several months, with the avowed intention of attacking the Mexican traders.

“Upon meeting Chavez, however, the party of M'Daniel at once determined to make sure of the prize he was possessed of, rather than take their chances of a similar booty beyond the United States boundary. The unfortunate Mexican was therefore taken a few miles south of the road, and his baggage rifled. Seven of the party then left for the settlements with their share of the booty, amounting to some four or five hundred dollars apiece, making the journey on foot, as their horses had taken a *stampede* and escaped. The remaining eight, soon after the departure of their comrades, determined to put Chavez to death,—for what cause it would seem difficult to conjecture, as he had been for two days, their unresisting prisoner. Lots were accordingly cast to determine which four of the party should be the cruel executioners; and their wretched victim was taken off a few rods and shot down in cold blood. After his murder, a considerable amount of gold was found about his person, and in his trunk. The body of the unfortunate man, together with his wagon and baggage, was thrown into a neighboring ravine; and a few of the lost animals of the marauders having been found, their booty was packed upon them and borne away to the frontier of Missouri.

“Great exertions had been made to intercept this lawless band at the outset; but they escaped the vigilance even of a detachment of dragoons that had followed them over a hundred miles. Yet the honest citizens of the border were too much on the alert to permit them to return with impunity. However, five of the whole number (including three of the party that killed the man) effected their escape, but the other ten were arrested, committed, and sent to St. Louis for trial before the United States Court. It appears that those who were engaged in the killing of Chavez have

since been convicted of murder; and the others, who were concerned in the robbery, were found guilty."

We have thus far implicitly followed the narrative from Mr. Gregg's pen; for brevity's sake, we must omit his details of Col. Snively's organized company of 175 men, who about the same year falling in with others equipped for the like object under Colonel Warfield, commenced an attack on Mora, a village on the Mexican frontier. These men were soon seriously worsted by the Mexicans and disbanded. They were, as it is well known, soon followed by other expeditions, which derived no unimportant aid from some of our American citizens; and the final result of which has lately caused so much political discussion throughout the United States.

"But the most unfortunate circumstance attending this invasion of the prairies—unfortunate at least to the United States and to New Mexico—was the closing of the northern ports to foreign commerce, which was doubtless, to a great degree, a consequence of the before-mentioned expedition, and which of course terminated the Santa Fe trade, at least for the present.\*

"I am of the impression, however, that little apprehension need be entertained, that this decree of Gen. Santa Anna will be permitted much longer to continue, unless our peaceful relations with Mexico should be disturbed; an event, under any circumstances, seriously to be deprecated. With the continuation of peace between us, the Mexicans will certainly be compelled to open their northern frontier ports, to avoid a revolution in New Mexico, with which they are continually threatened while this embargo continues. Should the obnoxious decree be repealed, the Santa Fe Trade will doubtless be prosecuted again with renewed vigor and enterprise."

The features of character ascribed to the inhabitants of New Mexico are far from flattering to their vanity: indolent, intolerant, systematically cringing, they have no stability except in artifice, no profundity except for intrigue. The mal-administration of the laws seems to be another impediment to their harmonious commercial intercourse with the traders from the United States. A strong feeling of jealousy is also observable towards the American traders, as the following anecdotes illustrative of the summary mode of dealing with them by the present arbitrary governor Armijo.

In the fall of 1840, a gross outrage was committed upon a physician from Massachusetts. He loaned a person of the name of Tayon, \$900, who afterwards borrowed the amount from another foreigner, in order to repay the former; but the individual who had lent Tayon learning that he was insolvent, applied, and speedily obtained an order from Armijo for

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\* The following is the substance of Santa Anna's decree, dated at his Palace of Tacubaya, August 7, 1843:

"Article 1st. The frontier custom-houses of Taos, in the department of New Mexico, Paso del Norte and Presidio del Norte in that of Chihuahua, are entirely closed to all commerce.

"Article 2d. This decree shall take effect within forty-five days after its publication in the capital of the Republic."

It should be understood that the only port in New Mexico for foreign goods was nominally Taos, though the custom house was at Santa Fe, where all the entrances were made.

compelling the doctor to refund the said amount. He had left for the south, meanwhile, but was presently overtaken, and at once arrested by the alcalde, in a most unceremonious manner, and imprisoned till a counter order could be obtained from the American consul. The former, however, determined to revenge himself, and he accordingly succeeded in obtaining a further summons from the governor, and the only escape the worthy doctor had was by purchasing his liberty with a bribe of \$200!

"But, perhaps, the most glaring outrages upon American citizens were committed in 1841, upon the occasion of the capture of the Texan Santa Fe expedition. In Taos, a poor deaf and dumb United States creole Frenchman was beaten to death in open day. In San Miguel, the alcalde, at the head of a mob, entered the store of a Mr. Rowland, whom he robbed of a considerable amount of merchandise. At the same time, the greatest excitement raged in Santa Fe against Americans, whose lives appeared in imminent danger; and a most savage attack was made upon our excellent consul, Manuel Alvarez, Esq., who had always taken an active interest in the welfare of American citizens.

"A few minutes after the governor had departed for San Miguel, to encounter the Texans, a fellow named Martin, his nephew and confidential agent, aided by a band of ferocious *sans culottes*, and armed with a large knife, secretly entered the house of the consul, who perceived him in time, however, to avert the blow; yet he received a severe wound in the face during the scuffle that ensued: the rabble running in at the same time, and vociferating, "*Saquenlo afuera! matenlo!*"—Drag him out! kill him! Mr. Alvarez, doubtless, owed his preservation partially to the consternation with which the failure of their clandestine attempt at his life inspired the cowardly ruffians. Instead of being punished for this diabolical act, the principal assassin, on the contrary, was soon after promoted in the army.

"The outrage did not end here, however; for, on the consul's demanding his passport for the United States, it was refused for nearly a month; thus detaining him until the cold season had so far advanced, that, of his party, (about fifteen in number,) two perished from the cold; and not one arrived without being more or less frost-bitten—some very severely—besides suffering a loss of about fifty animals from the same cause.

"Although these, and other daring outrages, have been duly represented to our government, it does not appear that any measures of redress have yet been taken.

"With a view of oppressing our merchants, Governor Armijo had, as early as 1839, issued a decree exempting all the natives from the tax imposed on store-houses, shops, etc., throwing the whole burden of impost upon foreigners and naturalized citizens; a measure clearly and unequivocally at variance with the treaties and stipulations entered into between the United States and Mexico. A protest was presented, without effect; when our consul, finding all remonstrances useless, forwarded a memorial to the American minister at Mexico; who, although the vital interests of American citizens were at stake, deemed the affair of too little importance, perhaps, and therefore appears to have paid no attention to it. But this system of levying excessive taxes upon foreigners, is by no means an original invention of Governor Armijo. In 1835, the government of Chihuahua having levied a *contribucion de guerra* for raising means to make war upon the savages, who were laying waste the surrounding country, foreign merchants, with an equal disregard for their rights and the obli-

gations of treaties, were taxed twenty-five dollars each per month; while the native merchants, many of whom possessed large haciendas, with thousands of stock, for the especial protection of which these taxes were chiefly imposed, paid only from five to ten dollars each. Remonstrances were presented to the governor, but in vain.

"For a few years, Governor Armijo established a tariff of *his own*, entirely arbitrary, exacting five hundred dollars for each wagon-load, whether large or small, of fine or coarse goods. Of course, this was very advantageous to such traders as had large wagons and costly assortments, while it was no less onerous to those with smaller vehicles, or coarse, heavy goods. As might have been anticipated, the traders soon took to conveying their merchandise only in the largest wagons, drawn by ten or twelve mules, and omitting the coarser and more weighty articles of trade. This caused the governor to return to an *ad valorem* system, though still without regard to the *Aranzel general* of the nation. How much of these duties found their way into the public treasury, I will not venture to assert.

"The arrival of a caravan at Santa Fe changes the aspect of the place at once. Instead of the idleness and stagnation which its streets exhibited before, one now sees everywhere the bustle, noise, and activity of a lively market town. As the Mexicans very rarely speak English, the negotiations are mostly conducted in Spanish.

"Taking the circuit of the stores, I found they usually contained general assortments, much like those to be met with in the retail variety stores of the west. The stocks of the inexperienced merchants are apt to abound in unsaleable goods—*mulas*, as the Mexicans figuratively term them.

"Although a fair variety of dry-goods, silks, hardware, &c., is to be found in this market, domestic cottons, both bleached and brown, constitute the great staple, of which nearly equal quantities ought to enter into a 'Santa Fe assortment.' The demand for these goods is such, that at least one-half of our stocks of merchandise is made up of them. However, although they afford a greater nominal per centum than many other articles, the profits are reduced by their freight and heavy duty. In all the southern markets, where they enter into competition, there is a decided preference given to the American manufactures over the British, as the former are more heavy and durable. The demand for calicoes is also considerable, but this kind of goods affords much less profit. The quantity in an assortment should be about equal to half that of domestics. Cotton velvets and drillings, (whether bleached, brown, or blue, and especially the latter, have also been in much request. But all the coarser cotton goods, whether shirtings, calicoes, or drillings, &c., were prohibited by the *Aranzel* of 1837, and still continue to be, with some modifications."

Our paper already transcends the limits we had prescribed, or we might cite much additional information relating to the geographical peculiarities of Santa Fe; the customs of its inhabitants, &c. A word or two touching its manufactures, and agricultural produce, must, however, suffice. The valley of the Rio del Norte, extending about 100 miles north, and 150 south of the capital named, seems remarkable for its beauty, richness of produce, and diversity of soil. Whatever is thrown into its bosom, says our writer, if the early autumn frosts permits it to ripen, grows to a wonderful degree of perfection—crops have often yielded over a hundred fold. This exuberance of soil is not, however, common to New Mexico, generally, but rather proper to its valleys. The temperature is uniformly

genial and moderate—a sultry day\* at Santa Fe north, is of rare occurrence. The atmosphere is of extraordinary dryness, owing most probably to the great elevation of the plains about the Rocky mountains.

Cotton is but little cultivated here, although it has been considered indigenous to the country, the early manufactures of the aborigines proving the fact, especially in this province. Tobacco is also a native plant; but, owing to the monopolizing influence of the government, its culture is not deemed worthy of much notice by the inhabitants. Flax is likewise entirely neglected, as also the potato, another indigenous plant.

The New Mexicans are celebrated for the manufacture of coarse blankets, which is an article of considerable traffic between them and the southern provinces, as also with the neighboring Indians; and, on some occasions, with the United States. The finer articles are curiously woven in handsome figures of various colors. These are of different qualities, the most ordinary being valued at about two dollars apiece, while those of the finest texture, especially their imitations of the *Sarape Navajo*, will sell for twenty dollars, or more. There have been also made in New Mexico a few imitations of the *Sarape Saltillero*, the blanket of Saltillo, a city of the south, celebrated for the manufacture of the most splendid fancy blankets, singularly figured with all the colors of the rainbow. These are often sold for more than fifty dollars each. What renders the weaving of the fancy blankets extremely tedious, is, that the variegation of colors is all effected with the shuttle; the texture, in other respects, being perfectly plain, without even a twill. An additional value is set upon the fine *sarape*, on account of its being a fashionable substitute for a cloak. Indeed, the inferior *sarape* is the only over-dress used by the peasantry in the winter.

Besides blankets, the New Mexicans manufacture a kind of coarse twilled woollen stuff, called *gerga*, which is checkered with black and white, and is used for carpets, and also by the peasantry for clothing; which, in fact, with some other similar domestic stuffs, together with buckskin, constituted almost the only article of wear they were possessed of, till the trade from Missouri furnished them with foreign fabrics at more reasonable prices than they had been in the habit of paying to the traders of the southern provinces. Their domestic textures are nearly all of wool, there being no flax or hemp,\* and but little cotton spun. The manufacture even of these articles is greatly embarrassed, for want of good spinning and weaving machinery. Much of the spinning is done with the *huso* or *malacate*, (the whirling spindle,) which is kept whirling in a bowl with the fingers, while the thread is drawn. The dexterity with which the females spin with this simple apparatus, is truly astonishing.

Some of the gold mines of New Mexico are said to be very productive and valuable, although latterly, Mr. Gregg seems to think, they have been partially neglected. We must, however, in conclusion, content ourselves with one more brief extract, remarkable enough for its development of an

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\* Hemp is unknown in this province; and flax, as has been before remarked, though indigenous, is nowhere cultivated. "The court of Spain, (as Clavigero tells us, speaking of Michuacan, New Mexico, and Quivira, where he says flax was to be found in great abundance,) informed of the regions adapted to the cultivation of this plant, sent to those countries, about the year 1778, twelve families from the valley of Granada, for the purpose of promoting so important a branch of agriculture." The enterprise seems never to have been prosecuted, however, at least in New Mexico.

anomalous feature of character among a people trading with the civilized nations of Europe, as well as our own continent, respecting their mode of formerly apportioning the rates of duties. Says Mr. Gregg, "I have heard of some still more curious contracts in these measurement sales, particularly in Santa Fe, during the early periods of the American trade. Everything was sometimes rated by the vara—not only all textures, but even hats, cutlery, trinkets, and so on! In such cases, very singular disputes would frequently arise as to the mode of measuring some particular articles; for instance, whether pieces of ribbon should be measured in bulk, or unrolled, and yard by yard; looking-glasses, cross or lengthwise; pocket-knives, shut or open; writing paper, in the ream, in the quire, or by the single sheet; and then, whether the longer or shorter way of the paper; and many others."

As it may not be generally known to our readers, we will close with a ludicrous recital given of the mode adopted by the Cherokees for the visitation of non-paying debtors. One of the party, engaged as a teamster, being overtaken by his Cherokee creditor, whose claim he was utterly unable to liquidate, found he had no alternative left him but to take the benefit of the bankrupt law, after the manner of that tribe. He was accordingly taken off into captivity of his claimant, and compelled to undergo the infliction of a penalty as summary, if not as sanguinary, as that of Judge Lynch. It consisted in being reduced to a primitive state of nudity, and fastened to a tree; when each creditor was called upon to requite his forfeited engagement with a cowhide or hickory switch, scoring the amount of his respective claim in legible lines upon his bare back—one stripe per dollar being the ratio usually imposed under this novel system of whitewashing; after which process being concluded, everybody declares himself satisfied;—and, what is no less singular, not a single red cent would any receive from the poor delinquent, after this *amende honorable*, under any pretence whatever.

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#### ART. III.—THE COTTON TRADE.

IN an article prepared for the Merchants' Magazine about a year since, the writer of this insisted very strongly on the speculative character of the prices of cotton at that time. Estimates of the crop of the United States, and of the supply from other parts of the world, and of the consumption both in this country and in Europe, were at the same time submitted, and the agreement of all these with the results since developed, has been sufficiently near to induce another attempt for the present cotton season. As these estimates are based on the statistics of the cotton trade, and not on the mere opinions of the writer, every one interested in the subject may judge for himself what they are worth. The importance of the subject, both to the southern planter and to the mercantile interests of the whole country, will justify any attempts of this kind, even if they only approach towards accuracy.

The first question of importance relates to the extent of the supply. The crop in the United States promises to be very abundant. In Carolina, more land was planted than usual, the season has been very favorable for maturing the plant, and thus far, (Oct. 16,) the weather has been

very propitious for picking. The drought in the upper part of the state in August and September, has been the only drawback to a most abundant crop. As it is, the receipts will probably exceed those of any previous year. The same remarks will apply to Georgia. These states have lost but little by emigration in the last year or two, and the natural increase of producers will tend considerably to enhance the crop. The receipts in Florida will far exceed those of any previous year. The new lands brought into cultivation in that territory, and along the Chatahoochee, promise large additions to the production. The seasons have been generally favorable. At some places they have complained of too much rain, and at others of too little, but these complaints have not been serious. The plant is forward, and the picking began very early. Many planters will make as much as they can pick out, and a long season for gathering the crop is therefore very favorable to a large yield. The caterpillar has done some harm, and the worm has been busy at some places. But generally, even where the caterpillar appeared, the injury has been trifling. In Alabama, the reports have been for the most part favorable. In the early part of the season the cut-worm did some damage, especially in the lower section of the state, and in the latter part, various slight injuries have been sustained in almost every county in the state. But the large amount planted, the natural increase of hands, and the favorable season for gathering the crop, promise a large increase over the receipts of any previous year. The most important of all the cotton sea-ports is New Orleans, and the country from which its supply is received, is so various in its character, and so extensive, that it is difficult to form any just estimate of the receipts. The floods along the Mississippi and the Red river were very disastrous. The injuries from the worm have been extensive. In spite of these, from the favorable concurrence of the early season, and the fine weather for picking, and the high price of cotton at the time the present crop was planted, and the natural increase of planters and working hands, a fair average crop may be expected. The following estimate of the receipts is submitted :

	1843.	1844.	1845.
New Orleans,.....bales	1,060,000	832,000	900,000 to 1,100,000
Mobile,.....	482,000	468,000	520,000 to 600,000
Florida,.....	161,000	146,000	190,000 to 220,000
Georgia,.....	299,000	255,000	290,000 to 330,000
South Carolina,.....	352,000	305,000	340,000 to 380,000
North Carolina and Virginia,.....	25,000	24,000	20,000 to 30,000
Total,.....	2,379,000	2,030,000	2,260,000 to 2,660,000
Average,.....			.....bales 2,460,000

This is below some of the estimates that have appeared in the newspapers, but, excepting only the amount received at New Orleans, the rest may be confided in, as a fair and reasonable estimate. So much for the supply from the United States.

The receipts from India cannot well be foreseen. But the low prices in Europe will, of course, discourage shipments. The imports from India into England for several years have been various, and the circumstances which have made them larger than formerly, have been more or less understood.

1833,.....	95,000 bales.	English prices moderate.
1834,.....	88,000 "	" "
1835,.....	118,000 "	" high.
1836,.....	219,000 "	" very high.
1837,.....	145,000 "	" high.
1838,.....	109,000 "	" moderate.
1839,.....	132,000 "	" high.
1840,.....	216,000 "	Chinese war.
1841,.....	275,000 "	"
1842,.....	255,000 "	"
1843,.....	182,000 "	Peace, and low prices.
1844,.....	about the same.	Peace, and moder. prices.

The low prices which will prevail in 1845 will doubtless tend to reduce the receipts from India, but as the production has much increased there since 1833, and an outlet for this must be found, there cannot be much falling off in the supply from this quarter. We shall put it at 150,000 bales. The supply from all other countries, except the United States and India is so small and so nearly stationary, that the average of the last five years will be near enough for our purpose.

1839,.....	176,000 bales.	1842,.....	120,000 bales.
1840,.....	112,000 "	1843,.....	165,000 "
1841,.....	119,000 "	Average,.....	138,000 "

Putting together these items, we have the probable supply from all sources for 1845.

United States,.....	2,460,000 bales.
India,.....	150,000 "
All other countries,.....	140,000 "

Total supply,..... 2,750,000 "

Let us now turn our attention to the probable demand. And first, let us begin with the United States. The increase in our consumption has been pretty regular.

Years.	Bales.	Av. bales for 3 yrs.	Inc. p. c.
1837,.....	220,000	.....	...
1838,.....	244,000	.....	...
1839,.....	276,000	247,000	...
1840,.....	295,000	271,000	9.8
1841,.....	297,000	289,000	6.9
1842, (11 months),.....	268,000	295,000	2.1
1843,.....	325,000	305,000	3.4
1844,.....	347,000	321,000	5.2
Average,.....	.....	.....	5.5

Our factories are as busy and active as ever. Their demands will increase until the market is overstocked with goods, of which there is yet no sign. The increase in the demand, cannot, however, much exceed that of the last year, which was 7 per cent. This is above the average increase; but the low prices and the favorable state of the trade, warrant us in putting the increase as large as it was last year. This will give 370,000 bales as the consumption of the American manufactories for 1845.

The French consumption has been nearly stationary for the last four years, and there are as yet no symptoms of any revival in their demand. The following table contains the French consumption for several years back.

Years.	France.	Havre, only.	Years.	France.	Havre, only.
1838,.....	392,000 bales.	294,000 bales.	1841,.....	419,000 bales.	347,000 bales.
1839,.....	326,000 "	240,000 "	1842,.....	445,000 "	349,000 "
1840,.....	446,000 "	353,000 "	1842,.....	..... "	334,000 "

Our exports to France, the total French imports, and the stocks on hand, on the 31st of December of each year, have been as follows :

Years.	U. S. Exports.	Imports.	Stocks.
1838,.....	321,000 bales.	391,000 bales.	63,000 bales.
1839,.....	242,000 "	339,000 "	75,000 "
1840,.....	447,000 "	467,000 "	96,000 "
1841,.....	348,000 "	459,000 "	136,000 "
1842,.....	398,000 "	447,000 "	135,000 "
1843,.....	346,000 "	..... "	119,000 "
1844,.....	283,000 "	..... "	..... "

The stock on hand at Havre on the 15th of August, 1844, was 117,000 bales against 157,000 at the same time last year. And although the trade yet exhibits no activity, yet the diminution in their stocks, and the very low prices which will prevail, will give an impulse to trade in France, that will carry it higher than it has been for years. Their wants will, perhaps, exceed what they have been in any previous year. Besides the receipts at Marseilles from Egypt, we may safely put their demand of American cotton as high as 420,000 bales.

The demand on the continent, out of France, is small, and though variable, it will not be difficult to get at it very nearly. Our exports, and the stocks on hand, have been as follows :

Years.	Exp. from U. S.	Stocks.	Years.	Exp. from U. S.	Stocks.
1833,.....	89,000 bales.	76,000 bales.	1842,.....	131,000 bales.	104,000 bales.
1839,.....	34,000 "	72,000 "	1843,.....	194,000 "	147,000 "
1840,.....	181,000 "	112,000 "	1844,.....	140,000 "	..... "
1841,.....	105,000 "	75,000 "	Average,	156,000 "	..... "

Taking into account the increase of stocks, the consumption of American cotton does not seem in any year to have exceeded 151,000 bales. To allow it to reach 180,000 will be about a fair estimate, considering the extraordinary incitements to a large consumption.

The great market for cotton, is, however, in Great Britain. To estimate this demand with much accuracy, is very difficult. The consumption for the last seven years have been as follows :

Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.
1837,.....	1,073,000	1841,.....	1,173,000
1838,.....	1,222,000	1842,.....	1,195,000
1839,.....	1,084,000	1843,.....	1,383,000
1840,.....	1,276,000		

For the year 1844, the deliveries to the trade have thus far differed but little from last year. The weekly consumption for the part of the year elapsed, at the following dates, is taken from the usual circulars :

	1844.	1843.		1844.	1843.
	Bales.	Bales.		Bales.	Bales.
June 14,.....	21,690	24,719	August 16,.....	25,304	25,425
July 3,.....	23,100	24,920	September 3,...	25,452	25,853
August 3,.....	25,104	25,316	September 13,.	25,094	25,898

This indicates a slight falling off from last year ; but the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers, have, it is said, decreased considerably, so that the falling off is more nominal than real. The present low prices

will soon encourage the spinning of coarse numbers, and thus increase the demand for the raw material. The operation of other favorable causes will probably bring up the consumption by the first of January to very near the amount for last year. It may with safety be put at 1,380,000 bales. The following table gives the increase, and the rate of increase for several years past, taking two years at a time :

Years.	Average consumption.	Increase.	Incr. p. cent per annum.
1837 and '38,.....	1,147,000 bales.	.....	.....
1839 and '40,.....	1,180,000 "	33,000 bales.	1.5
1841 and '42,.....	1,184,000 "	4,000 "	.2
1843 and '44,.....	1,384,000 "	200,000 "	8.5

This is certainly very irregular. But it is to be remarked that the slow increase occurred at the time of the war in China, and that the great increase in the last two years has been partly produced by the sudden opening of the immense empire of the east. Comparing the first two with the last two years of the table, the increase is 20.6 per cent, or 3.4 per cent per annum. But even this is too high for the natural increase, for we compare the demand before the war with the extraordinary demand immediately after its close.

But let us recur to the causes now operating to increase or diminish the natural demand. The English harvests have been good, and the price of food is low. This will increase the home demand in Great Britain. There is as yet no glut in the market for cotton goods, and at all the manufacturing towns the trade is reported to be healthy and prosperous. The very low prices will greatly encourage consumption. The following table of prices shows this very satisfactorily :

Years.	Eng. consumption.	Increase and decrease.	Av. price at U. S. custom-house.	Increase and decr. of price.
1837,.....	1,073,000 bales.	.....	14.0 cts.	.....
1838,.....	1,222,000 "	149,000 inc.	10.1 cts.	Decrease.
1839,.....	1,084,000 "	138,000 dec.	14.5 cts.	Increase.
1840,.....	1,276,000 "	192,000 inc.	8.6 cts.	Decrease.
1841,.....	1,173,000 "	103,000 dec.	10.3 cts.	Increase.
1842,.....	1,195,000 "	22,000 inc.	8.2 cts.	Decrease.
1843,.....	1,388,000 "	193,000 inc.	6.3 cts.	Decrease.
1844,.....	1,380,000 "	8,000 dec.	...	Increase.

By this table it appears that a fall in the price has always increased the consumption in the last seven years, and a rise has always diminished it. And were it not that the amount consumed in England has been unnaturally increased during the last two years by the opening of the Chinese ports, and the increased demand for cotton goods in India, in consequence of the resuscitation of their trade with China, we might anticipate as large an increase in the demand as in any former year. To suppose the consumption of the last year at about 100,000 bales over the natural demand; and the increase from low prices and other favorable influences, to reach 200,000 bales, seems to us the fairest estimate that can be made. This will make the English consumption 1,480,000 bales. We are now ready to compare the probable supply with the probable demand.

United States crop,.....	2,460,000 bales.
English import from India,.....	150,000 "
English import from other places,.....	140,000 "
<b>Total supply,.....</b>	<b>2,750,000 "</b>

Wants of the United States,.....	370,000	“
“ “ France from the United States,.....	420,000	“
“ “ the Continent, from United States,....	180,000	“
“ “ of England,.....	1,480,000	“
	<u>2,450,000</u>	“
Excess of supply,.....	300,000	“

As the stocks have been accumulating for years, and are now large beyond all precedent, this additional burden of 300,000 bales cannot but be felt very severely. The following table gives the stocks for the end of each year.

Years.	Liverpool.	England.	In all the ports.
1837,.....	.....	259,000 bales.	386,000 bales.
1838,.....	.....	321,000 “	460,000 “
1839,.....	.....	265,000 “	412,000 “
1840,.....	.....	464,000 “	672,000 “
1841,.....	430,000 bales.	550,000 “	761,000 “
1842,.....	457,000 “	665,000 “	807,000 “
1843,.....	654,000 “	786,000 “	1,052,000 “

And this immense stock will be increased at the end of 1844, as appears by the following table :

	Stocks, 1843.	Stocks, 1844.	Price of fair uplands.
Liverpool, June 14,.....	931,000 bales.	917,000 bales.	4 $\frac{7}{8}$ d.
“ July 3,.....	912,000 “	926,000 “	5
“ Aug. 3,.....	935,000 “	998,000 “	4 $\frac{7}{8}$
“ Aug. 16,.....	917,000 “	983,000 “	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ Sept. 3,.....	871,000 “	945,000 “	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ Sept. 13,.....	831,000 “	921,000 “	4 $\frac{1}{2}$

In anticipation of the accumulation of stock, prices have fallen a little in Liverpool, and still more in this country. They must yet decline still more abroad, but the fall in this country must be but trifling. As far, therefore, as the future is foreshadowed by the results of our investigations, we may expect, after only a slight decline in this country, steady, but low prices.

#### ART. IV.—THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT:

CONSIDERED WITH REFERENCE TO ITS CONDITION—POLICY—PROSPECTS, AND REMEDIES.

THE administration of the post-office department of the United States has been, for the last fifteen years, a theme of alternate praise and censure, among more or less persons who have not been, as well as among those who have been, engaged in party politics.

The ramifications of it, reaching as well a thousand byways, as a thousand highways, in our widely extended territory, and attended by many thousand active, driving agents, in the capacity of postmasters, deputy postmasters and clerks, contractors, stage agents, stage drivers, and latterly railroad agents, penny post men, runners, &c. &c., all members and parts of one system, and the labors and efforts of all being guided by, and concentrating in, responsibility to a single head—these ramifications, thus

numerous and diverse, and searching, have no equality of extent in the wide world of governments, nor among any people upon our globe.\*

Upon a smaller scale of territory, its similitude may be found in the English post-office system. But the wide extension of the system here, among sparsely as well as densely populated communities, renders all attempts at running a parallel between them, with a view to guide the operations of the larger by those of the less, unsafe and deceptive.†

That parts of this great organization should at times become disjointed,—that a member of it here and there, should at intervals prove inefficient, or false, is not to be wondered at, and certainly ought not to be made a serious objection to it, as a whole.

Even great abuses and perversions of it, in the hands of political partisans, have, undoubtedly, at different junctures, been endured by the people, without suggesting the idea of abolishing it altogether for some

\* As far back as 1828, the postmaster-general of that day stated the number of persons employed by the department at about 26,956; including, of course, all classes of dependant in the employ of contractors. (See Annual Report of 1828, with President's Message to Congress.)

† In 1840, the mail service of the United States, by stage and coach, and horse and sulkey, was, in miles,..... 32,481,723  
In the same year, the mail service in the United Kingdom of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, was by coaches, horse and foot posts,..... 7,464,250

Excess of former,..... 25,017,473

In the United States, during the same year, the service by steamboat and railroad was, in miles,..... 3,889,053  
In the United Kingdom of Great Britain, it was..... 936,590

Excess of former,..... 2,952,463

In the United States, same year, the number of post-offices was. .... 13,468  
In the United Kingdom of Great Britain, the number was..... 3,938

9,530

The system in the United States requires the general post-office at Washington to open and adjust accounts quarterly with each of the 13,468 postmasters; while, in Great Britain, the general post-office in London has accounts opened with only 640 offices in England and Wales, one in Ireland, (at Dublin,) and one in Scotland, (Edinburgh.) Total, 642. The office at Dublin acts to all the other offices in Ireland, and that in Edinburgh to all the other offices in Scotland, as the general post-office, and accounts over to the general office at London.

The above statistics, respecting the British post-office department, are derived from the report of the special agent, appended to the annual report of the postmaster-general, December 5, 1840. But it is stated in the annual report of December, 1843, that the total transportation of the mails in the United Kingdom is about 20,000,000 miles annually. We do not know how the discrepancy arises.

“Some idea may be formed of the amount of business done in this department, from the fact that the communications of all sorts received in the different offices, excluding the auditor's office, amount to a daily average of about 860 for the writing days, equal to 269,180 a year; the communications sent, to about 470 daily, equal to 147,110 a year; and the cases actually decided by the postmaster-general to 48 daily, equal to 15,024 a year.”

“The magnitude of the work done by the auditor and his clerks may be estimated from the fact that they examine and adjust the four quarterly accounts of each postmaster, making 48,000 a year; and the accounts of each contractor quarterly, or oftener, making about 7,000 a year; keeping the mass of books required in this service; closing each year the accounts of about 2,000 ex-postmasters, and carrying on the heavy correspondence growing out of these extensive details.” (P. M. Gen.'s Ann. Rep., Dec. 4, 1837.)

substitute, as the great financial organization of government agencies was, from kindred objections, abolished. But the only desire excited, in times past, by such complaints, has been, for a reformation of the administration of the department, in the obnoxious particulars.

Events, however, have latterly brought the public mind to contemplate seriously, the possibility of an *utter overthrow*\* of the whole system of mail arrangements, which has hitherto obtained so much favor in the public regards, and seriously to entertain the enquiry, what can be done for its preservation in its present or more improved form?

It is undoubtedly true, that prejudices and hostile feelings even, towards the post-office department, have been engendered of late, and are increasing, among various classes of people, irrespective of political partizanship; and we think these may be traced primarily, if not entirely, to two influences.

1st. To an over rigorous system of espionage by the department, through its subordinates, upon letters and packages that are transmitted by the mails.

2d. To a popular conviction that the rates of postage, exacted by law, are unnecessarily high and oppressive upon the social and business relations of the people.

The motive that has impelled the first of these influences, has, undoubtedly, been two-fold, viz:

1st. An ambition in each of the successive heads of the department to show off his individual capacities of administration to the greatest possible advantage to himself, and to the political party with which he was identified, and, to this end, exercising all the powers of the department with despotic energy.

2d. A growing conviction, that nothing short of extreme rigor, and minuteness, in exacting postage from the people, would maintain the receipts of the department up to the point of its current extension and expenditures, from which it is found to be rapidly declining.

The ambition that has actuated the heads of the department, in the way described, is personal, and its excesses will vary according to the peculiar temperament of the man at its head, for the time being. They can only be restrained by a properly careful and minute legislative definition, and limitation of his powers—leaving as little as may be to the province of official discretion and expediency. Within limits thus defined, the motive in question will always be laudable, and even essential to a proper *esprit de corps* in the department. When stretched beyond such limits, it naturally begets dissatisfaction and resistance in the public mind.

But the other motive has less apology. It begets the very evils to the

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\* An intelligent writer in this Magazine, vol. 9, p. 440, says of the opposition mail business, or private expresses: "The ramifications of that business afford the means of destroying the post-office ultimately altogether." Another writer, vol. 10, p. 27, says: "The post-office department of the United States is at this moment the subject of more public discussion than any other department of the service. One can hardly take up a newspaper, or meet an individual in conversation, without reading or hearing complaints. The conviction is gaining ground among the people, that the whole system is inefficient, and oppressive. The call for *reform* is almost universal."

The postmaster-general, in his annual report of December, 1843, says, there are those who contend that the post-office system is an odious monopoly, and ought to be abolished.

department which it seeks to remedy, while it aggravates, instead of curing those which pre-existed from other causes. It has proceeded, however, from one degree of rigor to another, until every petty postmaster and *attache* of the department, feels himself authorised, and even bound, by the instructions of his superiors, to impose postage, *ad libitum*, and to mutilate the envelopes, and dissect the packages of any and all letters, papers and pamphlets that are committed to the mails, not merely to satisfy well grounded suspicions of fraud, but to search out grounds of suspicion, where no provocation whatever exists.\*

When one contemplates the character of the instructions to deputies for this purpose, which have emanated from the heads of the department within a few years back, and in this connexion considers the practices of deputies under those instructions, there is no room left for the supposition that the administrators of the department repose *the least confidence in the moral sense of the people*. He is rather led to believe, that they look upon all who have recourse to the mails as wreckers, and smugglers, and plunderers, devoid of patriotism, devoid of integrity, and requiring to be hunted and watched, and treated accordingly. Whether it is a habit resulting from this low estimate of the people, produced insensibly by these extraordinary official instructions, or an active and abiding conviction of the unworthiness of the people, originating in the same official impulse, we will not undertake to say; but, the fact is observable, that go where you will, in city or country, and propose to pay postage on a letter, or package in advance, with the declaration of its being single, or double, and the official dignitary with whom you are brought to deal, in a majority of cases, will pry into it, and twist it into various shapes, while in the act of receiving the postage, as if to question you to the teeth respecting your veracity and honesty, and regardless of the insult thus conveyed. Small as such a procedure may be regarded in its influence upon the prosperity of a great department of government, it has a meaning that does not escape the popular discrimination, and exerts an influence in no wise beneficial to the government. To avoid, or to correct it, the opposite extreme of carelessness, or of credulity, need not be indulged. When vigilance lacks decency, it is thereby proved to be excessive. In truth, there scarcely need be other evidence than an antagonistical *distrust of the people*, by a department of the government, in whatever ways betrayed, to prove, to a reasonable mind, that *there is a want of adaptation to the public feeling and interests, in either the spirit of its policy, or the rules of its administration*.

The principle of *vis major*, is not the proper one upon which to either frame, or administer, any branch of government for a free and enlightened people. Search through all history—the history of every civilized people that have lived upon the globe, under whatever form of government—and it will be found, that popular discontent has never manifested itself towards any legalised exaction, or exercise of governmental power,

\* Upon their part of the grievances of the above character, members of Congress have taken special notice. The report of a select committee of the House, June 15, 1844, commences thus: "It has been made to appear that in general instances the franks of members of this House, upon letters written by themselves have been erased, and postage charged thereon, in disregard of such franks, and the provisions of law." The report, after stating other facts, concludes with the resolutions declaring certain regulations, instituted by the postmaster-general, to be in violation of law.

so far as to compel the government to plant itself upon the odious principle of *vis major*, already adverted to, *against the people generally*, except in cases where both reason and the practical result, sooner or later consummated, proved the government to be in the wrong, and its proceedings founded in a mistaken policy.

True it is, local outbreaks in resistance to general laws, at points where the most onerous sacrifice to the general welfare has been felt, are found in the history, or have been witnessed in the progress, of every people. We, as a nation, have not been without instances of the kind, as in what is known, as *Shay's Rebellion* in Massachusetts, the *Whisky Rebellion* in Pennsylvania, and the *Nullification Storm* in South Carolina. These fell strictly within the classification of local discontents. The popular feeling, at this time existing towards the post-office department, partakes not of this character. It is not local, but general. It is not confined to any one state, or number of states less than the whole. *It is national*. It is met with both upon the highways and the byways; and it is the same in both, and in all, in the interior and on the seaboard. The complaint is universal, that the *espionage* and rigor of the post-office department are oppressive, despotic, and illiberal, to meanness; and that the postage exacted by law is in amount excessive, and exorbitant—out of keeping with the facilities of our day and generation.\* If there be frauds, or evasions of the post-office laws and regulations, as undoubtedly there are many, *in these sources lie the origin, and the incentive of them all*. Fetter a man, then bid him walk, and is it strange that the thought should occur to him, how great would be his advantage could he contrive to break his fetters? Tax a citizen exorbitantly, and you impose upon him the necessity of seeking relief in evasions of the payment. If the hunger of his children does not impel him to do it, the act is nevertheless commended to his own sense of justice; and when a man feels himself pushed to extremities, he prefers obedience to the dictates of his own judgment, to submission to that of any compulsory influence, if he can see the way open to exercise a choice without too great hazard. Not one man in ten,† the world over,

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\* Adverting to the popular feeling on this subject, the minority report of the committee on the post-office, in the United States House of Representatives at the session of 1843-4, says:—"At the present session, petitions are poured in upon us like a flood. The people are importunate and determined to be heard. They have called in, as an auxiliary, state legislatures, many of which have passed resolutions urging the reform, and instructing their representatives in Congress to sustain it. The movement seems not to be local, or partial; it extends over most of the Union, though there is certainly a difference in the intensity of the feeling in different sections of the country. On no other subject within our recollection has there been so great a degree of unanimity."

† Since writing the above, we have met with the following confirmatory views in the minority report of the House committee, mentioned in a former note:—"The difference of expense for postage, in conducting an extensive correspondence between these two modes of sending letters, is very great; and, as was to be expected, many persons avail themselves of the economy of the opposition line. Man, in his fallen state, is inherently selfish; and the rejection of such facilities, when proffered for his acceptance, is, perhaps, more than we have a right to expect from his frailty—certainly it is more than has been realized from his patriotism. The opposition post-office is extensively patronized. We have no desire to scrutinize the motives of its patrons. Many, we have no doubt, are actuated by the mere selfishness of gain; but there are others whom we believe to be governed by other and higher motives. Having for years remonstrated in vain against what they deem to be exorbitant and oppressive rates of postage, they have at last adopted the conclusion that it is right to oppose and evade laws which they consider as unjust and oppressive; and they have accordingly taken redress into their own hands." \* \* \* "Our gov-

will respect a law that violates his own sense of even handed, practical justice and expediency, and at the expense or sacrifice of his favorite or essential interests, more especially where no moral guilt, beyond that created by a temporal government, is involved. Witness, in illustration, the total, universal indifference, not to say, *contempt*, of all classes of people, towards the laws enacted a few years since in several states, against the use and circulation of bank bills under the denomination of twenty, ten, and five dollars. Such prohibitions had all the sanctimonial formalities and moral influence that legislation could impart. Yet, as well might such laws have had an inscription only upon the moving sands of the sea shore. They were to the heart, of even the ordinarily scrupulous of all political parties, like the fruit of the dead sea upon the lips of the traveller, as described by the poet—*ashes*—mere ashes—lifeless, ineffectual, a solemnity of forms lost in the general feeling of mockery and disrespect engendered by them. To this same extremity do the people see and *feel*—and the feeling of the people is far less safely tampered with than their sight, only, may be; to this extremity do the people both see and feel themselves driven by the post-office department, its laws and exactions.

We pause here to remark, that if there is any act calculated to engender dissatisfaction in the mind of an individual, and to spread from individuals to the popular feeling, it is the frequent discovery of a *system of government espionage*, under any pretence whatever, upon matters which are sent, or received by the mails. And, to a people trained with the notions of our people, in respect to the emanation of government exclusively from themselves, its constant dependance upon themselves for support, and the relation of servants in which all government officers, from the highest to the lowest, stand to the people, there is nothing short of insolence, and a direct insult, conveyed to their understandings by the pretension of a *legal right*, on the part of government officers, to pry into matters which are regarded as pertaining to private confidence, and thus to desecrate the sacredness of personal correspondence.

Returning for a moment to the disposition of the department to distrust the integrity of the people, on the subject of postage, it may be remarked, that, to whatever extremity of evasions popular dissatisfaction towards the present mail arrangements may be considered as pushed at this time, the evasions perpetrated by the government's own officers, are, when compared with those practised by all the rest of community, only as the farthing rush light to the sun.

At any rate, we hazard nothing against common observation, and what is notorious matter of fact, in saying, that ten evasions of postage are perpetrated, and the legitimate revenue of the department is ten times avoided,

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ernment is entirely based on popular opinion; the House of Representatives, the laws, and the constitution itself, are the mere reflection of the popular will. If laws are enacted by their representatives, in opposition to the will of the people, it is impossible to enforce them; the decided resistance of a respectable minority, is sufficient to nullify a law for all practical purposes; and so difficult is it to convict even a single individual of wealth and influence of an offence, that it has grown into a proverb, that penal laws are spiders' webs, in which the small flies get entangled, and the large ones break through. How can it be possible, then, to enforce penal sanctions against the combined power of wealth, influence and numbers, sustained by a strong public sympathy? We do not believe it can be done, and, under present circumstances we should regret to see the experiment tried, lest it produce evils more serious than it is intended to cure."—pp. 4 and 5.

by postmasters, heads of departments, and of bureaus, and by members of Congress, where one instance of the kind is perpetrated by the mass of the people not immediately connected with, or "in the good graces" of, these official dignitaries. And is it wonderful, that the searching measures and instructions adopted by the department, with legislative pains and penalties, towards the people—forbidding even the transmission of a written name upon a newspaper, without subjecting it to letter postage,—and as if the people were the chief offenders—are regarded with popular indignation and hostility? The case, when stated in unambiguous terms, stands thus—

The post-office department finds itself sinking under its accumulation of expenses. It asserts that the revenue laws of the department are evaded and defrauded to a ruinous extent—that its revenues are rapidly falling below its wants. It issues order upon order, backed by displays and threats of pains and penalties, requiring a rigor of administration on the part of its subordinates, towards the people, that amounts to both pecuniary meanness and odious espionage. All this, while it is known, as well as any thing short of a self-evident truth can be known, that ten times the evasions and frauds upon the department are practised by, and through the government's own officers invested with the franking privilege, than are practised by the whole community beside. And while it is also known, that but for the extended use and superadded abuse of the franking privilege, the income of the department, properly administered, would admit of a very large reduction of the tariff of postage, to the great interest and convenience of the people.

Under these circumstances, the people, who discern well the whole matter, are not willing to be the scape goats of government officers, and bear submissively and tamely all the obloquy that should attach only to the actually offending parties, and bear, also, the chief burthen of supporting the department.\* They, consequently, are excited and exasperated towards it, and prompted by both feeling and interest to encourage and improve every other facility of correspondence that opens to them, the mails are shunned and neglected by them as an evil, and an unconscionable burthen. Our encouragement against all this lies in the certainty, that the cause and the consequence are alike visible, and are not irreme-

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\* The following extracts will illustrate and confirm the correctness of the views we present above: "Another source of detriment to the revenue, the past year, has been the exercise and abuse of the franking privilege to an unprecedented extent. During the last three quarters, the free matter constituted a very large portion of the entire mails." \* \* \* "There are facts that have come to the knowledge of the department, which show that great abuses have been practised by those enjoying the privilege, in the highest as well as the lowest stations, in covering the correspondence of others, to the great injury of its revenue. This and other abuses of the privilege, appear to be rapidly increasing, and imperatively demand a remedy, either by its entire abolition, or such restrictions upon it as could be enforced by the department."—Postmaster General's Report, Dec. 5, 1840.

In three weeks of the session of Congress, in 1840, there were sent from the post-office in Washington, 434,669 free letters, documents and packages, weighing 32,689 pounds, or nearly 6½ tons. "Taking this on the average of the session of 33 weeks, it would appear that the free letters and packets sent from the office in Washington during the session, amounted to 4,781,359, and the two cents allowed to postmasters for delivery of the free letters would be \$95,627." "It may be estimated, that there has been abstracted from the revenue of the past year, in the allowance of the two cents to postmasters for the delivery of free letters and packets, and the two cents paid for advertising free letters, the sum of \$150,000."—*Ibid.*

diable. But we re-admonish those who have the power, and whose duty it is to apply a remedy, not to seek it in the *vis major* principle. If the post-office department is to be supported by the direct patronage of the people, it must be shaped and administered so as to conform to the practical sense of right, and economy, and utility, entertained by the people, and in all these particulars compare favorably with enterprises that are conducted by themselves. If this be not done, and the actual offenders are left to laugh with impunity at the misdirected anathemas of the department, its condition and prospects will continue to go on from bad to worse, until the whole system shall either die out from starvation, or be cast an annual pauper upon the other financial resources of the government. It is not in a spirit of prophecy, but from clearly visible data, that this conclusion is deduced.\*

Suppose it were a provision in the revenue laws, upon which rests the treasury department, that all its principal officers, and also those of the state, navy, war, post-office, and attorney general's departments, and all members of Congress during their respective terms and for months thereafter, should exercise the privilege of importing, *duty free*, as many goods and articles of merchandise as they might individually direct; and suppose it were found in practice that they were importing in such enormous quantities as were notoriously designed not merely to supply their own consumption, but that of so large a portion of the community beside themselves, as to prevent the government from realising revenue from all other importations sufficient to defray the expenses of its necessarily distended, and still distending operations in carrying on the affairs of government, and not enough, even, to pay the salaries and perquisites of the officers of the treasury department alone, with the contingent expenses of their offices; and suppose the duties were still kept up to a high and onerous point, and alike upon necessaries and upon luxuries, and at such a crisis the head of the treasury should issue order upon order to his numerous subordinates, declaring that the revenues are falling off, and that this penalty and that penalty must be enforced with invigorated rigor and minuteness, to prevent the people from smuggling and defrauding the revenue; and suppose that these orders in a particular manner indicate that every package and article that assumes to be imported by a private indi-

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\* The writer of this article was informed at the post-office in the city of New York, within a few weeks, that the number of letters that now pass through the mail from New York to Boston, as compared with the number last year, is only as one to five, or 80 per cent loss!

The minority report of the House committee, heretofore alluded to, speaking of the effect of the expresses, or private mails, says:—"Unless an effectual remedy be speedily applied, the whole establishment must be overwhelmed and prostrated. The revenue for 1843 was less than that of 1842 by more than a quarter of a million of dollars, and less than in any year since 1838; and it is already apparent that the reduction will be increased the present year. We have every reason to apprehend—indeed it amounts to a moral certainty—that under the present organization of the post-office, there will be a progressive annual diminution of the revenue; and as an inevitable consequence, either a great reduction of mail accommodations must take place, or the department must bear heavily upon the public treasury."

The majority report of the same committee says: "Events are in progress of a fatal tendency to the post-office department, and its decay has commenced. Unless arrested by vigorous legislation, it must soon cease to exist as a self-sustaining institution, and either be cast on the treasury for support, or suffered to decline from year to year, till the system has become impotent and useless."

vidual, and having none of the ear marks, or franks of the privileged government officers upon it, must be broken open or searched into, and measured, and weighed, and counted, and marked, and certified, and broken open again, and searched, and measured, and weighed, and counted, and marked, and certified yet again, to make it certain that the humble importer is not perpetrating a fraud upon the revenue; how very like would be all this, to the present condition of things--the orders, privileges, practices and effects, of the existing post-office administration in our country! How long, is it imagined, if the case were that of the treasury department, instead of the post-office department, would it be endured? A comparatively few importers would then pay all the revenue received for the support of government, and their customers and consumers, only, would contribute to the burthens of government. The importing government officers, and all their friends and favorites would be exempted from a just quota of taxation, and, standing back, might laugh at the perplexities and expenses that beset the *bona fide* importer, growing out of the galvanic zeal to prevent smuggling of the oft instructed revenue officers! While such should continue to be the case, is it difficult to see why there would be felt additional incentives to smuggling, on the one hand, and concurrently to discourage duty paying importations on the other hand, except by privileged persons--thus reducing the department to bankruptcy without diminishing its wants?

It is hardly necessary to follow out the parallel to any greater extent, either to expose the cause, or suggest the proper remedies of such a condition of things.

There are undoubtedly some very serious influences and impediments to a reduction, or restriction of the franking privilege. These arise from the peculiar nature of party politics, and party organization in this country. Besides, we must, in all our anticipations on this subject, have reference to the necessity of taking members of Congress as they are, not as they either might, or should be. As geologists, on finding dug from the far interior embankments of the earth, fossil remains of an ante-deluvian creation, can, aided by certain general principles which science has developed, easily define, from the peculiar shape of such remains, and the obvious processes by which their muscles were attached, to what order, genera and species the living body belonged, and whether its habits led it to seek food upon the high and solid ground, or the oozy marshes and beds of rivers--whether it was characterized for strength, or speed, and whether provided with hoofs, or claws, &c. &c., so is it easy, aided by our knowledge of the general impulses and inclinations of political partisans in Congress, and of the influences that impart excitement to their organizations, to define the limits to which they will go in curtailing their own power and opportunities of political exertion, and what extent of reformation, at their own expense or inconvenience, may be expected of them. Let one fact suffice--"of the twelve acts of Congress relating to the franking privilege of its members and officers, *all*, with one exception, *have served to enlarge the right.*"\* In a word, there is very little hope, that Congress will abolish, or materially curtail, the franking privilege, unless absolutely forced to do so by an active and commanding public sentiment. It is the galvanic current that animates the organization of both political parties; and neither party is disposed to dispense with it,

\* Annual Report Postmaster-General, Dec. 1840.

or disarm themselves of it. It is doubtful whether the people desire them to do so. And almost every member of Congress, in the House especially, feels that his re-election is more or less dependant on an active exercise of it. It is an evil, therefore, so far as objectionable, which we may as well look in the face with the purpose of ascertaining how, if it cannot be got rid of, its burthen may be endured, and the post-office department be also made to sustain itself.

It seems not to have been hitherto sufficiently considered, with a view to an improvement of the department, to what extent the franking privilege, and high rates of postage act, and react, upon each other. While it may be said to be "apparent, that nearly the whole expenditure of the mail establishment is thrown upon correspondence, and that it pays the whole expense of the free matter, the greater portion of that of newspapers, periodicals and pamphlets, and the entire additional expense incurred for accommodating the public travel; and that with all these burthens, not properly belonging to it, thrown upon correspondence, the high rate of postage on letters cannot be surprising;"\* it may, with equal truth be said, that it cannot be surprising that so large a portion of correspondence should be thrown upon the franking privilege, or into free matter, and upon newspapers, periodicals and pamphlets, while the high rate of postage on letters is continued. The remedy for each of these evils is to be found in one and the same process, viz., A REDUCTION OF POSTAGE. It is the high rate of postage that suggests and forces individuals into a compromise and abuse of the franking privilege with their friends. Take away this incentive, and the ordinary sense of shame at a mean act, that characterises men, will resume its proper influence over both the party who would otherwise give, and the party who would otherwise seek, the frank. Both now find an excuse for the act, each for himself and each for the other, in the onerousness of the postage system. The policy should be to hit upon such a reduction as will convert the present abuses of the franking privilege into legitimate and certain revenue to the department; and this by discouraging the abuse of the mails, on the one hand, and encouraging a continuance of as large portion as possible of the present use of the mails, on the other hand, at a satisfactory rate of postage.

One other consideration, directly tending to a reduction of the high postage system, seems not to have occurred to the administrators of the department, or at least not to have been steadily practised upon. It is, that with a much less degree of vigilance and rigor, and of official espionage and scrutiny, than has been exerted on the *receipt* side of the department's accounts, to increase that, if exerted on the *expenditure* side to diminish that, would have essentially improved the condition of the department in respect to both its finances, and the popular regard for them. Without designing to criminate any particular postmaster-general, or any one administration, it may be truly said, that during the last fifteen years, the department has been perpetually running deeper and deeper into an alliance with inflamed and inflammatory party politics. Appointments and removals have been notoriously made all over the Union with reference to political effect and party organization. The patronage and influence of the department have been doled out, from the smallest homeopathy doses up to almost princely stipends, primarily with that view. In a

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\* Postmaster-General's Annual Report, Dec. 1840.

recent report of a committee of the United States Senate, we find it stated that "the number of persons as deputy postmasters and their clerks, contractors, and others, in the employment of the department in 1840, was 15,257, and in 1842 was 19,727. There being only 14,848 separate offices in the country, it would appear that within the last two years there had been 4,617 persons appointed more than there were offices to be filled, and, consequently, that there had been at least that number of removals and new appointments to office within that period.\*" If this branch of the department's patronage has been notoriously perverted to political ends of a strictly partizan character, is it slanderous to disbelieve that its contracts, extra allowances, and expensive indulgencies to favorites, have been shaped by a higher or purer motive, even though we are unable to define the precise facts, and the precise number of dollars and cents thrown away, in each case?

The better to appreciate what the department now is, and the reforms it needs, let us recur to what it was. In November 1827, before any will pretend that it had become an auxiliary to party politics, the postmaster-general (Mr. McLean) thus described its operations, capacities and prospects:

"In the last four years there has been added to the mail operations of the country, in revenue, transportation of the mail, and post-offices, more than one-third. The means of the department are now ample to meet the reasonable wants of the country; and a vigilant administration of its affairs, for a few years to come, will place at the disposition of the government an annual surplus of more than half a million of dollars. This sum will be augmented as facilities of mail intercourse are multiplied."†

In the course of this article we have already evolved facts that exhibit the condition and prospects of the department, at this time, in a very sorry contrast with what they were in 1827.

Numerous indisputable facts tend to the same conclusion, of want of proper heed to the expenditure side of the accounts of the department, which has rendered proportionably less effective its vigor and scrutiny on the receipt side. In the postmaster-general's annual report in November 1839, it is admitted that the average prices for the different classes of services in the southern section of the Union, composed of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida, increased in the year ending with June 1839, *forty-nine per cent in cost*, while the increase of transportation had been only *nine per cent*! There could have been nothing in the difference of prices of corn, hay, breadstuffs, labor, and other essentials of contractors, to justify any such increase of cost.

In the postmaster-general's annual report, December 1840, he states that the then existing contracts for transportation are at an average advance of about *fifty per cent* above the rates of compensation paid prior to 1836.

By the assistant postmaster-general's report in November 1837, it appears that in the northern and middle states, the then average constant price of carrying the mail per mile, was, for horse and sulky, 5 1-3 cents; for stage and coach, 8-12 cents; for steamboat and railroad, 10 cents.

By his report, November, 1838, it appears the average cost in the southern states had been, for horse and sulky, 5 cents; for stage and coach, 9 2-3

\* Report of Committee on Retrenchment, of U. S. Senate, June 5, 1844. See document 399, p. 42.

† Annual Report of Postmaster-General, Dec. 1827.

cents; steamboat and railroad, 9 cents; and was to be under new contracts, for horse and sulky, 63-10 cents; for stage and coach, 109-10 cents; for steamboat and railroad, 127-10 cents.

By his report in December 1843, it appears the average cost of transporting the mail throughout the Union had been, for horse and sulky, 52-5 cts.; for stage and coach, 84-5 cents; steamboat and railroad, 124-5 cents.

Will the price currents of the country indicate the necessity of any such increase of compensation for labor, breadstuffs and other elements of contract service? We fearlessly aver they will justify no such conclusion.

The average cost for all grades of mail service, except the railway and packet, in Great Britain and Ireland, is scarcely 5 cents per mile. The coach mail pays just 5 cents. In the United States, the average cost, exclusive of railroad and steamboat transportation, is nearly 71-2 cents per mile; for mail conveyance in coaches, the cost is 34-5 of a cent per mile greater in the United States than in Great Britain.\*

By Senate document of the last summer, No. 399, and tables thereto annexed, it appears that in the general post-office at Washington there were employed in 1828, *thirty-nine* clerks and other persons, at an expense per annum of \$55,270 73; that in 1842 there were employed *one hundred and fifty-three* persons, at an expense per annum of \$191,455 79. Now, while this difference in the expense is wholly disproportioned to the difference in the number of persons employed at the two periods mentioned, the increase of both number and expense is wholly disproportioned to the ratio of augmentation in the business and duties of the department, so far as any reasoning can flow from incontrovertible data. For instance,

In 1828 there were 7,651 post-offices in the Union.

In 1842 there were 13,733—less than 100 per cent increase.

In 1828 the total number of miles of post route established and in operation, was 114,536.

In 1842 the total was 149,732—less than 33 per cent increase.

In 1828 the total receipts of postage was..... \$1,598,134 43

In 1842 the total was..... 4,546,246 13

Less than three-fold increase, with nearly double the number of offices to receive it, as in 1828, and more than four-fold the number of offices in the general post-office to keep an account of it, at an expense nearly four-fold as great as in 1828. But very little reflection will tell any one that the multiplication of officers should not be at all in an equal ratio with the increased revenue of the department. In 1828, when there were 7,651 postmasters, the general post-office had that number of quarterly accounts to adjust, making a total of 30,604 annually, and employed 39 persons only to perform that and all incidental service. In 1842, the number of postmasters being 13,733, and the quarterly accounts amounting in the year to 54,932—less than 80 per cent increase, seem to require, with the incidental service, 153 clerks, &c., or an increase of 299 per cent!

It would be useless to go more into details of fact. Our purpose is not to criminate, but to reform. And when we are told that the reform which the great mass of the people so much desire, cannot be granted, on account of the impoverished income of the post-office department, we invoke a curtailment of its extravagances, and a reform of the policy of its

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\* Postmaster-General's Annual Report, Dec. 1843.

administration, as one of the essential steps towards satisfying the wants of the public. We contend, that the expenditures of the department ought to be brought down to an economical scale, *in aid of a reduction in the postage system*. We mean not to say that it will, "*per se*," answer the full extent of the popular prayer; but, it is one of the constituent and important elements in the accomplishment of it.

It should not be overlooked, that among the difficulties encountered in reducing the expenditure side of the account, is, the extravagant cupidity and power of monopoly that actuates many of the railroad and steamboat companies. There is no earthly reason why the institution of these facilities of transportation should not cheapen the transportation of the mail service, as well as it does, or can the transportation of every thing else. They should come in aid of the reduction of postage, instead of retarding it. And yet the contrary seems to be the fact. And in this respect, the sympathy and aid of the people, individually and through their state legislatures, so far as legitimate control can be exerted, should come up to the help of the department, and of Congress acting with the department, against these companies. And does any one doubt, that this would be the case, if the post-office department were but reinstated in the confidence of the country? There is no justification to be found in the general laws of industry and trade, to warrant the exorbitant exactions referred to. No more is there in the well ascertained results of these expenditures and increase of these corporations. The following table exhibits the comparative cost of English and American railroads, and a comparison of their incomes and profits, annually.

ENGLISH ROADS.	No. miles.	Tot. cost.	Cost per mile.	Propor. of rec. to ex.	
Liverpool and Manchester,	32	£1,398,552	\$211,909	100.57	} Av. per mile, \$187,706.
Grand Junction,.....	97½	1,900,000	94,756	100.48	
Leeds and Birmingham,...	112½	5,600,000	241,422	100.41	
London and Greenwich,...	3½	608,000	786,347	100.68	
AMERICAN ROADS.					
Boston and Lowell,.....	26	\$1,608,476	\$61,864	100.38	} Av. per mile, \$44,394.
“ Providence,....	42	1,850,000	44,048	100.32	
“ Worcester,....	44½	1,848,085	41,530	100.54	
Nashua and Lowell,.....	15	353,662	55,054	100.52	

From these data, it appears that the average receipts of the English roads, is in the ratio of 15 per cent annually on their cost, and their nett profit 8 per cent; and the receipts of the American roads are 15½ per cent on their cost, and their nett profit is 9 per cent.

While it is thus manifest that the mails should be carried as cheaply, (if not cheaper,) with due regard to the profits of the contractors, on the American railroads, as on the English roads, the fact is nevertheless found to be, that "the highest rate of railroad compensation, in Great Britain, is only \$107 50 per mile annually, and the average rate but \$90. In the United States, more than \$300 are paid in many instances, and the average cost of railroad service exceeds \$143 a mile."\* On the great road from London to Liverpool, on which the great mails for Ireland, Scotland, the British Provinces in North America, and the United States are carried, the price per mile is \$107 50—distance 210 miles, and the speed is 23 miles per hour.†

\* House Report, U. S. House Rep. No. 483, p. 13, May 15, 1844.

† See Appendix to Postmaster-General's Report, Dec. 1840.



Route and Termini.	Ann. transportation. Miles.	Tot. cost per ann.	Cost p. m.
New York to Stonington, 125 miles,.....	78,000	\$10,700	13.0 cts.
New York to Norwich, 142 miles,.....	88,608	4,239	4.9 "
New York to New Haven, 80 miles,.....	49,920	8,000	16.0 "
Virginia—Washington to Aquia, 54 miles,.	39,312	12,752	32.4 "
“ Norfolk to Baltimore, 200 miles,	124,800	7,157	5.7 "
N. C.—Wilm'gton to Charleston, 170 miles,	123,760	37,500	30.3 "
Fla.—Chattahoochee to Apalach., 150 miles,	31,200	5,500	17.6 "
Mich.—St. Josephs to Chicago, 69 miles,....	43,056	2,900	6.7 "
Ky.—Cincinnati and Louisville, 132 miles,.	95,096	5,000	5.2 "

“Formerly,” says the postmaster-general in his annual report of November 1839, “the mail was carried six times a week between New York and New Haven, for \$4,000 per annum. At the last regular letting in that section, it was let for a daily service at \$6,000, with a proviso that if the company should be dissolved, the contract should be at an end. Last spring they gave notice of dissolution to the department. Their successors refused to continue the service for less than \$30,000 per annum. The department offered \$6,000 for six times a week service, and \$8,000 for daily, but the new company would not reduce their exorbitant demand to \$15,000, with the privilege of selecting their own hours for the service. Subsequently a temporary arrangement was made with a gentleman of great energy, to charter boats and put on another line for the purpose of conveying the mails. After making several efforts, he reported to the department, that although boats could be procured for any other service, so great was the fear of the principal owner upon the New Haven line, or so extensive a combination existed, that no suitable boat could be chartered, on any terms, to run on that line.”

But the most formidable antagonist of the department remains to be considered, although it has been distinctly adverted to already in our elucidation of the present depressed condition and prospect of the department's finances. We of course mean what are called the express mails, or private expresses, now organized and conducted with as much spirit as, and with far more economy than the government's mails. Various influences have grown up to produce this new arrangement. In fact, the very causes that have depressed and are still depressing the post-office department of the government, constitute the highest encouragements to the private mail or express system. The high rate of postage of the former, —the facilities of conveyance furnished by railroads—the rigorous and hair splitting spirit towards the people in which the post-office department has been administered—the partisan spirit imparted to postmasters, by the terms upon which alone appointments are known to be either obtained, or retained from the department, tend directly to the institution and support of the department's great rival. Without adding other data to the facts heretofore cited in this article touching the operations and effect of the private expresses upon the finances of the government's post-offices at each of the great cities in the eastern and middle states, we will only quote the emphatic results which both the majority and minority of the post-office committee of the House of Representatives of the last session of Congress announced to the country. The majority describe the private expresses as “of fatal tendency to the post-office department”—and as having already caused *its decay to commence*; and that, unless they are “assisted by vigorous legislation,” the department “must soon cease to exist as a self-sustaining institution,” &c.

The minority say, "it is clear that a crisis has arrived requiring decisive action. Temporizing expedients and half-way measures will not answer. Pressing evils demand an immediate and efficient remedy. What remedy shall be applied? *The first object to be accomplished, clearly, is, to get rid of the expresses, or private mails.* Any measure which will not accomplish this object, is unsuited to, or at least insufficient for, the occasion. We again repeat, that, in our opinion, the first thing to be accomplished is, to get rid of the expresses; and any sacrifice that may be necessary to accomplish this object, ought to be made unhesitatingly."

The majority and minority gentlemen of the House committee differed widely as to the *modus operandi*, in accomplishing the result which they united in presenting as the *sine qua non* of the post-office department's existence as a self-sustaining institution. The former proceed upon the pound of flesh principle—law-prosecutions, penalties, punishments, are their sole weapons, excepting, only, an abolition of the franking privilege. But in exchange for that, they require the department to recompense the national treasury for the salaries of all the officers and clerks of the general post-office establishment, heretofore paid out of the national, and not the department's treasury, \$165,000 per annum. "We propose to punish," say they, "the transaction [of private expresses,] in whatever form carried on or undertaken. Penalties are provided in the bill we submit, both against the person who sends, and the person who conveys, a letter out of the mail," &c. They also report adversely to any general reduction of postage.

The minority gentlemen adopt what we deem a more practical view of this difficulty. They repudiate the terrific system of force, penalties, &c., which the majority gentlemen are so tenacious of. They proceed upon the more christian principle of mild persuasion, blending with that the more human one of self-interest that actuates the mass of the people. "We believe," say they, "there is one way, and only one way, in which the department can be sustained, its popularity redeemed, its revenue restored, and its accommodations and benefits extended; and that is, by making it the safest, the cheapest, and the most expeditious mode of transmitting letters and intelligence."

Their panacea by which to accomplish all this lies in a reduction of postage down to the popular judgment; and then, say they, "if attempts are made to violate or evade the laws, their penalties, however severe, may be enforced, for the community will unite in their execution."

We think the minority gentlemen are much nearer right in these views, than are the majority in those expressed by them. But we do not believe the means suggested by either, are equal to the result which both have in view. If the Supreme Court of the United States shall ultimately adjudge to be valid the constitutional power claimed for the department, to exclude all competition in carrying mail matter in the country, (of which we entertain serious doubts, however desirable such power may be considered in the administration of government,) the effect will be to suppress, not to encourage, correspondence, while the rates of postage over any considerable routes should be disproportioned to the expense of private expresses. The business of the department, without the good will of the people, will never support it. If the court decides against the power, then we know there is no alternative but a reduction of postage, or an abandonment of the department, *in toto*.

But *can* the department afford to reduce the postage so low as will satisfy the people on the great business routes, and at the same time derive sufficient income to sustain its mails upon the great number of unproductive routes in the country? On this point we reluctantly differ from the expectations and conclusions of the minority gentlemen. One conclusion, then, is, that neither with, nor without, the aid of penal laws, and the requisite constitutional power to sustain them, the government can never compete on the profitable mail routes, with private expresses, or individual accommodations, at any rate of postage that shall be requisite to support the government's mails on the unprofitable routes, looking only to the means hitherto employed.

The truth is, the enterprise of the country has become too active for the old system of things. The best facilities the government mails can afford the densely populated portions of the country, are both too slow and too expensive to comport with the improvements and business necessities of modern times. New contrivances, and new elements of administration must be introduced, or the operations of government, in many things, and particularly in the post-office department, will be found quite too sluggish and expensive for the public taste and spirit, and individual enterprise will rob it of its perquisites, *by stealing the hearts of the people from it*. We all know, that during the late war with Great Britain, the efficiency of the government's vessels of war would not begin to compare with the efficiency of private armed vessels, or privateers, and no more did they in number. While, too, the latter did double the service of the former—made double the number of prisoners of war—captured immensely more of the enemy's property—the expense of them, to their managers, was not one third, and perhaps not one sixth, of the expense of the former. All this proves, that government enterprise is wholly unable, under its most advantageous promptings, to compare with private enterprise. It must be superior in power, and exclusive in the employment of means, to be equal in results with individuals. And, a government like ours, must also have the good will of the people, to be successful under any circumstances. This it is impossible to secure, while it makes them feel a sense of oppression, or extortion, or of unnecessary taxation.

What shall be done if this reasoning, and the data furnished, are to be taken as correct guides? The answer is, let the government bestir itself, and seize upon the resources which science and genius have developed at this crisis, and brought to maturity just at the moment when nothing short of an entirely new, and almost super-human agency can save the post-office department from destruction, and lift it once more above private competition. Give up the antiquated and anti-republican device of ruling the people by force—by penalties and punishments---and attach the people to the support of government by a liberal display of the benefit it is capable of conferring. The old theory of *ruling* the people has been supplanted by the new theory of *servng* the people; and he will find himself retrograding, and getting farther away from support by the people, who abandons the principle of the new theory, to return to that of the old one.

We have extended our article too far to demonstrate now, as we think may be done, the practicability, by recourse to proper agencies, and to proper reforms in old ones, of sustaining the franking privilege to the utmost extent needed---of reducing the rates of postage, at the same time, to the lowest standard hitherto sought by the people---of supplanting the

whole system of private mails and expresses---of placing the post-office department in a condition to accomplish every desired extension of mail transportation, annually, out of its own proper resources, and, of retaining the most complete monopoly of the whole mail service in the country; and this, without recourse to a single odious penalty, or act of punishment, towards any competitor. But we will return to the subject, and invoke upon our views the candid judgment of all business men.

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ART. V.—BRITISH BOUNTY ON MANUFACTURES.

IN the late excited election, a violent controversy has been carried on in the papers, relative to a protective tariff. It has been asserted in some of the leading public journals, the Boston Morning Post, in Boston, and other papers in New York, that no bounty had ever been paid by Great Britain upon the exportation of her manufactures. It is emphatically stated in those papers, that the bounty was merely a drawback of an excise, which was levied for revenue, on the exportation of the manufactures. As the tariff will soon be a subject of discussion in the Congress of the United States, it is of great importance that the truth should be known. It has a most important bearing upon a great national interest. It fully shows the policy of Great Britain, and how she has attained to such perfection in her manufactures. It explains the causes of the failure of so many manufacturing establishments in their infancy in this country. It shows the absolute necessity of a protective tariff at some periods of their establishment.

In the first instance, we propose to show it by the treaty of commerce with Great Britain of the 3d July, 1815, that these bounties were paid. In article 2d, it is stipulated, "that the same duties shall be paid, and the same *bounties* allowed on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of her Britannic Majesty's territory in Europe to the United States, whether such exportation shall take place in vessels of the United States, or British vessels, and in all cases where drawbacks are allowed upon the re-exportation of any goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, respectively, the amount of the drawbacks shall be the same.

But the speech of Nicholas Vonsittart, chancellor of the exchequer, in the House of Commons on the 17th June, 1812, in a debate upon the supplies, during the war with France, explains most fully the policy of the British government, with respect to manufactures. It is extracted from Cobbet's Parliamentary Debates, vol. 23, page 566.

"The first article he had to propose, was indeed one which appeared to him liable to very little objection, for in fact, it was a tax which would fall upon nobody, (a laugh.) Gentlemen may smile, but if it was in other respects unobjectionable, he trusted it would not be censured on that account. His proposition was to discontinue the bounty on the exportation of printed goods. The bounty had grown from a very small charge to a very large one, amounting upon an average for the last three years, to the sum of £308,000; a circumstance, in one respect, highly satisfactory, as it showed the great increase which had taken place in the exportation of those goods, but which showed at once, that the necessity

of granting this bounty had ceased, and that a considerable revenue might be derived from its suppression. The printed goods in question, from the improvement of the manufacturers, and the extensive use of machinery, could now be afforded much cheaper, without the bounty, than they formerly used to be with its assistance.

"The present state of the world, with respect to commerce, was peculiarly favorable to the discontinuance of the bounty system. Wherever British manufactures were permitted to enter, their superiority was universally acknowledged; when they did not find their way, it was not on account of their dearness or inferior quality, but because they were excluded by rigorous prohibitions. Whenever these might cease, the country might expect to see British manufactures spreading themselves over the continent without the assistance of bounties. That which it was now proposed to discontinue, amounted to no more than one half penny a yard on goods of the lowest quality, and three half pence on the highest; an amount much within the ordinary fluctuations from ordinary causes, and the loss of which could not operate as any discouragement to trade. To him, therefore, the proposition appeared free from all reasonable objection. His task would be easy, if he could have flattered himself that what he had still to propose, was equally unobjectionable; but of the remainder of his plan, he could only, as he had said before, indulge the hope that in the choice of evils, he had selected the least."

In this speech, we have the avowal of the chancellor of the exchequer, that four million six hundred and twenty thousand dollars were paid for bounty on printed goods in three years. A considerable bounty, at the same time, was paid upon the exportations of Irish linens, silk goods, glass, and many other articles. But their manufactures have now advanced to such perfection, that it has become unnecessary, and the law is repealed. For many years it was the settled policy of Great Britain to grant such bounties on the exportation of those manufactures, to which the industry of the country appeared to be directed. Many thousand dollars of this very bounty, have been received by the writer of this article, and twenty merchants, now resident in Boston, can be referred to, who have received from two to twenty thousand dollars a year, while the bounty was allowed.

An excise duty of  $3\frac{1}{2}d.$  the square yard was levied on printed cottons for revenue, which was returned to the exporter precisely in the same manner that a drawback of duties is now obtained here upon re-exportation. This was repeated some years after the peace with France. The payment of this bounty and debenture, which were paid directly to the exporter in money, stimulated greatly the exportation of printed cotton goods. We hazard nothing in the assertion, that no manufacturing establishment of the kind could have been sustained in the United States, or in Europe, where the goods were admitted. The amount of the bounty and debenture averaged about one hundred dollars on a case of printed cottons containing fifty pieces. In many instances the exporter received in money one half the value of the goods.

That the system has contributed to the advancement of British commerce and manufactures, there can be no question. It was by no means uniform, but adopted when pressed by foreign wars, or when necessary for the encouragement of a particular manufacture which required it.

The result is, that her manufactured exports much exceed, in amount, those of any nation of ancient or modern times.

However beneficial this system may have been to Great Britain at times, nothing similar has ever been proposed in this country. Indeed, the condition of the United States varies so essentially from that country, that it is difficult to imagine a case where it might be adopted with success.

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ART. VI.—ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE, BY RAILWAYS AND CANALS.

THE regular and steady increase in the consumption of hard coal, with the importance of still further reducing the price, to generate steam for manufactures in the upper part of the island of New York, renders it an interesting enquiry, as to the several avenues for supply.

In 1820, the Lehigh canal first brought to tide water, 365 tons of coal. In 1825, the Schuylkill canal to Pottsville, commenced with 5,306 tons; the Lehigh canal then having reached 28,393 tons. In 1829, the Delaware and Hudson canal was opened to the Lackawana region, and brought to market 7,000 tons, while the Lehigh and Schuylkill canals furnished 103,403 tons. In 1840-41, the Philadelphia and Reading railroad commenced its coal business, with 50,000 tons, when the above named canals had gradually increased these supplies to 958,000 tons. During the last year, these three channels furnished 1,201,852 tons. It is estimated that the supply this year will be 1,450,000 tons. Of this quantity, about 450,000 tons come by the Reading railroad, transported, to include freight and tolls, at \$1 25 per ton, a distance of 98 miles. This quantity does not supply the steady and increasing consumption.

The reduction in price, during the last year, equals in value \$2,000,000. This saving to the public has been produced by the competition of the Schuylkill canal, with the Reading railroad. This reduction in price, with the steady increase in our population, added to the use of this class of fuel, in steamboats and by the various manufactures in New England, and in the interior, from the decrease of the forest, renders it probable that the demand will increase as fast, or perhaps faster, than can be supplied by the canals at present in existence, unless we resort to "the better improvement of the age," *railways*. The several avenues from the anthracite coal fields, may be enumerated as follows:

In the state of New York, we have the Hudson and Delaware canal, that for the last two years has increased its supply of Lackawana coal from 111,777 tons of coal, to 227,605 tons during 1843, delivered at Roundout, on the Hudson. This coal is consumed largely by our steamboats, from its admirable qualities to produce flame and to generate steam. The improvement in the capacity of the Hudson and Delaware canal, and the class of boats navigating this avenue, 108 miles, with the railway to the mines, 18 miles, will probably give it a capacity of transporting 500,000 tons per annum.

The next canal, south of the Hudson and Delaware, is the Morris, which is 102 miles long. It extends from Jersey City to the Delaware, opposite to Easton, where it connects with the Lehigh canal. The Morris

Canal has twelve inclined planes, east of the summit, and eleven west of it, with numerous locks originally arranged to take pass boats of 27 tons. The summit is 950 feet above tide, or equal to 1,750 feet, ascending from the Delaware, and descending to the harbor of New York. This work has been purchased by some rich capitalists, who design to increase the locks, and to improve the planes and locks, so as to pass boats of 54 tons burthen—such as now pass through the Lehigh canal. It is supposed the demand for coal, to smelt the fine iron ore, on the line of this canal, will of itself pay an interest on its present cost, \$1,000,000; this sum being less than one-fourth of the capital originally invested in this costly undertaking.

On each side of the Morris canal, there are two railways projected, and partially finished, to compete for the same trade. The Morris and Essex railroad, on the north, is to be extended to the Wyoming Valley, through the Water Gap; and the Somerville railway—26 miles finished—on the south to Easton. This road is destined to reach the outlet of the Lehigh Valley, and is to be connected with the Schuylkill Valley. The distance from tide water, at Elizabethport, to Easton, by a late survey, is within 60 miles, and to Jersey City, 73 miles. The summit, on this route, is 550 feet above tide, and the ascent from Easton, in the first ten miles, will not exceed, at any one point, 45 feet to the mile. It will then be descending with no grade to tide water, greater than 27 feet to the mile. By increasing the distance ten miles, (if considered desirable, the policy of which may be doubted,) the summit will be reduced to 400 feet, and with no grade, from the Delaware to the Hudson river, over 27 feet to the mile.

The Somerville railway, being only 60 miles from the outlet of the Lehigh Valley to Elizabethport, and from its communicating direct with the harbor of New York, open at all seasons, while the canals are obstructed, on an average, five months in the year by ice, gives the railway the advantage over the canals, of one year in four. This, in the employment of capital, with the extra capacity of the railway in transportation, is all-important, to cheapen freights.

The next avenue, in the state of New Jersey, for the coal trade, is the Delaware and Raritan canal, 7 feet deep, by 70 feet wide. It has the capacity to float coasting vessels of 160 tons, from Brunswick to Trenton, on the Delaware. This canal has only 112 feet descent, overcome by 14 locks, from Easton to tide water at Brunswick. The feeder, from the Delaware to Trenton, the inlet of the Delaware and Raritan canal, is 22½ miles long, 6 feet deep, and 60 feet wide. It is adapted to the largest boats on the Lehigh canal. These boats average 55 to 60 tons. This important avenue assimilates to the Schuylkill canal, both in the size of boats admitted by the feeder, and in the current, favoring the descending trade.

Next in order, after leaving New Jersey, we have the Delaware canal, from Easton to Bristol, Pennsylvania. A selfish, sectional policy, has heretofore refused an outlet at Blackeddy's lock, to connect with the Delaware and Raritan canal.

The next most efficient canal, for the coal trade, has been the Schuylkill, 108 miles from Pottsville to the Permanent Bridge, Philadelphia. It has transported 584,692 tons per annum. The stock of this canal has been about 300 per cent above par, paying dividends as high as 20 per

cent, on a cost of about \$4,000,000. It has now intermitted its dividends three years, in its contest with the Philadelphia and Reading railroad. The stock has fallen below par, while the railway, still much below par, owing to its original extravagant first cost, is steadily on the advance. The capacity of this canal is about 7,000,000 tons per annum.

The most important avenue, in our view, for the coal trade, owing to its level, or descending grade from the mines at Pottsville, is the Philadelphia and Reading railroad. It is 98 miles from Pottsville to the depot at Richmond, on the Delaware, where there are facilities to load daily 30 or 40 coasters, and an equal number of canal boats to pass up to Trenton, and from thence by the Delaware and Raritan canal, to New York. The wharfage room and tracks for turnouts, &c., to save labor, covers 40 acres of land, a consideration of no small importance to economise labor, in the handling of coal, prior to discharging it from the trains into the holds of the loading vessels.

Such has been the late improvements in the locomotive engine, also in the construction of sheet iron freight cars, competent to carry five tons each, in trains, over this road, of 100 to 150 cars, drawn by one locomotive, that, everything considered, it has been demonstrated this railway has an advantage, in capacity and for cheap transportation, over the Schuylkill canal. From this, we may argue that the Somerville railway, if judiciously located and constructed, with a heavy edge road, of at least 60 pounds to the lineal yard, will, in a sharp competition, be superior and have advantages over the Delaware and Raritan canal, when it becomes a question of mere remuneration for labor to the miner, and to those who transport it, at a period when the supply exceeds the demand. In this contest, between the railways and canals, it is safe to calculate that the day is not distant, when the price of hard coal, delivered in New York harbor, will not exceed \$3 per ton.

That some idea may be formed of what the Philadelphia and Reading railway has done, and the Elizabethport and Somerville railway may do, taking into consideration the difference in grade, and distance to the New York market, the following statement is made of the expense of transporting 750 tons, of 2,240 lbs. each, over the Philadelphia and Reading railroad.

The expenses are calculated to keep the motive power, cars and engines, in perpetual repair. The rates are liberal and ample. To this estimate of cost of haulage, is to be added, first, the cost per mile per annum, to keep the perishable part of the road, the superstructure, in perpetual repair, also the road bed. Experience in this country shows that these items need not exceed \$500 to \$900 per annum. Then we have to make an allowance to the stockholders, of say 6 per cent on their outlay of capital, for the cost of the road. It will be perceived the cost of motive power, for the load of 750 tons drawn by the Ontario locomotive, is only \$118 10, a fraction less than 16 cents, for drawing a ton of coal 98 miles. Where is the canal that can compete with this?

We learn that Messrs. Baldwin & Whittings, and we believe also the Messrs. Norris & Brothers, have offered to guarantee that their improved engine of 16½ tons, with six wheels, all rivers, such as the Ontario, will haul daily, as a regular business, over the Reading railroad, trains of 100 cars with 500 tons of coal, at the rate of ten miles per hour, at twenty-

five cents for the cost of motive power, keeping the engine and cars in perpetual repair.

As the Reading railroad has now a double track, and with a view that some idea may be formed of the capacity of this road to furnish coal for market, when supplied with an adequate motive power, the following calculation is made. If a train is started every hour in the day—24 hours,—with 500 tons, the road would transport 12,000 tons per diem. This 313 days, gives the enormous quantity of 3,756,000 tons per annum. With Morse's telegraph, and with surplus motive power at the stations, to meet contingencies, trains could be safely started every 40 minutes. This would give about 5,000,000 tons per annum, provided every thing was kept in order, the coal could be mined, and no accident took place.

The cost of transporting a load of 750 tons by the Ontario locomotive referred to, for motive power, is stated to have been as follows, allowing two days for the trip, with a single track and turn outs. Now there is a double track; the trip up and down can be performed in one day, although 100 miles is a good day's work for the engine driver, to keep his engine and tender in repair. With an increase of motive power, which we learn is progressing regularly, under Eastern management and capital, there will be no difficulty for this company to transport, during 1845, 1,000,000 of tons, if there is labor to mine that quantity.

COST OF MOTIVE POWER, READING RAILROAD—ITEMS OF EXPENSE.

1 engine driver, 2 days, at \$2 per day,.....	\$4 00
2 firemen, 2 " " 1 25 per day,.....	5 00
1 conductor, 2 " " 1 30 " .....	2 60
10 brake-men, 2 " " 75 " .....	15 00
Fuel,.....	22 00
Oil for engine and tender, per trip,.....	3 00
Repairs to do., say 200 miles, at 5 cents per mile,.....	10 00
Repairs to 150 cars, with 750 tons, at 5 cents per ton,.....	37 50
Oil and grease for cars, with 750 tons, at 1 1-5 cents,.....	9 00
Supplying water,.....	1 00
Proportion of assisting engine, 1 mile, with 42 feet grades,.....	3 00
Extras,.....	6 00
Total,.....	\$118 10
Making 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents for a ton, 100 miles.	

If the above statement is correct, and we believe it to be so, from the best authority, can the Erie canal, the most favored, compete with this railway? We trust the friends of the Erie canal, and the canal policy of New York, will at all events permit a law to pass, by which the railways by its side may be permitted to carry freight the entire year, paying canal tolls, although this is an unjust tax on private enterprise. Motive power is too costly to provide it for five months' business in the winter, after the canal has carried the bulk of the produce, if they are to be charged by the state \$2 per ton, the present charge on merchandise for tolls for each 100 miles, and \$1 on agricultural and other products, for the gross ton of 2,240 pounds.

J. E. B.

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

## NUMBER IV.\*

1774. *British Government, provoked by the destruction of the Tea, passes the Boston Port Bill, &c.*—Intelligence of the destruction of the tea at Boston was communicated, on the 7th of March, in a message from the throne, to both Houses of Parliament. In this communication, the conduct of the colonists was represented, as not merely obstructing the commerce of Great Britain, but as subversive of the British constitution. Although the papers, accompanying the royal message, rendered it evident that the opposition to the sale of the tea was common to all the colonies, yet the Parliament, enraged at the violence of Boston, selected that town as the object of legislative vengeance. Without giving the opportunity of a hearing, a bill was passed, by which the port of Boston was legally precluded from the privilege of landing and discharging, or of lading and shipping goods, wares and merchandise; and every vessel within the points Alderton and Nahant, was required to depart within six hours, unless laden with food or fuel. This act, which shut up the harbor of Boston, was speedily followed by another, entitled "an act for the better regulating the government of Massachusetts." The object of this act was to alter the charter of the province, so as essentially to abridge the liberties of the people. In the apprehension that, in the execution of these acts, riots would take place, and that trials or murders, committed in suppressing them, would be partially decided by the colonists, it was provided by law, that if any person were indicted for murder, or for any capital offence committed in aiding magistracy, the governor might send the person, so indicted, to another colony or to Great Britain, to be tried. These three acts were passed in such quick succession, as to produce the most inflammatory effects in America, where they were considered as forming a complete system of tyranny. "By the first," said the colonists, "the property of unoffending thousands is arbitrarily taken away, for the act of a few individuals; by the second, our chartered liberties are annihilated; and, by the third, our lives may be destroyed with impunity."

The port bill arriving in different parts of the colonies, copies of it were multiplied and circulated with incredible dispatch, and excited universal indignation. At Philadelphia, a subscription was set on foot for such poor inhabitants of Boston, as should be deprived of the means of subsistence by the operation of the act. The Virginia House of Burgesses resolved, that the 1st day of June, the day on which the operation of the port bill was to commence, should be set apart by the members as a day of fasting, humiliation and prayer, "devoutly to implore the divine interposition, for averting the heavy calamity which threatened destruction to their civil rights and the evils of a civil war; to give them one heart and one mind, firmly to oppose, by all just and proper means, every injury to the American rights." On the publication of this resolution, the royal governor, the earl of Dunmore, dissolved them; but, previously to their separation, eighty-nine of the members signed an agreement, in which they declared, "that an attack, made on one of our sister colonies, to compel submission to arbitrary taxes, is an attack made on all British America, and threatens ruin to the rights of all, unless the united wisdom of the whole be applied." They also recommended to the committee of

\* Continued from 1773, Merchants' Magazine, for October, 1844, pp. 350 to 352.

correspondence, to communicate with the several committees of the other colonies, on the expediency of appointing deputies to meet annually in general Congress, to deliberate on those measures which the united interest of America might from time to time require.

On the day designated by the port act, business was finished at Boston, at twelve o'clock at noon, and the harbor shut up against all vessels. The day was devoutly kept at Williamsburgh, in Virginia, as a day of fasting and humiliation. In Philadelphia, it was solemnized with every manifestation of public grief; the inhabitants shut up their houses, and, after divine service, "a stillness reigned over the city which exhibited an appearance of the deepest distress." In other places, it was observed as a day of mourning.

1775. *Bill for restraining the Commerce of New England.*—The prime minister, Lord North, moved for leave to bring in a bill to restrain the trade and commerce of the provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, to Great Britain, Ireland, and the British islands in the West Indies; and to prohibit those provinces from carrying on any fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, and other places to be mentioned in the bill, under certain conditions, and for a limited time. After much opposition, in both houses, the bill was ratified by a great majority.

### MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE state of the markets, generally, has been powerfully affected during the month of November; in part by the result of the elections, assisted by the position of the cotton market, and the movement of the government funds with the deposit banks, simultaneously with the quarterly contraction of the New York banks, preparatory to their return of November 1. We have remarked, in former numbers, that money has, for eighteen months, been generally plenty; and that the banking institutions, in justice to themselves, have uniformly struggled to obtain a high rate for money. In this, they have occasionally succeeded. In November, 1843, money was at  $3\frac{1}{2}$  a 4 per cent; in February, it was worked up to 7 per cent. It subsequently fell to 4 per cent. In June, it was again at 7 per cent. It again became easy; and, in November, 7 per cent was again the rate. These fluctuations arose from the fact that, when the banks succeeded in obtaining a high rate, individual capital and funds from the neighborhood immediately flowed in for employment, and the increased supply reduced the rate. In the course of this struggle, however, the liabilities of the banks have been considerably increased.

#### IMMEDIATE MEANS AND LIABILITIES OF THE NEW YORK BANKS.

	<i>Immediate Liabilities.</i>			
	August, 1843.	Nov., 1843.	August, 1844.	Nov., 1844.
Deposits,.....	\$24,679,230	\$27,389,160	\$28,757,122	\$30,391,622
Nett circulation,.....	9,383,534	12,952,055	15,349,205	17,647,182
Due banks,.....	9,611,940	4,941,514	7,744,118	5,664,110
Canal fund,.....	741,382	1,157,203	1,210,794	1,534,553
United States,.....	4,033,385	1,645,320	3,674,171	3,786,261
Total,.....	\$48,449,471	\$48,085,252	\$56,735,410	\$58,023,728
	<i>Immediate Means.</i>			
Specie,.....	\$14,091,779	\$11,502,789	\$10,191,974	\$8,968,092
Cash items,.....	2,734,417	3,102,856	4,916,862	6,047,528
Total,.....	\$16,826,196	\$14,605,645	\$15,108,836	\$15,015,620
Loans,.....	58,593,081	61,514,129	71,643,929	73,091,788

From August, 1843, to 1st November, a gradual extension of loans took place, amounting to \$14,498,707, or 25 per cent of the loans then outstanding; while cash means have diminished near \$2,000,000, or 12 per cent. The nett circulation of the banks, or the actual amount of money put afloat by them, has increased \$8,300,000—a very considerable increase. The loans of the state banks, on the 1st November, were higher than ever before, with the single exception of the January return for 1837, just prior to the suspension. While this increase of business has been going on, the import trade has considerably increased; creating a demand for money, to some extent, for mercantile purposes, at the same time that it has drawn from the importers of New York, into the federal treasury, over \$20,000,000; of which \$13,820,251 was on deposit with government banks on the 1st of November. This government money was, to a considerable extent, employed by the banks in making their loans; and, as it was deposited in four banks alternately, the successive contractions each was obliged to make, as the money was withdrawn, enabled others to advance the rate on their old loans “at call.” The imports into the port of New York have been, for ten months, as follows:—

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Dutiable Goods.	Free Goods.	Total.
January to July,.....	\$32,023,702	\$6,656,260	\$38,679,962
July,.....	6,543,331	707,952	7,251,283
August,.....	9,537,279	1,121,221	10,658,500
September,.....	7,846,050	825,843	8,631,893
October,.....	3,913,283	697,384	4,610,667
Total,.....	\$59,863,645	\$10,008,660	\$69,832,305

The fall trade did not meet the anticipation of the importers, and the imports of goods fell off very rapidly—notwithstanding which, the demand for bills, for remittance, continued good, and the rate of sterling bills firmly maintained. Money, however, being much higher in value in the United States than in England, leading houses were disposed to supply the market with bills at 10 per cent. From September to December, is usually the season of the year when the supply of bills is the smallest, and the demand the greatest. Therefore, if at any period of the year shipments of specie take place, it is in that quarter. At this juncture, the continued fall of cotton abroad occasioned a failure, and the return of some bills. These, although of small amount, and promptly taken, served to make remitters cautious of cotton bills, and rather disposed to give a higher rate for specie than to risk the inconvenience of return bills. The demand for remittance was also increased by the foreclosure of the Holland lien upon the Morris canal. This loan, amounting to \$900,000, was contracted several years since, and secured by a mortgage upon the canal, and the whole franchise of the company. The canal cost over \$4,000,000, and was sold out, under the foreclosure of this mortgage, for some \$1,000,000, and purchased by some sagacious capitalists of New York, who appreciated the value of the work. The amount paid over to the Holland agent being promptly remitted, occasioned an important demand for bills at a moment when the supply was the most limited; and specie, to some extent, was sent forward, probably reaching an excess of export, for the year ending November, of \$1,000,000. This rise in bills, and export of specie, took place simultaneously with the usual contraction of the New York banks, preparatory to making up their November returns, and also with a removal of the deposits of the federal government; which, having ranged as high as \$6,000,000, were suddenly removed to other quarters, (mostly to Boston,) in alleged preparation for the redemption of the stock due in January, 1845. That stock consists as follows:—

Date of Loan.	Redeemable.	Rate of Interest.	Amount.
September, 1841,.....	January, 1845.	5½	\$3,213,000
September, 1841,.....	January, 1845.	6	2,439,000
Total,.....			\$5,652,000

This loan was taken mostly in New York and Boston, at a time when the government distress was very great, and when exchanges were adverse, in consequence of the large imports of the year ending September 30, 1841. During the past year, as is well known, the revenues have been large, and a considerable surplus has accumulated in banks; and, by official returns, has been distributed as follows:—

Banks.	UNITED STATES DEPOSITS.				
	June 24.	July 29.	Aug. 26.	Sept. 23.	Oct. 28.
New York,.....	\$4,388,161	\$5,274,229	\$6,103,501	\$6,335,135	\$5,372,005
Boston,.....	1,516,585	1,403,321	1,772,685	1,989,116	2,138,297
Philadelphia,.....	688,843	944,254	1,036,885	917,125	927,711
Washington,.....	455,757	477,946	495,719	803,081	1,310,382
Corcoran & Riggs,...	.....	.....	.....	949,974	1,199,996
New Orleans,.....	92,668	264,951	254,966	253,314	296,379
Detroit,.....	96,096	131,488	170,748	243,031	195,024
All other,.....	1,213,326	1,532,623	1,836,491	2,384,515	2,380,457
Total,.....	\$8,747,463	\$10,029,612	\$11,520,995	\$13,875,291	\$13,820,251

In June, the New York banks held one-half the whole, which was less than their proportion; because the importers of New York pay into the federal treasury two-thirds of the whole customs. The duties so paid are an advance to the government, by the importers, of the duties intended to be levied upon the goods when consumed. It is money taken directly from the capital employed in commerce. If, therefore, a surplus accumulates beyond the immediate wants of commerce, it is clearly an act of justice that that surplus should be placed in a position to be re-loaned to those that paid it in. To do this in a just manner, the money should be deposited, *pro rata*, among all those banks of the city, the customers of which pay the duties. Instead of pursuing this evidently just and easy course, the department has placed the deposits with four banks, only—two chartered, and two free banks. The chartered banks are restricted in their loans, by a law of the state of New York, to a sum equal to twice and a half their capitals. The free banks are unrestricted. These deposits have been made as follows:—

## UNITED STATES DEPOSITS IN NEW YORK CITY.

	Chartered Banks.		Free Banks.			
	B'k of Amer. Merchants'.	Total.	B. Com'rce.	Am. Ex. B.	Total.	
June 24,.....	\$1,327,519	\$1,066,890	\$2,494,409	\$1,870,472	\$119,280	\$1,989,750
July 29,.....	1,189,256	1,881,426	3,070,682	1,206,277	997,280	2,203,557
Aug. 26,.....	1,257,436	1,440,126	2,697,662	1,275,356	870,583	2,105,939
Sept. 23,.....	1,263,312	1,070,104	2,303,416	2,001,847	1,999,867	4,001,716
Oct. 28,.....	1,552,551	1,382,146	2,934,697	1,480,876	956,432	2,437,308

The amount with the two chartered banks has remained very uniform; while that with the free banks has fluctuated to a very great extent; probably owing to the fact that they were the recipients of the customs for August and September, when the duties were uncommonly large. The loans of these banks have been as follows:—

	Chartered.		Free.			
	B'k of Amer. Merchants'.	Total.	B'k Com'rce.	Am. Ex. Bk.	Total.	
Capital,.....	\$2,001,200	\$1,490,000	\$3,491,200	\$3,271,000	\$1,155,400	\$4,426,400
July, 1841,.....	1,168,636	2,012,300	3,180,936	4,104,882	1,160,637	5,265,519
January, 1842,.	2,029,002	1,713,659	3,742,661	2,539,164	1,008,164	3,547,328
July, 1842,.....	1,890,106	1,811,000	3,701,106	4,476,139	1,374,382	5,850,521
January, 1843,.	3,058,149	1,960,923	5,019,072	2,777,997	1,458,904	4,236,901
August, 1843,.	3,646,443	3,786,240	7,432,683	2,848,265	2,349,175	5,198,440
Nov'r, 1843,...	3,213,398	3,637,713	6,851,111	3,005,514	2,457,597	5,463,111
February, 1844,	3,312,032	3,763,523	7,075,555	3,754,747	2,515,217	6,269,964
May, 1844,....	4,037,292	3,763,713	7,801,005	4,602,942	2,614,846	7,217,788
August, 1844,.	4,566,147	3,768,323	8,334,470	3,918,658	2,861,320	6,779,978
Nov'r, 1844,....	4,384,852	3,381,354	7,766,206	4,275,113	2,821,979	7,097,092

The American Exchange bank became a deposit bank in July last; and it appears that, in September, the government deposits with the two free banks nearly equalled their ca-

pitals. The same was the case with the two chartered banks, in July and in October. The loans of these two latter banks, in August last, reached the utmost limits of the state laws, viz: twice and one-half the capitals. The deposits with the American Exchange bank, in August, exceeded its capital by 30 per cent. Now, when the deposits in an institution like this fluctuate from \$119,230 to near \$2,000,000, in three months, a convulsion in the market is inevitable, because such a bank will not receive the money without using it; and, by pouring \$2,000,000 into one channel of business, it affects the price of money; and, when again withdrawn by government requisitions, distress is the result. Now, based upon government deposits, these four banks have, within the year, increased their loans 16 to 25 per cent. During the last quarter of the year, a competition sprang up among individuals and banks, for the possession of the public money. The four New York city deposit banks, at the close of the last session of Congress, procured the passage of a bill making them the exclusive depositories for the city of New York. Hence, as the surplus accumulated, near \$4,000,000 was drawn from the city of New York, and placed elsewhere. It appears, in the above table, that the deposits at Washington increased from \$455,000 in June, to \$2,510,378 in October; of which amount, near one-half was deposited with an individual broker's house. At the same time, in consequence of reduced imports, the customs had considerably diminished. The means of the New York banks to sustain their loans were thus gradually diminished, until, in November, a considerable portion of the remaining deposits were removed to Boston, to meet that portion of the loan due in January. This removal of the deposits, contraction of the banks, and export of specie, occurred at a moment when the result of the elections had been such as to induce large sales of stocks, that had been previously purchased on speculation. These events produced a kind of panic, and stocks fell heavily; contributing to the gloomy feeling among a portion of the community, consequent upon the disappointment of the bright anticipations they had entertained from a different result of the elections.

The revenue and expenditure of the federal government, during the past year, have been, from official quarterly statements, as follows:—

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1844.

	Six months, to April 1.	Quarter end- ing July 30.	Quarter ending Sept. 30.	Total.
Customs,.....	\$11,470,416	\$8,471,000	\$10,750,000	\$30,691,416
Lands,.....	1,137,814	500,500	450,000	2,088,314
Miscellaneous,.....	70,537	50,000	25,500	146,037
Loan of 1843,.....	4,241	.....	.....	4,241
Treasury notes,.....	1,919,800	25,000	.....	1,944,800
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>\$14,602,798</b>	<b>\$9,046,500</b>	<b>\$11,225,500</b>	<b>\$34,874,798</b>
<i>Expenses.</i>				
Civil, mis., foreign,.....	\$3,016,569	\$1,280,778	\$1,411,052	\$5,708,399
Military,.....	3,621,513	1,692,978	3,277,996	7,592,487
Naval,.....	2,825,482	1,300,481	1,906,206	6,032,169
Interest of debt,.....	551,879	537,808	81,404	1,171,091
Paid loan of 1841,.....	.....	.....	234,600	234,600
Treas. notes and interest,...	3,403,963	1,063,983	322,584	4,790,530
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>\$13,419,406</b>	<b>\$5,876,038</b>	<b>\$7,233,844</b>	<b>\$25,529,176</b>
Excess revenue,.....	1,183,392	3,170,462	3,991,656	9,345,622

This abundant revenue was derived from the customs almost altogether, which continued large up to the close of September, being near \$11,000,000 in the last quarter. The imports, however, then suddenly declined, and the receipts for October were about \$1,400,000 only, or near \$1,000,000 less than the current expenses. Should this rate of decrease continue, the available surplus, after paying the outstanding loans and treasury notes, will be entirely absorbed; and, in November, a farther falling off was manifest. The state of the markets now, is by no means such as to warrant a renewal of imports to any considerable

extent; and, therefore, the diminution of the revenue may lead to the modification of those duties which now act in a prohibitive manner. No great and radical change is to be apprehended in the general policy of the country. It is to be hoped that the great desideratum of permanency will be the object aimed at; and, to attain it, it is undoubtedly necessary that such portions, if any there be, of the present regulations, as are ultra in their general character, should be modified; taking great care not to run into the opposite extreme, in order to induce renewed clamor for change. With these single exceptions, we do not see anything in the political horizon likely to interfere with the general advance in commercial prosperity. So far as Mexico is concerned, its government is in some shape bound to its people to retake Texas. The executive, a military chief, depending upon his popularity, is placed in an awkward position, when his whole power is unequal to the conquest of a revolted province. The annexation of that province to a powerful neighbor is, therefore, to him, only an extrication from a difficult position. On the other hand, it is known that Great Britain has long been insidiously advancing to the possession of Cuba. France is continually extending itself in Africa; and the advance of the United States boundary to Mexico proper, may be looked upon as a good pretext for the acquisition of Cuba, by England, either by purchase or otherwise—an event which would, indeed, involve serious consequences. It is, however, remote in its results, and dependent for its consummation upon many contingencies. Cuba is the garden of the world; and, under an independent, republican government, would ultimately rival even England, in power and wealth. Its resources are now drawn from it in tribute to its European oppressors, to the extent of some \$5,000,000 per annum; an operation which, in time, would exhaust even the exorbitant wealth of Britain. The progress of Cuba has, notwithstanding, been as follows, in the last 14 years:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Tot. im. and ex.	Customs.	Pop.
1826,.....	\$14,925,754	\$13,809,838	\$28,735,592	\$3,244,000	704,487
1842,.....	24,637,527	26,684,701	51,322,228	6,005,632	1,008,624
Increase,....	\$9,711,773	\$12,874,863	\$22,586,636	\$2,761,632	303,137

The currency of the island is metallic, and its quantity may be estimated from the fact that, in 1841, the government, to remedy the evils incident upon a depreciated currency, passing at a nominal value, called in all the outstanding pistareens, and stamped them to pass at five to the dollar, instead of four to the dollar. The amount called in in consequence, was as follows:—

	At Havana.	Principe.	Santiago.	Total.
Received,.....	\$3,413,531	\$963,840	\$775,717	\$6,153,088
Paid out,.....	2,761,512	794,321	632,507	4,188,340
Loss,.....	\$652,019	\$169,519	\$143,210	\$964,748

The excess of imports over exports, of the precious metals, for the eleven years, up to 1843, was as follows:—

	Imports.	Exports.	Excess exp'ts.	Excess imp.
Gold,.....	\$9,543,876	\$3,077,487	.....	\$6,466,389
Silver,.....	7,107,818	7,617,599	\$509,781	.....
Total,...	\$16,651,694	\$10,795,086	.....	\$5,856,608

This excess of imports, added to the pistareens, gives a currency of \$10,044,948. There was probably two to three millions of gold in the island when this table of imports commenced; in which case, the coin of the island would be full \$12,000,000, or \$24 per head of the free population—an immense proportion. The United States has progressed, in the same time, in the following proportion:—

Years.	Import.	Export.	Total.	Customs.	Population.
1826,.....	\$84,974,477	\$77,595,322	\$162,569,799	\$26,093,373	11,392,423
1842,.....	100,162,087	104,691,534	104,853,621	15,865,913	18,264,514
Increase,....	\$15,187,614	\$27,096,212	\$42,283,822	.....	6,872,091
Decrease,....	.....	.....	.....	\$10,227,460	.....

The population of the United States increased in a greater proportion than that of Cuba; but the wealth of Cuba, which consists in its exportable productions, increased nearly 100 per cent, while those of the United States increased but 30 per cent. The population of the United States is now 19,000,000, and the specie in the country has been estimated as low as \$80,000,000. It is, however, fully \$100,000,000, or \$6 per head for the free population—about one-fourth that of Cuba. This comparison serves to show the vast and growing importance of the island of Cuba, and the great temptation it presents to the proverbially grasping ambition of England; whose emissaries, last spring, convulsed the island by their machinations, and brought hundreds of their wretched dupes to the scaffold. The possession of Texas by the United States will be resisted by England only to enhance the importance of the precedent, when events shall have given her the opportunity to seize Cuba. This attempt will lead to difficulties that are now remote, and cannot be brought to bear upon the current of commercial events. The reckless and unscrupulous ambition of English statesmen will lead them to make the attempt; but the onward progress of human liberty and popular rights must prevent Cuba from becoming the vassal of England, when it shall have cast off the yoke of Spain. The internal natural wealth and resources of Cuba are equal to those of England; and time, and good government, will make it her equal—not her vassal.

Apart from political movements, everything presents the appearance of a more lasting season of greater prosperity than ever before in this country. Its actual capital is greater—the commercial debts of individuals, at home and abroad, were never less. The means of internal communication are numerous, cheap, and continually improving. There exist no systematic means by which immense imports of goods can be made for successive years, until the accumulated credits burst in an avalanche, sweeping everything to insolvency. On the other hand, produce of all kinds is exceedingly abundant, and at prices which cannot now well be decreased; while the state of affairs in Europe is such as to warrant the expectation of a largely increased consumption of American produce. Nothing is more indicative of reviving trade, and increased consumption of goods in England, than the improvement in indirect taxes, or those taxes imposed on consumable goods. These are of two classes—the customs duties, or those levied upon foreign goods brought into the country; and excise, or internal taxes, levied upon articles produced in England. Whenever, through a failure of the crops, money becomes scarce, and the demand for labor diminished, the consumption of these articles is lessened, and the government revenue sensibly affected. In the years 1836–38, the revenues of Great Britain yielded a surplus. The failure of the harvest of 1838 immediately wrought a change, and there was a yearly deficit so large, as to induce the imposition of new duties, estimated to yield £5,000,000 per annum. From the causes mentioned, however, viz: diminished consumption of the dutiable articles, the taxes failed to increase the revenue. In the succeeding year, the government was compelled to resort to the unpopular expedient of a direct tax upon incomes, which has yielded the desired amount; and during the last year, in consequence of the improving state of business generally, a surplus has again been produced, and appropriated to the payment of the public debt. The progress of the taxes has been as follows:—

REVENUES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Customs.	Excise.	Taxes.	Prop. Tax.	Stamps.
1836,.....	£23,045,668	£15,719,423	£2,722,601	none.	£7,350,377
1839,.....	22,365,340	14,750,521	2,718,847	none.	7,212,488
1841,.....	19,485,217	12,868,014	4,389,692	none.	6,687,575
1842,.....	19,656,495	12,124,566	4,297,439	£313,844	6,547,863
1843,.....	18,520,340	11,786,044	4,207,792	5,052,057	6,464,256
1844,.....	20,243,505	11,959,942	4,204,855	5,258,470	6,533,335

A very marked improvement is perceptible in the customs, and the excise has again resumed its upward tendency, after the important decline of 20 per cent since 1839, show-

ing a very great improvement in the condition of the people, generally—an indication of a continued increased consumption of manufactured goods. The exports of British manufactures have been still more marked, as follows:—

## EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coals and culm,.....	£451,209	£556,676	£476,260	£417,095
Cotton manufactures,.....	11,038,895	9,410,035	10,702,438	12,792,034
“ yarn,.....	4,599,976	4,909,030	4,760,443	4,733,764
Earthenware,.....	413,618	382,451	405,134	528,436
Glass,.....	312,740	216,494	230,273	275,947
Hardwares and cutlery,.....	1,129,455	934,268	1,099,766	1,438,298
Linen manufactures,.....	2,379,910	1,640,268	1,852,709	2,111,821
“ yarn,.....	622,474	703,933	571,249	664,730
Iron and steel,.....	1,996,483	1,742,280	1,700,703	2,326,828
Copper and brass,.....	1,021,441	1,197,848	1,153,729	1,214,198
Lead,.....	132,771	243,957	200,225	204,271
Tin, in bars,.....	30,076	127,681	77,084	47,123
Tin plate,.....	257,559	238,065	273,827	344,564
Silk manufactures,.....	585,648	415,764	448,088	547,164
Sugar, refined,.....	371,725	295,277	272,779	230,892
Wool, sheep and lamb's,....	374,313	351,146	283,199	377,048
Woollen yarn,.....	299,086	350,223	371,991	612,393
Woollen manufactures,.....	4,177,187	3,461,707	4,574,212	6,152,880
Total, to Sept. 5,.....	£30,404,468	£27,177,123	£29,456,109	£35,019,488
“ Aug. 5,.....	25,965,693	23,407,117	25,269,977	29,630,439
Month of August,.....	£4,438,775	£3,770,006	£4,186,132	£5,389,049

The business for the month of August was 25 per cent larger than even in the year 1841. The most marked improvement has been in woollen and cotton goods. The progress of the exports of cotton goods and yarns has been as follows:—

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
First six months,.....	£11,199,736	£10,506,378	£11,282,826	£12,107,444
July,.....	2,356,797	1,864,651	2,045,663	2,577,631
August,.....	2,082,338	1,948,036	2,134,387	2,840,723
Total, 6 months,.....	£15,638,871	£14,319,065	£15,462,876	£17,525,798

The exports of cotton goods have, it appears, for the last eighteen months, continually increased; having risen from an average of £1,860,435, in the first six months of 1843, to £2,840,723, in the month of August. The raw cotton taken for consumption has, in the meantime, been as follows:—

## COTTON TAKEN FOR CONSUMPTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
British possessions,.....lbs.	33,068,866	45,571,026	30,315,405	43,378,403
Foreign,.....	282,847,171	312,223,404	430,774,458	359,133,720
Total,.....	315,916,037	357,794,430	461,089,863	402,512,123

Notwithstanding the largely increased consumption of cottons, the purchases of the spinners, it appears, have been less than last year—a fact which would indicate that the stocks in spinners' hands must be very low, and that they must soon recommence the purchases; and, with the abundance of money there, a rise in prices may be expected.

## MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, (NEW YORK,) BEFORE JUDGE BETTS.

EDWARD WIGHT, WILLIAM STURGIS, AND WILLIAM SHAW, vs. EDWARD CURTIS.

No act of Congress having designated any form or mode of proof to be made, of damage to goods on the voyage of importation, to lay the foundation for an appraisement, the collector is bound to order it on reasonable evidence of such damage.

If he does not object to the form of proof when presented, he cannot raise such objection at the time when sued for not calling such appraisement.

A request to the collector to have an appraisement by merchants, appointed pursuant to the act of 1799, is to be regarded an application to have it made according to the existing law.

The 52d section of the act of March 2, 1799, does not require a survey of goods, damaged on the voyage of importation, to be made previous to an appraisement of damages for the purpose of an abatement of duties.

If such survey is necessary, the master and wardens of the port are not "the proper officers," within the meaning of the act, to make it.

After a collector has ordered goods to a public store, because of damage on the voyage of importation, he has no authority to require a survey of such goods, in order to their appraisement.

When an appraisement is refused, the deterioration of the goods may be proved by witnesses; and the collector is liable, in an action for damages, to pay the difference between the duties exacted by him, and those the goods ought to have been charged with.

In the decision of this case, I shall forbear the review of several topics, discussed with great fulness and learning. Under the construction I give the 52d section of the act of 1799, it does not become necessary to consider the origin of the powers of the port-wardens of this port, or the just extent of those powers under the statutes of the state, or the conveniency or fitness of the usage prevailing with the custom-house here, to call for their official certificates in cases of goods damaged on the voyage of importation, for which a deduction of duties shall be claimed; nor to investigate and determine the right of marine surveyors, under private appointment, to perform that service.

The facts presenting the question in contestation between the parties, are, that the ship *Sheffield*, when coming into this port in November, 1843, and in charge of a pilot, grounded in a heavy wind, and filled and sunk. She was subsequently raised, and towed to the city, and her cargo unladen; and, by consent, and at the instance of the parties interested, it was ordered by the collector to be deposited in a public store-house. The dutiable goods of the libellants, on board the ship, were damaged by sea-water on the occasion, to the amount of 60 per cent on their value. The libellants produced certificates of the port-wardens of surveys of all their packages, except one; and asked, and had allowed them by the collector, an appraisement of the damages so incurred by those packages. In respect to the package in question, the libellants offered to the collector the sworn survey and appraisement of Alexander Cartwright, (representing himself to be a person "selected by the parties interested, to survey, appraise, arbitrate, and judge of vessels and goods arriving damaged, or becoming damaged in the port of Yew York,") certifying that he had taken a strict and careful survey of the goods in question, and found them to have been damaged on the voyage of importation. Also, the deposition of the master of the ship, proving the wreck, and injury to the cargo in consequence.

An exception was taken, on the argument, to the admissibility of this deposition, because the attestation was taken before a state magistrate, not authorized to administer oaths to be used in the United States tribunals. I think this objection cannot prevail; for the attestation on oath, to such a document, is not required by any act of Congress; and if it had been, the collector should have refused to receive the affidavit, because of defect of

authority in the officer taking the oath, so that the irregularity might have been rectified at the time; and he cannot be permitted to start the objection on the final argument. His acceptance of the deposition will be deemed a waiver of any informality in the jurat, particularly as the paper was addressed to him, and was to have no other operation than to guide the decision on the claim of the importer to have his goods appraised.

The collector, by his letter of November 23, 1843, to the plaintiffs, stated that, according to the instructions which he had received from the Secretary of the Treasury, the certificate of damage must be given by a port-warden; and added "that, if within ten days after the landing of the goods, such certificate shall be presented, orders will be given for an appraisement." The particular certificate not being furnished, the appraisement was refused, and the libellants paid the full duties charged (\$103 14) on this package, making their protest at the time, and then brought this action in a state court, to recover back 60 per cent thereof, (being \$67 05,) with interest from November 25, 1843. The action was removed to this Court pursuant to the act of Congress of March 3, 1833, (8 Laws U. S., 792, sec. 3.)

A letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, dated July 13, 1843, to the collector, ratified his decision in a previous case, rejecting the certificate of damage given by the marine surveyors appointed by the Chamber of Commerce and Board of Underwriters of the port of New York, and approved the practice of requiring the certificate of damage to be given by the port-wardens, as not only in accordance with the 52d section of the act of 1799, but as that which most nearly conforms with its provisions.

Some criticism was addressed on the argument, to forms of the proofs of damage; and their sufficiency to establish the fact was questioned—but, as the objection on the trial referred essentially to their admissibility, and the fact and extent of damage was not made a prominent point, I shall regard the testimony, if competent, sufficient to have justified the jury in finding for the plaintiffs; and the Court, on a case made, will draw the same inferences from the evidence that a jury would be warranted in drawing. (14 Johns., 215. 15 ib., 409. 6 Cowen, 632.)

It was also suggested that the collector rightfully refused the request of the plaintiffs, because they asked the appointment of merchant appraisers, conformably to the act of 1799, when the act of 1823 had abolished that mode of appraisement, and designated official appraisers, who alone possessed authority to make this appraisement. This was clearly a mere misapprehension in the form of application—a mistake which the collector did not regard; for he avowed his readiness to act under the application, on being furnished the particular certificate he required; and, accordingly, the error of the plaintiffs, in the designation of the appraising officers, can stand in no way against their rights in the matter. The Court will regard it as the collector did—a request to have the appraisement made conformably with the law.

The essential question to be disposed of is, then, whether the plaintiffs, on the facts and circumstances of this case, were bound to produce a certificate of the port-wardens before an appraisement and a deduction of duties, because of such damages, could be claimed by them. This inquiry turns upon the construction to be given the 52d section of the act of March 2, 1799. It enacts that all goods, wares, or merchandise, of which entry shall be made incomplete, or without the specification of particulars, either for want of the original invoice or invoices, or for any other cause, or which shall have received damage during the voyage, to be ascertained by the proper officers of the port or district in which the said goods, wares, or merchandise shall arrive, shall be conveyed to some warehouse or storehouse, to be designated by the collector, in the parcels or packages containing the same; there to remain, with due and reasonable care, at the expense and risk of the owner or consignee, under the care of some proper officer, until the particulars, cost, or value, as the case may require, shall have been ascertained, either by the exhibition of the original

invoice or invoices thereof, or by appraisement, at the option of the owner, importer, or consignee, in manner hereafter provided; and until the duties thereon shall have been paid, or secured to be paid, and a permit granted by the collector for the delivery thereof. And for the appraisement of goods, wares, and merchandise, not accompanied with the original invoice of their cost, or to ascertain the damage thereon received during the voyage, it shall be lawful for the collector, and, upon request of the party, he is required, to appoint one merchant, and the owner, importer, or consignee, to appoint another, who shall appraise or value the said goods, wares, or merchandise, accordingly; which appraisement shall be subscribed by the parties making the same, and be verified on oath or affirmation, before said collector—which oath or affirmation shall be in the form following, to wit," &c., &c.

The usage at the custom-house, under this section, has always been, to exact a certificate preliminarily to ordering an appraisement on damaged goods; and the wardens of the port have been held "the proper officers" to give such certificates. On the part of the plaintiffs, it is contended that the act supplies no authority for either of these requirements. The section recited directs goods, wares, and merchandise, to be conveyed to some warehouse or storehouse, on arriving in port, in either of two conditions:—First, when the entry of them shall be made incomplete, for any cause; and, second, when they "shall have received damage during the voyage, to be ascertained by the proper officers," &c. In the first instance, it is plain, the collector acts on his own view of the state of the entry, and without any extraneous evidence; but as, in the second instance, the cause for ordering the goods to a public store would not be apparent on the entry, or one which the collector would be supposed prepared to decide on his own inspection, there would seem to be the occasion for designating by law the circumstances which would require or authorize the order. This designation is supposed to be supplied by the statute.

The terms employed in the act may probably admit this construction; and if the first clause is read by itself, such might be its more natural interpretation, because the inquiry which is to lead to the action of the collector, is, whether the goods have received damage during the voyage; and the expression, "to be ascertained by the proper officers," might well be regarded as having reference to the general proposition or idea of damage during the voyage," and not to damage simply in respect to its amount or extent. But the same expression is again taken up in the subsequent clause of the section; and Congress, by the application of it there, would seem to regard the language as calling for a valuation of damages, and not merely the finding of the fact that damage had been received. This understanding of its import is again distinctly indicated in the form of the oath; for the appraisers are required to swear that "the packages have received damage, as we believe, during the voyage of importation; and that the allowance by us made for such damage is, to the best of our skill and judgment, just."

It is not to be supposed that Congress would, in this clause and the oath, impose on appraisers the duty of ascertaining the fact of damage during the voyage, if, by the previous clause, other officers were appointed to perform that very service; and it seems to me that the entire section, taken with the form of oath, denotes that it was intended to provide for no more than one ascertainment of damage in this behalf; and that, in this respect, the first clause in the section is to be considered subordinate to, or more completely fulfilled by the subsequent one. Although the language may be susceptible, and most naturally, of the interpretation given it by the collector, and the Secretary of the Treasury, yet plainly no violence is done it, by understanding it in the other sense; and the latter would most effectually harmonize all the provisions of the section. In aid of this exposition, it is to be observed that the language is prospective, having relation to an act afterwards to be done, and that not necessarily before the action of the collector, in ordering the goods to a public store. "Damage to be ascertained," and "to ascertain the damage,"

are correlative expressions, and indicate one and the same procedure; and that they are so used by Congress, is plainly imported by the terms of the oath, "to ascertain and appraise the damage." This latter act must necessarily follow the deposit of the goods in a public store; and the language of the first section may very well be satisfied, even on the interpretation of the defendant, by having the survey posterior to the deposit in store. If, then, this ascertainment of damages by proper officers must not indispensably be had, previous to the deposit of the goods, and as the statute having provided for only one proceeding therein, subsequent to such deposit, the entire section would most appropriately be read as having reference to the one act of ascertaining and appraising, designated and directed in the latter clause.

I think, therefore, that, upon the true construction of the 52d section, the damage received during the voyage to be ascertained by the proper officers of the port or district, mentioned in the first clause, is the same matter directed to be inquired into and determined in the after branch of this section; and that, accordingly, there is no authority in the act for requiring any other survey or appraisement.

A more minute analysis of the terms of the section will conduce to the support of this construction. If the provisions of the first clause call for a survey of the goods, by proper officers, as it is understood at the custom-house, it stands in singular contrast with the after provision in that respect, in not naming the officers who are to perform the duty; in not exacting the sanction of an oath from them; and in not rendering it obligatory on the collector to take the proceedings. The importer is supplied with no authority to compel the action of the collector; and if the first branch of the section is read as complete within itself, it would seem that the merchant is placed entirely at the discretion of the collector, or can have no relief because of his refusal to call a survey, and the consequent deterioration of his property, unless through the tedious and precarious prosecution of the collector, for mal-feasance in his office.

Congress deemed the matter worthy of precise legislation, when they came to consider the equitable consequence of such injury to goods, on the rights of the importer and the interests of the revenue; and provided specifically for enforcing and preserving their respective interests, by clear and precise enactments in the after branch of the same section. Such incongruity would be reluctantly implied in the provisions of the same section; and the construction, therefore, which regards the whole subject matter one and the same, and as provided for in a common regulation, seems best adapted to uphold the rights of all parties, and fulfil the purposes of Congress.

This same course is pursued in the 60th section, in relation to vessels coming into port in distress. The regulation is minute and specific, in the description of the officers who may make surveys, and as to the time and manner in which kindred services are to be obtained and rendered; and, whether state officers or merchant appraisers are employed, the act points out definitely when and how they are to act. This latter section supplies also a forcible argument against the application of the term "proper officers," used in the 52d section, to port-wardens; because it names them, or calls for other state officers, "usually charged with, and accustomed to ascertain the condition of ships or vessels arriving in distress."

It is not to be supposed, if Congress adopted in the previous section "port-wardens," under the general appellation of "proper officers," as well known to possess and exercise within the states the functions there called for, that in legislating further, on like subject matters, they would, in the 60th section, name them specifically, or describe the qualifications of the other officers who might be used. But it is to be remarked that the term "proper officers" is twice used in the same paragraph of the 52d section; and, in the latter case, must necessarily refer to some custom-house officer, or one appointed under

the authority of the revenue laws, because he is officially to take care of the goods ordered by the collector to be taken in store.

It is not unworthy of observation, that the phrase, "proper officers of the port or district in which the goods, &c., shall arrive," does not apply to any public officers known to the laws of this state at the time the act of Congress was passed; nor is it probable that such officers were created in any of the other states.

The powers of port-wardens do not, under the colonial or state statutes, extend beyond the port of New York, (Act March 7, 1759; 2 Smith and Livingston, 160; Act 14th April, 1784, 1 Greenl., 86,) whereas the district of New York was, by the fifth section of the act of Congress of March 2, 1799, (as it had been by the act of July 31, 1789,) made to embrace nearly all the coasts, rivers, bays, and harbors of the southern part of the state, including those on the North river.

The city of New York is, in the act of 1789, and all subsequent ones, made the port of entry; but it is manifest that there must be officers created under the acts whose powers extend over the entire district. It may be as important to have proper officers of the revenue in other harbors on the coast within the district, to take care of goods deposited there by the collector, as in that of New York; and it may become of equal importance to have appraisements made at such places, because the whole regulation has reference to wreck or disasters at sea, and will necessarily be ample enough to meet the exigencies that are likely to rise in this behalf, in every part of the district.

Again: the argument in favor of construing the 52d section, so as to have the expressions "proper officers of the port or district" apply to port-wardens, rests upon the assumption that that class of officers notoriously possessed and exercised, under the state laws of the different states, the power of making surveys of goods alleged to be damaged on the voyage of importation, and determining the fact whether such damage has been received. There may be ground to doubt the entire correctness of this assumption. By the colonial act of March 7, 1759, section 9, the master and wardens of the port of New York, for the time being, are appointed surveyors, for surveying of all damaged goods brought into the said port in any ship or vessel; and in like manner, with the assistance of one or more able carpenters, to survey all vessels deemed unfit to proceed to sea, &c. (2 Livings. and Smith, 163.)

An act was passed September 11, 1761, with a preamble that "whereas goods imported here, and insured in Great Britain, and elsewhere abroad, are sometimes sold in this city for the account of the insurers, and some persons, taking the advantage of their absence, have frequently made fraudulent sales, to the great prejudice of the insurers, the undue gain of the assured, and detriment of the commerce of this colony: for a remedy therefore, it is enacted, that hereafter, all damaged goods to be sold for account of the insurers shall be surveyed by the master, or one or more of the wardens of the port of New York for the time being, and such sale shall be made in his or their presence, &c., &c. (Van Schaick's ed. Laws N. Y., 394.) This act was continued in force to January 1, 1775, (Ibid., 498.)

If this act is to be regarded as suspending or superseding that of 1759, during its continuance, on its expiration, the latter probably revived; and, under the 35th article of the state constitution, of April 20, 1777, continued in force until the passage of the act of April 14, 1784, by the state legislature. The 8th section of the latter act is a re-enactment of the 9th section of the act of 1759, above recited. (Jones and Varick, L. N. Y., 122. 1 Greenlf., 89.) The latter law, in substance, was continued under the various revisions of the statutes, till a revision and consolidation of the laws on this subject, by the act of February 19, 1819. (5 Laws N. Y., 11.) By the 5th section of the act, it is enacted that the master and wardens of the port of New York, or any two of them, with the assistance of one or more skilful carpenters, shall be surveyors of any vessel deemed

unfit to proceed to sea, &c., &c.; and in all cases of vessels and goods arriving damaged, and by the owner or consignee required to be sold at public auction, on account of such damage, and for the benefit of underwriters out of the city of New York, such sale shall be made under the inspection of the master and wardens, or some or one of them; which master and wardens shall, when required by the owner or consignee aforesaid, certify the cause of such damage, &c.; and an after clause gives them \$1 50 fees "for each and every survey on board of any ship or vessel, or at any store, or along the docks of the city of New York, on damaged goods," &c.

This is, in substance, a re-enactment of the provisions of the colonial law of 1761, above recited; and the language of the section clearly indicates that it was based upon like reasons—and, as the existing law of 1784 must necessarily have been in view of the legislature, the implication is strong, if not conclusive, that the latter act was intended to limit the authority of port-wardens, in making surveys of damaged goods, to the single case therein designated.

I am aware the vice-chancellor in this circuit has put a different construction upon the act of 1819, and has held, from the grant of fees for surveys on damaged goods, that the intention of the legislature to make the powers of port-wardens the same they had been under the act of 1784, is to be implied. This decision, it is understood, is in course of review before the chancellor, and it is not, therefore, to be regarded as authoritative on the point; and, with great respect for the learning of the distinguished judge who pronounced the opinion referred to, I think it must be at least matter of doubt whether so important an interpolation to the act of 1819 can be authorized, upon the presumption afforded by the mere grant of fees, and when also that provision may be reasonably satisfied by applying it to the particular surveys designated by the section. It is enough, however, in the case before me, to say that it is not made clear, upon the laws of this state, that the port-wardens are now possessed of authority to make surveys on all damaged goods brought into this port in any vessels, and certify the cause of such damage; and that, accordingly, if Congress intended to refer this service to state officers, the defendant fails to show that the port-wardens are "the proper officers of the port or district," competent to perform such services.

But it is to be furthermore observed that, on the construction of the 52d section, contended for by the defendant, a preliminary survey and certificate by port-wardens can only be necessary for the purpose of guiding his discretion in ordering the goods to be deposited in a warehouse or storehouse. It is not urged that the port-wardens have any authority to ascertain and appraise the damage; and there is nothing in the section importing that after the collector, for either cause indicated therein, has commanded the deposit of goods, that he can do less or more, respecting them, than pursue the precise directions of the act. The act is express and explicit in declaring that, when the condition exists requiring the goods to be conveyed to a warehouse or storehouse, they shall remain there until the particulars, &c., shall have been ascertained, in the manner afterwards provided in the same section.

It seems to me clear, therefore, that if the collector might, under the act, exact the certificate of a proper officer on survey of the goods, before he would order their deposit in public store, because of damage incurred on the voyage of importation; yet that, if he acts upon the assumption of such damage, and orders the deposit for that cause, he is then bound to proceed, and have the damage ascertained and appraised by the public appraisers; who, by the act of 1823, supersede in this behalf the authority of merchant appraisers, referred to in the 52d section. I am, accordingly, of opinion that the plaintiffs are entitled to judgment on this verdict.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## TOBACCO TRADE OF VIRGINIA,

FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS, FROM 1835 TO 1844.

A Statement showing the quantity of Tobacco inspected in Virginia for ten years past, say from 1835 to 1844; the quantity exported, and the markets to which it was shipped; the stocks left on hand on the 1st of October of each year, and likewise the quantity of Stems shipped during the same period, and the markets to which they were shipped.

A. D.	England, Scotland, and Ireland.		Cows, and a market.		France.	Bremen.		Holland.		Antwerp.		Italy, Spain, and sundries.		Shipped.		Insp'd.	Stock.
	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.		Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Total tobacco.	Tot. st'ns.		
1835.	17,021	2,185	656	4,131	1,077	1,017	785	578	400	—	970	—	25,871	2,251	47,520	15,801	
1836.	15,243	3,997	710	5,166	800	1,636	977	840	1,455	—	2,084	—	29,732	3,186	45,445	14,024	
1837.	9,555	2,026	378	2,387	1,221	1,970	2,542	1,924	536	60	724	—	18,991	4,332	35,201	10,475	
1838.	12,321	1,170	—	4,743	616	1,908	319	128	925	—	734	—	20,888	2,036	44,845	12,397	
1839.	13,350	2,463	738	1,115	236	2,317	1,236	919	329	57	—	—	18,729	4,031	25,502	4,896	
1840.	12,223	1,064	—	5,268	1,153	876	3,828	1,177	2,028	136	1,621	—	27,195	2,189	58,186	13,829	
1841.	16,563	2,785	—	7,395	1,504	3,843	2,497	2,013	2,026	218	1,672	—	34,442	6,076	56,141	8,719	
1842.	18,655	2,818	556	3,747	4,573	2,294	7,637	395	1,820	—	1,515	—	32,765	3,245	52,156	11,100	
1843.	11,424	5,400	—	4,098	3,013	1,543	6,975	321	4,814	—	512	136	36,236	2,000	56,788	13,420	
1844.	6,961	1,075	—	605	5,165	1,933	3,810	689	1,817	—	1,061	63	20,494	2,687	45,886	14,363	

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

I refer you to the above tabular statement of the tobacco trade of Virginia. By reference to this table, you will find that the export for the year ending 30th ultimo, is the smallest made in any year during the last ten years, excepting those of 1837 and 1839, and the export to Great Britain far less than it was even in those years. Indeed, the export of last year to Great Britain is the smallest for many years, unless we include the period of the war, when the trade between this country and Great Britain was, of course, interrupted. Of this export to Great Britain, only about 3,500 hhd. of stemmed tobacco, and 700 hhd. of leaf tobacco, were of the last crop. The remainder of the shipment was composed of old tobacco, of the previous crops.

To France, but a single cargo has been sent this year; the agent of the contractor for the supply of that government not deeming it to the interest of his principal, under his existing orders, to comply with the contract, in consequence of the high price which good and fine tobacco commanded, and the difficulty or impossibility of procuring good and fine tobacco at any price, because of the inferiority in the quality of the crop.

The table does not present the true quantity (ship) of tobacco and stems shipped to Bremen. Several cargoes, destined for that port, were sent round to northern ports for direct re-shipment; and although this was chiefly the case with shipments destined for Bremen, yet, in a limited way, those circuitous shipments, for various reasons, were made to other European ports. We give, in those tables, the direct shipments only.

Of the stock of 14,363 hhd. tobacco, now ascertained to be in the warehouses in this state, there are about 1,000 hhd. belonging to planters, and not yet offered for sale; and the manufacturers are supposed to hold about 1,500 hhd. The factors have on hand, for sale, about 3,000 hhd., and speculators and shippers the remainder; a large portion of which is held by capitalists, awaiting a favorable change in the tide of prices. In the whole quantity on hand, there are about 8,000 hhd. of lugs and low leaf; the remainder, common and middling leaf. There is scarcely any good or fine tobacco in stock.

The crop of tobacco just matured, and maturing, is generally estimated at 40,000 hhd.,

and in this opinion I concur. As to the quality of the crop, there is no doubt of its being far superior, in the main, to any of its predecessors, for many years past.

Our manufacturers have done a large and profitable business the past year, and it is supposed will increase their operations the year to come. Under this impression, it is generally believed that prices next year will rule comparatively dear; for the stock on hand being mean, and the crop small, and the manufacturers requiring fully 20,000 hhds., there will be but a small quantity of useful tobacco left to supply the remaining regular demand for Virginia tobacco.

At present, there is nothing doing in tobacco. Flour, \$4 25. The crop of wheat yields poorly, and falls short of all the estimates; yet the crop is a fair average one, and of excellent quality. The crop of Indian corn is an average one.

I remain, dear sir, truly yours,

CHARLES F. OSBORNE.

Richmond, (Va.) October 1, 1844.

#### SPERM OIL TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

An "Oil Merchant," at New Bedford, the port most extensively engaged in this branch of productive commercial industry, has furnished some interesting statistics in relation to the importation of sperm oil at the several ports in the United States, which have been carefully revised from a comparison with several different accounts, kept by some of the most intelligent merchants engaged in the whale fishery, for many years past, in order to ascertain, as exactly as possible, the quantity of crude oil that has arrived, and is to arrive in the United States, in 1844; the amount now on hand; and the number of barrels to arrive in 1845.

The average annual importations of crude sperm oil, for the last nine years, is 157,000 barrels.

The importations, in 1843; were.....	167,421 bbls.
There remained over from the year 1842, and on hand January 1st, 1844,	50,000 "

217,421 bbls.

Deduct the quantity remaining on hand, for sale, on 1st January, 1844, .

3,000 "

214,421 bbls.

Showing that there was actually taken by manufacturerers, and shipped out of the country, 214,421 bbls. of crude sperm oil, in the year 1843.

There arrived into the United States, up to the 1st October, of the present year,.....

114,000 bbls.

And there will arrive, as near as possibly can be computed, in the remainder of this year,.....

16,000 "

Whole importation for the year 1844, of crude sperm oil,.....

130,000 bbls.

Number of barrels taken from importers, by manufacturers, and for shipment abroad, in 1843,.....

214,421 bbls.

Quantity on hand, and imported in 1844,.....

133,000 "

81,421 bbls.

Making 81,421 bbls. short of what was imported, and on hand, in 1843.

There is another interesting feature in the state of the sperm oil market, in regard to the average for nine years, as follows:—

The average importation, for nine years past, has been.....	157,000 bbls.
Deduct the quantity imported for 1844,.....	130,000 "

27,000 bbls.

There will, therefore, have been imported this year, 27,000 barrels of natural sperm oil, less than the average for the last nine years. The quantity of crude sperm oil on hand, for sale, in this country, is much less than usual at this season; while, at the same time, our manufacturers are very scantily supplied, there being only two out of the twenty-one manufacturing establishments in New Bedford and Fair Haven, who have much stock, and eleven of them have no crude sperm oil whatever. It is estimated, by those engaged in the sperm whale fishery, and who, for years, have been in the practice of making calculations in regard to this fishery, that there will be many thousand barrels less imported in 1845 than in all this year.

Let it be remembered that, during a greater portion of the last nine years referred to above, the business of this country has been very much depressed; and, owing to the stagnation in all the manufacturing districts, oil was not in such demand as it has been for the last eighteen months; in which period the consumption has greatly increased, and will continue to, in case the prosperity of the manufacturing interest is not overthrown by a change of the tariff of 1842.

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## TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF ENGLAND,

FOR THE YEARS ENDING 5TH OF JANUARY, 1843 AND 1844.

We have received, from a valued correspondent in London, the documents annually "presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's command," embracing accounts of the imports of the principal articles of foreign and colonial merchandise, and the custom duties received thereon; the exports of the principal articles of British and Irish produce and manufactures; the gross and nett produce of the duties of customs; the number and tonnage of vessels, distinguishing the countries to which they belonged, which entered inwards and cleared outwards; the number of vessels, &c., employed in the coasting trade of the United Kingdom—all for the year ending 5th of January, 1844, compared with the year ending 5th of January, 1843. This document, which is laid before Parliament early in January of each year, is usually printed and distributed before the 15th of February, of the same year. It only occupies eight foolscap pages, and presents a very comprehensive glance of the commerce of the last year, as compared with the previous. This promptness is worthy of the imitation of our Treasury department, at Washington. In our introduction to the annual statements of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States for 1843, we referred to this subject, and expressed the hope that Mr. Bibb, the new Secretary of the Treasury, would take measures to lessen the time that intervenes between the close of the commercial year and the appearance of the annual statements. The present commercial year, our readers are aware, commenced on the 1st of July, instead of the 1st of October, as heretofore. The change, heretofore stated, was made last year, by an act of Congress, passed 26th August, 1842. The annual report for the year commencing July 1st, 1843, and ending June 30th, 1844, should be ready to lay before Congress at the commencement of its next session, in December, 1844; and, instead of its occupying six or eight months in the printing, we see no reason why it should not be ready for delivery in thirty or sixty days after the meeting of Congress. The summary statements, all that is really important, and which would not occupy more than forty or fifty octavo pages, should at least appear in a week or ten days after it has been presented to Congress.

We now proceed to lay before our readers, in a compressed form, the accounts relating to trade and navigation, customs duties, &c., embraced in the British report. Hereafter, through the courtesy of several distinguished correspondents in England, we trust we shall be able to furnish our readers the official statements of British trade and navigation in a few weeks after they are laid before Parliament, and printed.

## IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Imports of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, and of the Customs Duties received thereon, in the year ended 5th of January, 1844, compared with the Imports and Receipts of the preceding year.

	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
<b>Animals, living, viz:—</b>				
Oxen and bulls,.....No.	3,156	1,114	£3,327	£1,167
Cows,.....	1,038	367	813	275
Calves,.....	70	40	38	18
Sheep,.....	634	210	99	23
Lambs,.....	10	7	1	.....
Swine and hogs,.....	410	359	98	69
Bacon,.....cwt.	520	710	165	191
Barilla and alkali,..... tons	2,165	2,860	1,440	892
Bark, for tanners' & dyers' use,..... cwt.	645,747	838,887	13,426	11,255
<b>Beef, salted, not corned—</b>				
Of British possessions,..... cwt.	6,219	15,509	263	237
Foreign,.....	23,702	45,382	2,806	447
Beef, fresh, or slightly salted,.....	102	60	39	14
Butter,.....	175,197	152,260	188,025	151,903
Cheese,.....	179,748	179,568	99,444	91,656
Cocoa,.....lbs.	3,172,351	3,613,952	13,363	11,137
<b>Coffee—</b>				
Of British possessions,.....lbs.	20,481,655	18,238,560	£355,337	£353,170
Foreign,.....	20,962,759	20,666,886	414,248	344,818
<b>Total, of coffee,.....</b>	<b>41,444,414</b>	<b>38,905,446</b>	<b>£769,585</b>	<b>£697,988</b>
<b>Corn—</b>				
Wheat,.....qrs.	2,717,454	940,666	£1,112,510	£604,742
Barley,.....	73,335	179,484	22,298	76,695
Oats,.....	301,272	85,010	85,082	12,958
Rye,.....	14,508	4,872	7,687	898
Peas,.....	92,938	48,634	27,229	17,139
Beans,.....	126,443	47,999	19,042	23,832
Maize, or Indian corn,.....	35,806	518	8,476	3,233
Buckwheat,.....	9	2	2	1
Malt,.....	.....	115	.....	.....
Beer, or bigg,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Wheat-meal, or flour,.....cwt.	1,129,852	439,832	93,287	23,571
Barley-meal,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oat-meal,.....	19,069	5,811	1,254	342
Rye-meal,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indian-meal,.....	1,934	1	1	.....
<b>Dyes and dyeing stuffs, viz:—</b>				
Cochineal,.....cwt.	11,776	10,359	284	369
Indigo,.....	83,823	68,415	15,871	1,868
Lac dye,.....	6,534	10,689	879	364
Logwood,..... tons	18,481	20,892	2,642	2,146
Madder,.....cwt.	86,382	139,143	5,217	3,936
Madder root,.....	82,879	102,216	1,858	1,343
Shumac,..... tons	9,122	12,917	490	671
Eggs,.....No.	89,548,747	70,448,250	32,652	25,684
<b>Fish, of foreign taking—</b>				
Eels,.....ships lading	72	81	985	1,106
“.....cwt.	.....	1		
Turbots,.....	64	86	17	23
Oysters,.....bush.	.....	1	.....	.....
Salmon,.....cwt.	80	955	13	445
Soles,.....	.....	15	.....	4
Turtle,.....	157	327	42	86
Fresh, not otherwise described,....	126	766	7	41
Cured, do.,.....	36	543	4	54

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Flax and tow, or codilla of hemp and flax,.....cwt.	1,145,759	1,442,467	£5,053	£6,318
Fruits, viz:—				
Currants,.....cwt.	267,086	238,414	223,705	296,461
Figs,.....cwt.	29,854	34,033	18,073	25,556
Lemons & oranges, } { chests or bxs.     27,884     35,904 } { .No. (loose)     £2,045     £1,295 } { .....at value			71,596	60,570
Raisins,.....cwt.	212,218	216,526	147,014	186,990
Gloves, leather,.....pairs	1,623,713	1,882,182	27,465	28,567
Hams,.....cwt.	7,835	6,991	3,859	2,592
Hemp, undressed,.....	585,905	732,077	2,687	3,057
Hides, untanned,.....	610,428	587,130	26,489	7,695
Mahogany,.....tons	16,938	20,407	14,136	10,368
Meat, salted or fresh, not otherwise described,.....cwt.	36	191	5	9
Molasses,.....	486,463	616,656	255,513	214,750
Metals, viz:—				
Copper ore,.....tons	49,856	55,598	15,689	64,343
Copper, unwrought,.....cwt.	6,180	2,550	4	5
Iron, in bars, unwrought,.....tons	18,701	12,809	17,233	12,687
Steel, unwrought,.....cwt.	13,080	31,951	25	57
Lead, pig and sheet,.....tons	2,461	2,774	60	113
Spelter,.....	6,072	10,173	2,067	223
Tin in blocks, ingots, etc.....cwt.	11,112	31,230	146	644
Oil, viz:—				
Train, blubber, and sperm,.....tuns	17,473	23,859	11,057	33,752
Palm,.....cwt.	424,242	420,277	13,641	10,056
Cocoa-nut,.....	49,742	68,577	1,226	1,209
Olive,.....tuns	14,095	12,139	28,347	21,793
Opium,.....lbs.	72,373	244,215	2,513	1,730
Pork, salted—				
Of British possessions,.....cwt.	15,242	11,663	879	439
Foreign,.....	38,921	15,304	4,157	832
Pork, fresh,.....	1½	.....	1	.....
Quicksilver,.....lbs.	2,006,911	2,090,507	1,134	1,108
Rice,.....cwt.	511,414	453,379	10,305	8,036
Rice in the husk,.....qrs.	41,420	19,877	391	6,825
Saltpetre and cubic nitre,.....cwt.	417,722	624,006	9,084	10,125
Seeds, viz:—				
Clover,.....cwt.	109,090	76,253	163,839	37,047
Flaxseed and linseed,.....qrs.	367,700	469,642	5,217	2,072
Rape,.....	65,686	88,091	941	381
Silk, viz:—				
Raw,.....lbs.	3,951,773	3,464,873	17,226	15,967
Waste, knubs and husks,.....cwt.	12,824	13,312	673	701
Thrown, of all sorts,.....lbs.	397,407	384,805	40,080	17,941
Silk manufactures of Europe, viz:—				
Silk or satin, plain,.....lbs.	140,716	153,831	69,677	83,046
“ figured or brocaded,.....	94,256	97,838	70,297	73,951
Gauze, plain,.....	2,230	4,433	1,741	2,442
“ striped, fig'd, or brocaded, ..	4,665	9,103	6,413	9,373
“ tissue Foulards,.....	397	632	360	610
Crape, plain,.....	2,829	2,923	1,908	2,174
“ figured,.....	130	286	34	73
Velvet, plain,.....	15,637	16,084	16,374	15,450
“ figured,.....	2,983	2,615	4,028	3,679
Other sorts,.....	.....	.....	41,213	43,144
Silk manufactures of India, viz:—				
Bandannas, and other silk handkerchiefs,.....pieces	345,776	440,301	2,660	4,058
Other sorts,.....	.....	.....	2,494	3,220

## IMPORERS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
<b>Skins, viz :—</b>				
Goat, undressed,..... No.	455,521	515,115	£559	£351
Kid, ".....	81,510	91,595	13	12
Kid, dressed,.....	480,343	446,772	1,906	1,200
Lamb, undressed,.....	822,042	1,292,310	150	234
" tanned, tawed, or dressed, ..	7,728	10,391	27	35
<b>Spices, viz :—</b>				
Cassia Lignea,..... lbs.	1,312,804	2,363,643	1,701	1,745
Cinnamon,.....	223,166	406,387	327	264
Cloves,.....	32,421	120,874	2,330	2,628
Mace,.....	13,770	28,112	2,496	2,674
Nutmegs,.....	169,241	208,461	22,019	20,562
Pepper,.....	6,021,290	4,082,955	70,376	73,252
Pimento,..... cwt.	16,250	18,920	1,847	942
<b>Spirits, viz :—</b>				
Rum,..... galls. (incl. over proof,)	4,619,804	3,729,673	979,237	982,034
Brandy,..... ".....	1,674,436	2,396,340	1,236,065	1,186,102
Geneva,..... ".....	323,744	360,220	16,632	15,836
<b>Sugar, unrefined, viz :—</b>				
Of the British possessions in America,..... cwt.	2,508,910	2,503,577	2,822,060	3,191,731
Of Mauritius,.....	689,335	477,124	882,562	573,948
E. I. of British possessions,.....	940,452	1,101,751	1,179,863	1,331,246
Foreign, of all sorts,.....	617,314	939,896	347	252
Total of sugar,.....	4,756,011	5,022,348	4,884,832	5,097,177
Tallow,..... cwt.	1,011,370	1,169,864	171,105	194,981
Tar,..... lasts	10,618	13,973	1,979	1,747
Tea,..... lbs.	40,742,128	45,344,449	4,089,531	4,408,024
<b>Timber and wood, viz :—</b>				
Battens and batten ends, foreign, entered by tale,..... C.	6,677	68	107,606	2,923
Battens and batten ends, of British America, by tale,..... C.	2,156	.....	2,242	.....
Boards, deals, deal ends, and plank, foreign, ent'd by tale, .C.	15,157	250	352,270	6,071
Deals and deal ends of Br. America, by tale,..... C.	21,044	.....	23,896	.....
Deals, battens, boards, or other timber, or wood sawn or split :—				
Of Br. possessions,..... loads	110,319	341,873	17,947	36,453
Foreign,.....	48,715	268,618	111,394	421,873
Staves,..... } loads	17,147	56,583	27,597	24,023
..... } ..C.	35,804	.....		
Timber or wood, not being articles sawn or split, or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not otherwise charged with duty :—				
Of Br. possessions,..... loads	377,994	583,448	71,166	31,906
Foreign,.....	102,117	126,252	260,961	179,919
<b>Tobacco—</b>				
Unmanufactured,..... lbs.	39,526,968	43,744,893	3,488,967	3,605,107
Manufactured, and snuff,.....	811,064	1,137,531	106,470	124,007
Turpentine, common,..... cwt.	408,474	473,447	19,826	2,085
<b>Wine, viz :—</b>				
Cape,..... gallons	303,223	116,580	53,621	48,054
French,.....	508,942	480,406	110,099	99,927
Other sorts,.....	6,403,948	6,176,809	1,245,426	1,618,135
Total of wine,.....	7,216,113	6,773,795	1,409,146	1,766,116

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Wool, cotton, viz:—				
Of Br. possessions,.....cwt.	834,381	591,581	£10,949	£7,374
Foreign,.....	3,913,388	5,428,035	557,507	736,528
Total of cotton wool,.....	4,747,769	6,019,616	568,456	743,902
Wool, sheep and lamb's,.....lbs.	45,881,639	49,324,924	95,213	98,797
Other articles,.....	.....	.....	555,434	502,025
Total,.....	.....	.....	£22,596,263	£22,636,659

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Exports of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Exports of the preceding year, ended 5th of January, 1843 and 1844.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	Articles.	1843.	1844.
Cocoa,.....lbs.	635,125	568,470	Spices, viz:—		
Coffee, viz:—			Cinnamon, ....lbs.	368,554	422,505
Prod. Br. poss.,..lbs.	62,857	125,824	Cloves,.....	54,556	26,504
Foreign,.....	9,442,777	12,557,619	Mace,.....	2,688	9,701
Corn, viz:—			Nutmegs,.....	85,174	36,365
Wheat,.....qrs.	45,930	48,040	Pepper,.....	5,573,820	2,651,650
Barley,.....	13,755	4,445	Pimento,.....cwt.	12,701	21,200
Oats,.....	54,955	41,998	Spirits, viz:—		
Wheat meal and flour,.....cwt.	66,094	45,288	Rum,.....galls.	723,423	1,079,250
Dyes and dyeing stuffs, viz:—			Brandy,.....	702,638	767,460
Cochineal,....cwt.	5,390	5,626	Geneva,.....	316,180	317,706
Indigo,.....	45,795	36,960	Sugar, unrefined, viz:—		
Lac dye,.....	2,597	3,279	Of the Br. possess.		
Logwood, ... tons	3,834	2,649	in Amer.,...cwt.	4,531	4,937
Metals, viz:—			Of Mauritius,.....	1,525	197
Steel, unwt., cwt.	19,162	29,137	E. I., of B. poss.,...	4,515	4,922
Copper, unwt.,..	6,824	1,759	For'gn, all sorts,...	391,315	563,587
Iron, in bars or unwrought, ..tons	2,159	3,986	Tobacco—		
Lead, pig,.....	1,836	2,440	Unmanuf'd,....lbs.	12,320,272	8,702,769
Spelter,.....	1,910	6,445	Foreign manuf'd, and snuff,....lbs.	611,954	764,270
Tin,.....cwt.	12,412	13,007	Wine, viz:—		
Oil, olive,.....tuns	696	399	Cape,.....galls.	3,387	1,624
Opium,.....lbs.	126,515	320,947	French,.....	147,439	143,554
Quicksilver,.....	1,457,443	1,236,922	Other sorts,.....	1,360,606	1,207,979
Rice, (not in the husk,).....cwt.	311,180	207,329	Wool, cotton, viz:—		
Spices, viz:—			Of Br. poss.,...cwt.	196,591	160,510
Cassia Ligna, lbs.	1,247,496	1,986,413	Of other parts,....	207,438	193,240
			Wool, sheep and lamb's,.....lbs.	3,637,789	2,961,282

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Exports of the Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Exports of the preceding year, (year ending 5th of January, 1843 and 1844.)

Articles.	1843.	1844.
Coals and culm,.....	£734,000	£685,331
Cotton manufactures,.....	13,907,884	16,248,759
“ yarn,.....	7,771,464	7,191,870
Earthenware,.....	555,430	629,585
Glass,.....	310,152	336,910
Hardwares and cutlery,.....	1,398,487	1,744,037
Linen manufactures,.....	2,346,749	2,816,111
“ yarn,.....	1,025,551	873,164
Metals, viz:—Iron and steel,.....	2,457,717	2,574,494

## EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE, ETC., FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.
Metals, viz:—Copper and brass,.....	£1,810,742	£1,652,991
“ Lead,.....	354,590	258,660
“ Tin, in bars, &c.,.....	200,956	109,943
“ Tin plates,.....	347,781	480,407
Salt,.....	201,311	208,207
Silk manufactures,.....	590,189	664,661
Sugar, refined,.....	440,175	415,812
Wool, sheep or lamb's,.....	509,822	417,835
Woollen yarn,.....	637,305	697,354
Woollen manufactures,.....	5,185,045	6,784,432
Total of the foregoing articles,.....	£40,785,350	£44,720,563

## VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which entered inwards and cleared outwards, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Entries and Clearances of the preceding year; stated exclusively of vessels in ballast, and of those employed in the Coasting Trade between Great Britain and Ireland, (year ending 5th January, 1843 and 1844.)*

## ENTERED INWARDS.

Countries.	1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
U. Kingdom and its dependencies,...	13,823	2,680,838	13,964	2,919,528
Russia,.....	220	65,249	160	45,506
Sweden,.....	207	32,222	190	32,476
Norway,.....	679	107,429	698	111,402
Denmark,.....	756	54,066	938	65,254
Prussia,.....	711	138,431	809	157,935
Other German States,.....	863	74,338	657	60,736
Holland,.....	481	40,509	432	38,456
Belgium,.....	256	35,819	236	33,487
France,.....	801	39,256	590	29,791
Spain,.....	78	10,955	64	9,179
Portugal,.....	31	3,544	32	3,982
Italian States,.....	182	43,732	40	11,176
Other European States,.....	6	1,727	4	926
United States of America,.....	574	325,814	748	405,278
Oth. States in Amer., Africa, or Asia,	6	1,301	2	310
Total,.....	19,674	3,655,230	19,564	3,925,422

## CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Countries.	1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
U. Kingdom and its dependencies,...	15,197	2,734,983	15,206	2,727,306
Russia,.....	127	38,269	138	39,281
Sweden,.....	198	27,054	206	30,855
Norway,.....	264	30,929	342	38,810
Denmark,.....	1,092	87,457	1,431	107,609
Prussia,.....	605	108,917	835	154,457
Other German States,.....	967	91,752	1,127	100,468
Holland,.....	512	49,475	575	56,673
Belgium,.....	354	53,118	297	44,966
France,.....	1,250	93,533	1,053	87,845
Spain,.....	66	9,089	63	8,479
Portugal,.....	27	3,217	34	3,842
Italian States,.....	159	38,016	58	14,679
Other European States,.....	3	944	8	1,829
United States of America,.....	576	323,329	605	335,696
Oth. States in Amer., Africa, or Asia,	5	1,492	2	574
Total,.....	21,402	3,691,574	21,980	3,753,369

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels which entered inwards and cleared outwards with cargoes, at the several ports of the United Kingdom, during the year ended 5th of January, 1844, compared with the Entries and Clearances of the preceding year; distinguishing the Vessels employed in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland from other Coasters, (year ending 5th January, 1843 and 1844.)

ENTERED INWARDS.

	1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Employed in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland,.....	9,060	1,148,907	10,104	1,255,901
Other coasting vessels,.....	118,780	9,636,543	121,357	9,566,275
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>127,840</b>	<b>10,785,450</b>	<b>131,461</b>	<b>10,822,176</b>

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

	1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Employed in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland,.....	17,453	1,682,828	16,760	1,670,574
Other coasting vessels,.....	123,557	9,619,829	124,937	9,650,564
<b>Total,.....</b>	<b>141,010</b>	<b>11,302,657</b>	<b>141,697</b>	<b>11,321,138</b>

PRODUCE OF CUSTOMS DUTIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duties of Customs, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Produce of the preceding year, (year ending 5th January, 1843 and 1844.)

	1843.	1844.
Gross receipts of duties inwards,.....	£22,596,263	£22,636,659
“ duties outwards,.....	114,424	137,081
<b>Total gross receipts of customs duties,.....</b>	<b>£22,710,687</b>	<b>£22,773,740</b>
<b>Payments out of gross receipts:—</b>		
For bounties,.....	£480	£208
“ drawbacks,.....	176,366	134,138
“ allowances on quantities over-ent'd, damages, &c.,	68,002	65,291
<b>Total payments out of gross receipt,.....</b>	<b>£244,848</b>	<b>£199,637</b>
<b>Nett receipt of customs duties,.....</b>	<b>£22,465,839</b>	<b>£22,574,103</b>

IMPORTATION OF FLOUR AND GRAIN INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The Brighton (Eng.) Gazette gives the following statement of the amount of wheat and other grain exported into Great Britain in the last twelve years, and entered for home consumption, with the average price and amount of value, compiled from the annual accounts laid before Parliament by the Board of Trade and Navigation; the estimate of price being averaged from parliamentary documents or from the London Gazette, with the exception of some which are taken from the London Price Current:—

	QUANTITY.	AVERAGE PRICE.	VALUE.
	Quarters.	s. d.	
Wheat,.....	14,739,503	57 1	£42,431,115
Barley,.....	2,097,925	33 1	3,260,523
Oats,.....	2,422,845	21 1	2,587,088
Rye,.....	237,482	33 9	400,666
Peas,.....	935,268	35 8	1,667,894
Beans,.....	988,234	35 3	1,741,762
Buckwheat, &c.,.....	82,500	33 1	136,146
Flour, charge for grinding, estimated.....			382,618
Oatmeal,.....			2,721
<b>Total grain,.....</b>			<b>£52,610,535</b>

## RAILROAD STATISTICS.

## RAILWAYS IN FRANCE.

Until the commencement of the present session, France had only a few completed railways. These were the Rouen, the Orleans, and the Alsace lines; the lines from Lyons to St. Etienne, from Alais to Beaucaire, and from Andrezieux to Roanne, and some small lines, such as those from Montpellier to Cette, from St. Etienne to the Loire, from Paris to Versailles and to St. Germain, from Mulhouse to Thann, &c. Besides these, the following lines were in course of construction:—From Rouen to Havre, from Orleans to Tours, from Avignon to Marseilles, from Paris to Lille and Valenciennes, from Dijon to Chalons, from Strasburg to Hommarting, from Orleans to Vierzon, and from Montpellier to Nismes, being in all 900 kilometres.\* The total extent of railways terminated, and in course of construction at that time, was about 2,000 kilometres. To this number, the acts passed during the present session add 147 kilometres from Lille to Calais and Dunkirk, 124 from Amiens to Boulogne, (for which, without doubt, a company will offer on the terms proposed by the Chamber,) 437 from Paris to Hommarting, besides 87 for the branches to Metz and Rheims; 450 kilometres from Paris to Dijon, and from Chalons to Lyons, with 102 kilometres from Montereau to Troyes; 358 kilometres from Tours to Bordeaux; 192 from Tours to Nantes; 60 from Vierzen to Chateauroux; 87 from Vierzen to the Allier; and 74 from Versailles to Chartres. This makes a total of 2,118 kilometres, to which is to be added the trunk railways upon which the works have been going on since the beginning of last January, at the expense of the state, or with its concurrence, in conformity with the law of 1842, which raises the whole extent to 2,823 kilometres; and, with the Rouen and Havre line, to 2,918 kilometres. Next year, it is certain that to this extent will be added the line from the Mediterranean to the Rhine, (205 kilometres,) and that from Lyons to Avignon, (249 kilometres,) being together 454 kilometres. The rest of the lines comprised in the act of 1842 will be afterwards proceeded with; namely, from Nevers to Clermont, from Chateauroux to Limoges, from Chartres to Renués, from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean, and from Bordeaux to Bayonne; being, in all, 1,320 kilometres. The works are either about to commence, or have already commenced, on 2,821 kilometres; which, at an average expense of 300,000 francs per kilometre, will amount to an outlay of 850,000,000 francs, of which about 500,000,000 are at the expense of the state. With the probable votes of next year, the general expense of the railroads will be 1,540,000,000 francs, (61,600,000*l.* sterling; and in seven years the whole system will be completed.

The *Courier Francais*, of a late date, publishes the following return of the amount of capital, in railroad shares, to be issued by the companies of the different lines, of which the construction will be authorized by the French Chambers, during the present session:—

	Francs.	Dollars.
The Paris and Belgian Railroad, not including the branch road between Amiens and Boulogne,.....	75,000,000	14,062,500
Paris and Strasburg,.....	70,000,000	13,125,000
Paris and Lyons,.....	100,000,000	18,750,000
Lyons and Avignon,.....	60,000,000	11,250,000
Orleans and Vierzon,.....	40,000,000	7,500,000
Orleans and Bordeaux,.....	70,000,000	13,125,000
Tours and Nantes,.....	30,000,000	5,625,000
Versailles to Chartres,.....	10,000,000	1,875,000
Total,.....	455,000,000	85,312,500

\*A kilometre is about 1,094 yards—an English mile is 1,760 yards.

The execution of these contracts with the companies will, moreover, require on the part of the state an outlay of about 800,000,000 francs, equal to \$150,000,000; or, adding the two sums together, we have 1,255,000,000 of francs; or, in our currency, \$235,312,500.

BRITISH RAILWAY STATISTICS.

At a recent meeting of the London Statistical Society, Mr. Porter, the Treasurer of the society, read "an examination of the returns made by the various railway companies of the United Kingdom, with respect to their traffic, during the year ending 30th June, 1842." From Mr. Porter's paper, which is of high statistical value, we gather the following particulars:—

The returns for 1843, of 53 lines of railway, of which 41 are in England and Wales, 10 in Scotland, and 2 in Ireland, demonstrate that there were conveyed of passengers of the first class, 4,223,249; of the second class, 10,963,061; of the third class, 6,429,225; and that, with reference to the divisions of the kingdom, the proportions were, for England and Wales, of passengers of the first class, 3,882,171; of the second class, 8,951,070; of the third class, 4,060,321. For Scotland, of the first class, 245,757; of the second class, 877,055; of the third class, 1,529,717. For Ireland, of the first class, 95,321; of the second class, 1,133,936; of the third class, 839,187. The money received from the whole, was 3,063,932*l.*; and the average charge to each passenger in England and Wales, of the first class, was 8*2d.*; of the second class, 31*½d.*; of the third class, 19*½d.* In Scotland, of the first class, 40*½d.*; of the second class, 16*½d.*; of the third class, 9*½d.* In Ireland, of the first class, 10*½d.*; of the second class, 7*d.*; of the third class, 5*½d.* The great difference that exists between the average fares paid in England, Scotland, and Ireland, is occasioned by the greater length of the English lines of railway beyond those of Scotland and Ireland, and the greater length of the Scottish lines beyond those of Ireland. In the short period between 1838 and 1841, Mr. Porter states the amount of railway travelling throughout the kingdom to have been quadrupled. The amount of receipts from 63 railroads, for 1843, for the conveyance of carriages, horses, cattle, minerals, and general merchandise, was, in England and Wales, 1,303,291*l.*; in Scotland, 104,839*l.*; in Ireland, 6,802*l.* The average cost per mile of the various railways in England, has been 31,522*l.*; in Scotland, 22,165*l.*; and in Ireland, 22,187*l.* Mr. Porter concluded his paper by drawing a comparison of the working of English railways with those of Belgium, the only country in Europe, besides England, in which such works have hitherto been carried on as a system, and where the results have been published. At the end of 1842, there were in operation in that kingdom 232 miles of railway, the average cost of constructing which was 17,120*l.* per mile, about half the cost in the United Kingdom. This difference results from a variety of causes. In the first place, the works being undertaken by the government, there were no expensive parliamentary contests; no opposing interests to be bought off; no unreasonable compensations to be paid for land; and, from the nature of the country, there were comparatively few engineering difficulties to be overcome. Besides these circumstances, there has been much present saving effected in the manner of executing the works, which have been performed in a less perfect manner than would satisfy the magnificent ideas of an English engineer. The number of passengers conveyed along the various lines in Belgium, in 1842, was 2,724,104, there being in Belgium of the first class, 9 per cent; of the second class, 25 per cent; of the third class, 66 per cent; whereas, in the United Kingdom, the per centage was, for the first class, 19; the second class, 51; the third class, 30. The receipts for passengers were, in Belgium, 1*s.* 4*½d.* for a distance of 19 miles, against 2*s.* 2*½d.* in the United Kingdom, for a distance of 13*½* miles.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## LOSS OF VESSELS ON THE BAHAMA BANKS.

COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, PORT OF PERTH AMBOY.

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

The recent losses of vessels and lives, on and near the Bahama banks, have awakened much sympathy in every breast, and produced as much wonder at the apathy of the commercial world in regard to these events. It is well known that nearly all vessels bound for ports in the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico, avoid as much as possible the gulf stream, between the latitudes of 25 and 35 deg. N., and that those bound westward of 80 deg. W. longitude, make the "Hole in the Wall," on Abaco, and then have, in thick and stormy weather, a ticklish and anxious navigation, until they get off the Bahama bank, and ascertain their relative situation, when steering westward through the gulf stream, coursing between Cuba and the Florida Keys. The dangers commence after leaving the light at the "Hole in the Wall." The currents between the south end of Abaco and the Berry islands, are strong and diverse. On the Berry islands, which have so often proved the fatal end of many a voyage, there is no light. From them, when seen, the navigator takes his departure for his course over the Bahama bank. If wind and weather favors, all is well—for the lead, that faithful friend to the sailor, can easily guide the course; but the danger, and a great one it is, is in missing the course, and touching on the Orange Keys. My recommendation to merchants would be, induce the government to unite with England, and other governments most concerned in the navigation of those seas, to place a good light on the northern Berry island. Put a light-ship, well furnished with fog-bell, and other usual appurtenances, midway the channel from the Berry isles to the Orange Keys, in three fathoms water, in about lat. 25 deg. 20 min., and then a beacon, with light, on the Orange Keys. With such a range of lights and precautions, the navigator could cheerfully run his vessel, and merchants and insurers have better hope of safety. I have often wondered, when anxiously going over the track above alluded to, how it could be that the merchants of our country could be so easily induced to trust their vessels, and the lives of their friends, over a navigation so beset with dangers, and yet make no effort to point out to the notice of the government the necessity of some appropriation to meet the case. Vessels and property, it is true, may be insured, and the loss made up; but no insurance can recover back life, experience, and energy; and to this positive loss, insurers should direct their thoughts. A government loses much, indeed, when, by shipwreck, the veteran seaman—the enterprising youth—the man of business, and the fond family, are hurried together to eternity. The late gales in the West Indies have done vast damage; but the damage sustained by loss of life in navigating a critical, yet neglected course, is a reproach on owners, insurers, and government. Awaken the attention of our mercantile community to this subject; and, ere Congress shall convene, something may be done to forward public energy on this important matter. Our growing southern trade demands prompt attention.

Yours, in the cause of humanity.

"AN OLD SALT."

## SUNKEN ROCK NEAR THE ISLAND OF ROCKAL.

Mr. Bartlett, of the brig *Guide*, of Hull, arrived in the river, from Montreal, reports that off the small island of Rockal, lat. 57. 39. N., long. 13. 31. W., there is a clump of hidden rocks, about 80 or 90 feet in length, and 30 feet in breadth; the main rock, on Rockal, bearing from the outer one W. by N. by compass, distance 8 miles. "On the 15th April, 1844, at 4 A. M., sighted Rockal, bearing N. W., ship lying N. W. by W., strong gales from the S. W. by W., clear weather. Was desirous to keep my reach to the N. W. Not being able to weather Rockal, bore away to round the north end—had my mate aloft, and myself on deck, to look for breakers. Suddenly I found the vessel between the outer rock and the main one, at least eight miles distant. With difficulty I cleared, by hauling the ship suddenly on the starboard tack, being not more than one sea from the broken water—breaks occasionally. They are bad to discern aloft, but their locality may be seen much more readily off deck, by the color of the water. The morning being clear, was able to obtain the bearing and distance pretty correctly."

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## MEXICAN LAW RELATIVE TO FOREIGNERS.

THE following circular regulations, relative to the entrance of foreigners into Mexico, by the northern frontier, emanating from the office of Foreign Relations of Government and Police, are republished in this Magazine for the benefit of the citizens of the United States, and all whom it may concern. It is signed by John Granja, the Mexican Consul-General to the United States:—

## CIRCULAR.

His Excellency, the Constitutional President, taking into consideration that the law of May 1, 1828, and the ordinances subsequently issued, relative to the admission of foreigners by the northern frontier into the republic, have not answered the ends for which they were dictated:

That through the said frontiers a considerable number of foreigners have fraudulently introduced themselves into the country, without being provided with the requisite passports, and without complying with the formalities of the laws relating to their immigration:

That the extent to which this immigration has been carried, imperiously requires that strict measures be taken to supply the defect existing in the said regulation, and to prevent the evils caused by this abuse, has decided, in cabinet council, and by advice of the council of government, that the following rules shall be observed:—

1. In order that a foreigner may be permitted to enter the territory of the republic by the northern frontier, he must observe the following regulations:—1st. He must enter by either of the places designated for land commerce with the United States. 2d. He must present his passport to the collector of the custom-house of the place where he shall enter. That document, in case it shall have been received from the government, or any functionary authorized to deliver it to persons arriving in Mexico for the purposes of trade, shall be countersigned by the diplomatic agent or consul of the Mexican republic. The supreme government of Mexico may also give passports at the request of persons interested; in which case, it shall not be necessary to be countersigned by the said Mexican agents. 3d. The said foreigners shall make, before the said collector of the custom-house, a formal avowal of submission to the laws and authorities of the nation, and pledge themselves to say, do, or write nothing contrary to the said avowal, during the time they shall reside in the territory of the nation, agreeably to the rules prescribed by the laws of nations.

2. One passport shall not serve for more than one person, except given to the heads of families, which may comprehend the wife, and children under sixteen years of age.

3. The preceding rules will be enforced against every foreigner entering by the said northern frontiers, either as merchant, servant, or driver, companion, or member of an escort, or in any other capacity, whatever.

4. No passport shall be given except for a place designated for land commerce with the United States, and shall serve only for the place mentioned in said document.

5. The collectors of frontier custom-houses shall state on the passports that the persons interested have made the avowal required by article 1st of these regulations; and, after having received the declaration mentioned in the articles 2d and 3d of the law of May 1, 1828, they shall send the originals to the foreign office, through the governor of the department.

6. Foreigners who shall enter Mexico in violation of any of the formalities or rules hereby established, shall be expelled from the territory of the republic.

7. The law of May 1, 1828, relative to foreigners arriving by the northern frontier, shall remain in force in all respects that are not contrary to the present rules.

8. As the object of all treaties of commerce is to protect lawful trade, foreigners who have already entered the republic by the northern frontier, without having complied with the law of May 1, 1828, may continue to reside in the country—provided, always, that they have not forfeited the confidence of the government by their conduct; provided that they follow avocations of commerce or industry, and that they obey the laws relative to the residence of foreigners; but, if not devoted to such avocations, and by their conduct cause suspicion to rest upon them, they may be expelled within a reasonable time, (never exceeding six months,) by the governors of the departments in which they reside; the governors giving due notice to the supreme national government.

The regulations of the 22d of July last shall continue in force in relation to the introduction of slaves through any place, whatever, in the republic.

## CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES AT RIO DE JANEIRO.

REGULATIONS AT RIO DE JANEIRO RELATIVE TO POSTAGE ON LETTERS, BOOKS, NEWSPAPERS, ETC.

The following notice, transmitted to the Department of State, at Washington, by Geo. William Gorden, Consul of the United States at Rio de Janeiro, in relation to postage on letters, newspapers, and other mail matter forwarded to Brazil from this country, was received at the Department on the 10th November, 1844, and is officially published for the information of whom it may concern. It is dated Rio de Janeiro, Sept. 23d, 1844:—

Newspapers and other printed matter, forwarded to Brazil, should be enveloped with one end of the packet open, or the corners uncovered. If a packet containing such matter be wholly closed, it is subjected here to the same rate of postage as letters, and estimated by weight, though the same be brought by vessel from over sea, and delivered from the office of deposit. The privilege of opening packets at the post-office, as in the United States, and paying for what they contain, is not permitted; but the full letter rate of postage taxed upon a closely enveloped packet must be paid, or the package is withheld.

Letters should never be closed with newspapers, pamphlets, or other printed matter—when thus closed, the whole packet is subjected to letter rates of postage, without remedy.

Letters or packets forwarded to the care of resident merchants, or the American consul, should bear the whole address on the face of them, without their being re-enveloped, as additional wrappers increase the weight, and consequently the postage.

The postage charged on letters from the United States, delivered at the port of arrival in this empire, is 150 reis, or about 8 cents, for each sheet. On newspapers, properly enveloped, 30 reis each paper.

On books, bound or unbound, one quarter the amount of letter postage, rated by weight. Books should be entered on the manifest of the vessel bringing them, and passed through the custom-house; in which case, the amount of duties charged, if for personal use, is very trifling.

Attention to this notice, by individuals sending mail matter to this country, is important; otherwise parties addressed may be obliged to pay several, perhaps five or ten dollars, for a package of newspapers; or, by refusing to do so, be subjected to the loss of the papers, and the risk of the packet's containing something more valuable.

## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON.

The President of this Institution has favored us with the Twenty-Fourth Annual Report, which furnishes fresh evidence of its substantial and elevated condition. Previous to the appearance of the report of last year, it became obvious that the condition of the institution demanded, at the hands of its members, additional exertions to increase its means, and extend its usefulness. Accordingly, the lecture system was adopted; which has, we are pleased to learn, been carried through, with the most satisfactory results. The amount received from the sale of tickets, the first year of the experiment, was \$1,329; and the expenses incurred, \$1,003 17—being a profit of \$325 83. The lectures commenced with the celebration of the twenty-third anniversary, by an admirable address from Hon. Philip Hone, of New York, and an appropriate poem, by Hon. George Lunt, of Newburyport. A strong array of names completed the course thus commenced, viz: Hon. Levi Woodbury, John Neal, Elihu Barrett, John O. Sargeant, Hon. Josiah Quincy, jr., Wendall Phillips, Ralph Waldo Emerson, William Sturgess, Rev. H. Bellows, Henry Giles, &c., and others no less distinguished in the walks of public usefulness. The directors, in their report, pay a just tribute to William Sturgess, of Boston, through whose influence a donation of one thousand dollars was made to the institution, in sums of \$100 each, from the following eminent merchants of Boston, viz: William Sturgess, Nathan Appleton, Abbott Lawrence, William Appleton, John P. Cushang, John Bryant, David Sears, William Lawrence, Robert G. Shaw, and Amos Lawrence. A contribution was also made to the institution of \$500, from the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful

Knowledge, through their President, Daniel Webster. The library now contains 3,850 volumes. "In the selection of books," says the report, "we have endeavored to consult the interests of every reader, by purchasing works of an entertaining, as well as of an instructive character; and to avoid, as much as possible, those ephemeral popular fictions, which so profusely flood the land; being convinced that their influence upon the mental and moral condition of the young is most pernicious—inasmuch as, by familiarizing their minds with imaginary scenes of degraded and brutalized humanity, or a tissue of sickly sentimentality, they produce a species of mental intoxication, having a direct tendency to impair the finer feelings, and render the soul callous to lofty and noble sentiments, and unprepared for the realities and duties of every-day life."

The exercises in declamation, debate, and composition, by members, have been, it appears, conducted in a manner creditable to the institution; and the other exercises connected with commercial education, which are justly regarded of paramount importance, have been well sustained. "Although," says the report, "it is not to be expected that those who aim at mercantile eminence will become profound scholars, yet, by a judicious application of their leisure hours, to the rational culture of those faculties which are possessed in common by every individual, they may become intelligent, and therefore respectable; useful, and therefore honorable; and, with the advantages of a large and well selected library, we know of no way by which young men can better fit themselves to be good citizens, and cherished members of society, than by participating in exercises similar to those of this association."

The whole amount of receipts, during the past year, for assessments and fines, has been twelve hundred and seventy-five dollars; for dividends on stocks, fifty dollars; and the amount expended, eleven hundred dollars—leaving a balance, from the year's receipts, of two hundred and twenty-five dollars; which, in addition to a balance at the commencement of the year, of sixty dollars, now leaves a total balance in the treasury of two hundred and eighty-five dollars, independent of the funds received by donations, which remains in the hands of the "Committee on the Purchase of Books."

The report—a clear, comprehensive, and business-like paper—reflects credit on the President and Board of Directors, and concludes with urging the claims of the association upon the attention of the members:—

"Every member should take a personal interest in the welfare of the institution, and labor as heartily to promote its prosperity, and extend its influence, as if he were an officer. It would require but little effort to double the number of our members, if all of those now enjoying its advantages would put forth their strength in its behalf. We hope to see the time come, when all the mercantile young men of Boston will be banded together under the constitution of our association, intent to promote their mutual interests, ambitious to increase the means and materials of their mutual benefit; meeting as companions and friends in a league of hearts and fellowship of mind; meeting for self-culture, for improvement in all which will advance their worldly interests; for progress in intellectual and moral excellence; for everything that will tend to make them good merchants, and intelligent and conscientious men."

#### THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

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

SIR—On the solution of "The Question for Accountants," your last number presents a voluminous communication from Mr. W. B. Heriot; the object of which is to disprove the propriety of my "views" on the subject under consideration.

While, with marked deference to the judgment of Mr. H., I decline to adopt a precedent which would dictate the propriety of occupying nearly *three pages* to arrive at an issue which may be adduced in half as many *lines*; namely, whether the wares drawn out of company should be valued at *cost*, or *present worth*, this being the only point in dispute;—while, I repeat, I decline a course like this, I would fain inquire by what authority, or for what reason, does he draw the *same wares* out of company at a *less value*

than their *cost*, when put into company?—thus exhibiting an *apparent loss* on merchandise *not yet sold!* and which, for all he knows to the contrary, may, by the constant and almost ever-varying fluctuations in trade, either *rise* on the morrow, far above *cost*, or *fall* far below even their *present worth*, and thus place the author of the “*critique*,” if manager, under the indispensable necessity of closing his previously opened account of merchandise in books *proper*; and, as a consequence, thus compelling him to re-open it under a different valuation, to accommodate *his* notions of book-keeping.

Again—suppose the wares sold in partnership had produced \$120 per piece, would the practice be not equally correct, on Mr. H.’s plan, to charge those drawn out of company, and taken to private account, at their *present value*? This being unavoidably so, an *apparent gain* would be shown on what was *never sold!*—a fact which would be completely reversed by a *fall* in price, previous to a sale; thereby showing the absolute folly of any other adjustment than that which I have offered, (as all competent accountants know,) and thus properly leaving the ultimate gain or loss on the sales to be determined as circumstances may warrant.

Taking, I hope, a final farewell of this subject, I conclude by informing Mr. H. that his extremely simple question is answered by giving to A \$700 of the amount paid by C, and to B the sum of \$100.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obliged servant,

J. W. WRIGHT.

#### ANSWER TO MR. HERIOT’S QUESTION.

As I understand it, A’s interest in the ship is  $\frac{2}{3}$ , and B’s  $\frac{1}{3}$ , up to the time of their transaction with C;\* after which, the three interests are to be equalized. This will be accomplished by the following

#### JOURNAL ENTRIES.

	DRS.	CRS.
Ship to sundries, for original investment,.....	\$800 00	
to A,.....		\$500 00
to B,.....		300 00
A to ship,.....	800 00	
for amount received from C, in payment for $\frac{1}{3}$ share,.....		800 00
Ship new acc. to ship,.....	1,600 00	
For this amount transferred, as the value of A and B’s present interest,.....		1,600 00
Ship to sundries,.....	1,600 00	
For balance of profits on this account—		
To A, his $\frac{2}{3}$ ,.....		1,000 00
To B, his $\frac{1}{3}$ ,.....		600 00
B to A, amount paid the latter in cash,.....	100 00	
For balance due, to equalize their present interests, (which answers the question,).....		100 00
Ship new acc. to C,.....	800 00	
For his $\frac{1}{3}$ share,.....		800 00

When the above entries are posted, the result will be—

DEBITS, OR ASSETS.		CREDITS, OR CLAIMANTS.	
Ship new acc.,.....	\$2,400	A, $\frac{1}{3}$ ,.....	\$800
		B, $\frac{1}{3}$ ,.....	800
		C, $\frac{1}{3}$ ,.....	800
	\$2,400		\$2,400

Perhaps the following may be considered, by some, as a simpler view of the case:—Without any regard to cost, let us begin by supposing A to own  $\frac{2}{3}$ , and B to own  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the ship, which is, in fact, the case; but we need make no account of their respective advances. Then A is entitled to  $\frac{2}{3}$ , and B  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the proceeds, viz: \$800. At this period,

\* This part of the question is quite ambiguous; but if A and B are to share the profits equally from the first, then A will have to pay B \$300, instead of \$100.

A will own of the remaining  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the ship  $\frac{2}{3}$ , and B  $\frac{1}{3}$ . But before we proceed further, it is necessary to know what this  $\frac{2}{3}$  is worth; for on this the answer to the question depends. They sell  $\frac{1}{3}$ , it is true, for \$800; but it does not necessarily follow that they may value the remainder at so high a rate. This question is here important, and should have been stated by Mr. Heriot; for A must now sell B  $\frac{1}{3}$  of his  $\frac{2}{3}$ , to make them equal. I have valued the  $\frac{2}{3}$  at \$1,600, the  $\frac{1}{3}$  of which is \$200. But Mr. Heriot must see that as this is an actual sale from A to B, any other valuation would make a difference to A and B, which would not, as in ordinary cases, be rectified in the next ship's account. If we now make out A and B's accounts, they will stand thus:—

<p>Dr.</p> <p>To cash received for <math>\frac{1}{3}</math>,.....</p>	\$800	A	<p>By <math>\frac{2}{3}</math>, proceeds of sale <math>\frac{1}{3}</math>,.....</p> <p>“ B, for <math>\frac{1}{3}</math> of rem. <math>\frac{2}{3}</math>,.....</p> <p>“ balance,.....</p>	<p>Cr.</p> <p>\$500</p> <p>200</p> <p>100</p>
	\$800			\$800
<p>Dr.</p> <p>To A, for <math>\frac{1}{3}</math> of rem. <math>\frac{2}{3}</math>,.....</p> <p>“ balance,.....</p>	<p>\$200</p> <p>100</p>	B	<p>By <math>\frac{1}{3}</math>, proceeds of sale <math>\frac{2}{3}</math>,.....</p>	<p>Cr.</p> <p>\$300</p>
	\$300			\$300

THOMAS JONES.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES IN GREECE.

It is stated by Boeck, in his "Economy of Athens," that commercial occupations were never in great esteem among the ancient Greeks. No person of ancient nobility ever condescended to them, although conversely a manufacturer might raise himself to the head of public affairs, such as Cleon, Hyperbolus, and others. The early statesmen, however, encouraged industry, especially Solon, Themistocles, and Pericles, partly with the intention of improving the condition of the lower classes, and partly of increasing the population of the city; as well as advancing the cause of commerce, and of manning the numerous fleets by which, after the time of Themistocles, the Athenians held the mastery of the sea. And it was this circumstance that rendered the resident aliens indispensable for Athens, who carried on manufactures and commerce to a great extent, and were bound to serve in the fleet. It even appears that the useful arts were encouraged by honorary rewards, though even by these means they could not gain in the public estimation. There were prizes for the common people, for which the higher ranks did not compete with them. At the same time, the respectable citizens, who had none of the higher aristocratical notions, like Pericles, Alcibiades, or Callias, the son of Hipponicus, whose pride yielded in nothing to the haughtiness of the modern nobility, were not ashamed of superintending extensive manufactories, worked at their own expense. The inferior citizens were as much reduced to the necessity of manual labor as the poor aliens and slaves. It was not until after the balance had been turned in favor of the aristocracy, that measures of severity were brought forward; as, for example, Diophantus proposed that all the manual laborers should be made public slaves. There was again another reason why no restriction should have been imposed upon the freedom of industry, viz: the little importance that was attached to it. An alien was allowed to carry on any trade, although he was prohibited from holding any property in land. With regard, indeed, to the sale in the market, strangers were on a less advantageous footing than natives, as they were obliged to pay a duty for permission to expose their goods there. The law of Solon, that men should not deal in ointments, was only founded on principles of education, in order to withdraw men from womanish labors—subsequently, however, it became a dead letter, for Eschines, the philosopher, had a manufactory of ointments.

## THE BOOK OF THE EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

We are gratified to learn that the very natural curiosity expressed by the public, both at home and abroad, in regard to the "Narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition, during the years 1838, '39, '40, '41, and '42, by Charles Wilkes, U. S. N.," of which but little or nothing has been published, is soon to be gratified. From Lea & Blanchard, the enterprising publishers, of Philadelphia, we learn that considerable progress has been made in that city in printing the work. It will consist, first, of five demi-quarto volumes, of about five hundred pages each, illustrated very superbly, with sixty-eight steel plates—about forty-six steel vignettes worked on the pages of letter-press, and two hundred wood-cuts scattered through the work, with four very large maps, and several smaller ones. This edition is ordered by Congress for distribution to foreign powers and a few libraries—it will be a very small one. A second edition, (if such it may be called, when both are simultaneously printed,) of octavo size, will be published, and will be under the control of Lea & Blanchard, of Philadelphia. The copy-right of this belongs to, and has been secured by, the author. It will contain the same illustrations, the whole of which are in a very forward state. Nearly two volumes of both editions are actually printed, and the whole will probably be ready for publication in three months. More attention has been given to the mere "getting-up" of this work, than to any other published in this country. It is purely, in all its parts, an American production—the illustrations are highly creditable to our artists and draftsmen, and may be classed with the best that have appeared in Europe. A portion of these, we have seen. We shall, after the publication, endeavor to convey to our readers a correct account of the literary execution. Great labor has undoubtedly been bestowed by author, artists, and the scientific gentlemen attached to the expedition, to make this a truly elegant work. It will, undoubtedly, be a work of great interest to merchants, and those engaged in an extended commerce, as well as the general reader.

## IRON TRADE ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

We learn, says the London Railway Chronicle, from an official return, that the iron trade on the continent has been rapidly extending, and that the following is very nearly the relative proportion of the pig and bar iron manufactured in different states:—Prussia, 199 furnaces, worked with charcoal, employ 8,674 workmen, and produce about 120,000 tons of cast iron, equal in value to £730,000. Wrought iron, in bar and plate, is made at 538 forges, employing 6,049 workmen, and producing 73,000 tons, of the value of £230,000. Bavaria, 44 furnaces, producing 9,000 tons of cast iron, and 141 forges, producing 5,750 tons of wrought iron. Wurtemberg, 6,400 tons of cast, and 2,500 tons of wrought iron. Grand Duchy of Baden, 7,000 tons of cast, and 4,750 tons of malleable iron. Saxony, 7,500 tons of cast, and 4,650 tons of wrought iron. Electorate of Hesse, 4,150 tons of cast, and 990 tons of malleable. Grand Duchy of Hesse, 7,150 tons of cast, and 2,400 tons of malleable. Duchy of Nassau, 14,330 tons of cast, and 1,300 tons of bar iron, and 2,375 tons of different other sorts of iron, in bars, cast and wrought iron work. Duchy of Brunswick, 2,150 tons of cast, and 7,180 tons of wrought iron, or works in cast iron. United States of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach, Saxe-Meiningen, Anhalt, Scharzbouurg-Hohenzollern-Siegmaringen, Reuss, Waldeck, produce 4,035 tons of cast, and 2,240 tons of bar iron, or works in cast iron. German Luxembourg, 7,700 tons of cast iron. Total production of the States of the Zoll-verein: Cast iron, 191,156; wrought iron, or works in cast and wrought iron, 107,324 tons. In proportion to the population, these quantities are not great, since it only amounts to about 15½ lbs. for each person throughout the confederation. In France, where this manufacture is even yet but imperfectly developed, it amounts to above 22 lbs. In Belgium, it is about 36 lbs.; while in England it is as high as 55 to 56 lbs. for each person.

## LATE HOURS OF BUSINESS.

The following remarks, though intended for England, are not without application to the retail trade of our commercial cities. They are from a little work, recently published in England, entitled "The Evils of the Late Hour System, by Ralph B. Grindrod, LL. D."

"The unreasonable conduct of a numerous class of purchasers makes the employment of assistant drapers, in particular, and of all engaged in the traffic of goods, more wearisome and fatiguing than it would be under more favorable circumstances. Every hour, nay, every minute, requires constant attention to the same monotonous round of minute and uninteresting details. To this, is too frequently superadded those perpetual trials of the patience and temper, which those alone can realize who have been subjected to the unreasonable demands of inconsiderate customers. It matters not how often the drawers and shelves may have been arranged during the night. They must again and again be disarranged to accommodate the whims of customers, who too often, after almost endless trouble, make but slight purchases. The young men of our mercers' shops, however minute the order, are required, under all circumstances, to exhibit the same bland and obsequious attention to those upon whom they wait.

"An assistant draper, of long experience, informs the writer that after customers have, late in the evening, so pulled about various articles of dress, the after arrangement of which would give employment for a considerable portion of time, it is generally the case that they conclude by a remark to the following effect:—'It is impossible to tell what sort of color it may be by daylight; so I will call again in the morning.' This wonderful discovery, unfortunately for the poor assistant, is only made after a tedious trial of the patience and temper, although probably the light of day had given place to that of gas at least an hour previously.

"The modern spirit of competition has induced a numerous class of tradesmen to adopt a plausible but fictitious appearance of traffic—a practice which, we may readily suppose, does not diminish the hard lot of assistants. No leisure moments, consequently, must be devoted to other than the business of the shop—no intervals of rest are permitted in the absence of persons to purchase. An *appearance* of business is enforced; the hurry and bustle of a thriving trade is exhibited; in lack of other duties, articles must be packed and repacked; ribbons again and again rolled—every specious means, in short, is put into operation to impress the public with an opinion of extensive traffic. The already overtasked assistants suffer the penalties of this system of delusion."

## MISSOURI IRON MOUNTAINS.

Professor Silliman and Forest Shepherd, of New Haven, recently made a mineralogical exploring tour in Missouri. The first-named gentleman, in his college course of lectures, just closed, stated the following facts in regard to the Missouri iron mountains, as communicated to the New Haven Palladium:—"There are two of these iron mountains, he said, situated not far distant from each other, and forty or fifty miles west of the river Mississippi. One of them, I understood him to say, was about 700, and the other something more than 300 feet in height; that is, above the level of the surrounding plain. The iron with which they abound is a peroxyde, consisting of twenty-eight parts iron, and fourteen parts oxygen—thus constituting a very rich ore of iron. As you approach either of these mountains, and before you get to them, you find lumps and masses of this form of iron, scattered much like the stones of New England. Advancing, you find the masses in larger numbers and greater size; and so on up the mountains, till you approach their summits, where you find one vast capping to the mountain of these iron rocks and stones, whose depth has never been explored! Of course, how far they go down, we do not know, nor what proportion of the substance of these mountains is iron, but we perceive the quantity there to be immense, almost beyond calculation—enough, I understood the professor to say, to supply the whole human race, even under the present vast consumption of iron, with that metal for ages to come. The base and sides of the mountain, Dr. Silliman said, are thickly and beautifully wooded—even after you come to the immense cappings with which the mountains are rounded off, you find the trees everywhere shoot up among those rocks, although you can discover scarce a trace of soil."

## SELF-RELIANCE IMPORTANT TO THE MERCHANT.

Self-reliance, to the merchant, and indeed to all who would succeed in the accomplishment of a laudable purpose or pursuit, is indispensable. It was this trait, perhaps, more than any other, that enabled an Astor, a Girard, a Gray, in our own country, to work out for themselves vast fortunes—to accumulate millions. An eminent writer has somewhere said, if our young men miscarry in their first enterprise, they lose all heart. If the young merchant fails, men say he is ruined. If the finest genius studies in one of our colleges, and is not installed in an office in one year afterwards, in the city or suburbs of Boston or New York, it seems to his friends and to himself that he is right in being disheartened, and in complaining the rest of his life. A sturdy lad from New Hampshire or Vermont, who in turn tries all the professions, who teams it, farms it, peddles, keeps a school, preaches, edits a newspaper, goes to Congress, buys a township, and so forth, in successive years, and always, like a cat, falls on his feet, is worth a hundred of these city dolls. He walks abreast with his days, and feels no shame in not studying a profession, for he does not postpone his life, but lives already. He has not one chance! Let a stoic arise who shall reveal the resources of man, and tell men they are not leaning willows, but can and must detach themselves; that, with the exercise of self-trust, new powers shall appear; that a man is the word made flesh, born to shed healing to the nations; that he should be ashamed of our compassion; and that the moment he acts from himself, tossing the laws, the books' idolatries and customs, out of the window, we pity him no more, but thank him and revere him—and that teacher shall restore the life of man to splendor, and make his name dear to all history. It is easy to see that a greater self-reliance—a new respect for the divinity in man—must work a revolution in all the offices and relations of men: in their religion; in their education; in their pursuits; their modes of living; their association; in their property; in their speculative views.

## ADVICE TO TRADERS IN AFRICA.

There is, says an intelligent correspondent of the Nautical Magazine, a Hottentot village about forty miles on an east-by-south course from the head of Spencer's Bay, Africa, containing about two hundred and fifty inhabitants, and situated in a fertile valley, watered by several springs of excellent fresh water. There are also four refreshing springs between the village and the bay. The interior of the country abounds in cattle, sheep, deer, bucks, wolves, gray foxes, elephants, and ostriches, in greater numbers than it does farther south, which may be had for any price you please to give, in the way of barter; for money would be of no more use to them, than an equal weight of sand would be to us. Offer them such articles as their circumstances require, and they will trade in the most liberal and honest manner.

“I am aware that most people have imbibed the mistaken idea that these natives are treacherous and cruel, and blood-thirsty, and everything that is bad. They are not so. I make the assertion on personal experience and practical knowledge. There is no more danger in travelling two or three hundred miles in the interior of this country, for purchasing cargoes, than there is in travelling among our own Indians in the state of New York, provided you take no temptations with you, and no other arms than a musket. Whatever you purchase of the natives is sold in good faith, to be paid for according to contract, on the delivery of the articles at the beach, and not before. Under this arrangement, they could not defraud you, were they so disposed; and, were there no other safeguard for your person, the prospect of this payment would be amply sufficient. But their natural dispositions are friendly and humane; and, if you treat them with kindness, they will repay your favors more than ten to one. When they deliver the cattle and other articles at the beach, give them the articles in return for which they stipulated, and they are satisfied; but I would recommend a little extension of courtesy on these occasions, by presenting their chiefs a few tasteful trifles, which may attract their attention. Whatever you bestow in this way, will not be thrown away, but returned to you seven-fold in some of her shape, or on some other occasion.”

## THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The American Almanac, and Repository of Useful Knowledge, for 1845.* Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The sixteenth volume of this standard work has just appeared, and seems fully to sustain the high character acquired by its predecessors. A great amount of information is condensed within a small compass, indispensable for present use, and valuable for preservation, and future references. It is the only work in the country which furnishes complete lists of the names, residences, and salaries of all the officers of the executive and judiciary, not only of the national government, but of all the individual states and territories. Full particulars are also found in it, collected from official sources of the latest date, respecting the finances, common schools, internal improvements, and benevolent institutions of the several states. We notice, also, complete lists of the colleges, medical and theological, and medical schools, and statistics of all the religious denominations. The astronomical computations in the present volume, furnished by one of the most distinguished men of science in the country, (Professor B. Peirce, of Harvard University,) appear of more than usual extent and value; and the collection of meteorological tables is very curious, as showing the climate and weather at all important points in our extensive territory. Each volume of the almanac is a new work, no part being reprinted without extensive alterations and additions, and most of it being altogether original. We find in this number the returns respecting the commerce of the United States, similar to those published in this Magazine, distinguishing its various branches, and showing its comparative state for more than twenty years. There are also full particulars respecting the revenue and expenditure of the general government, ever since it was established. A curious article of criticisms on the late census for 1840, contains some valuable suggestions for the statistical inquirer. Separate chapters are allotted to the judiciary, army, navy, post-office, mint, and public lands; the essence of all the important public documents published at the last session of Congress being given in the most succinct form. Another novel feature of the work, is the abstract of all the public laws passed at the last session of Congress, which is to be continued for future sessions; so that the Almanac will contain a record of the legislation of the country, in a form very concise, and admirably adapted for reference. The full obituary register, containing a brief, but carefully prepared sketch of the lives of distinguished men, who have died during the past year, will be found interesting for immediate perusal, and of much use for preservation, as containing valuable materials for the history of our own times. As a whole, the American Almanac may well be commended, as being what its name imports—a national work; the high character of which, for fulness and accuracy, is now generally acknowledged.

- 2.—*American Wild Flowers, in their Native Haunts.* By EMMA C. EMBURY. With twenty plates of Plants, carefully colored after nature, and Landscape Views of their localities, from Drawings on the spot. By E. WHITEFIELD. pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The large and highly gilded quarto volume, whose title we have quoted, is another contribution to what may be properly termed the fine arts of literature. It is richly adorned, and its letter-press, paper, and all its embellishments, are elegant. It appears, indeed, as if the gorgeous flowers of our own country had been transplanted from their native fields, with portions of the landscape where they had flourished, to the pages of this book, whose covers are also emblazoned with vases of flowers of gold. The painted designs of the volume are illustrated with descriptive papers and poems, by some of our most popular authors; and it forms, altogether, the most splendid and appropriate gift-book of the season.

- 3.—*The Rose of Sharon. A Religious Souvenir for MDCCCXLV.* Edited by Miss S. C. EDGARTON. Boston: A. Tompkins & B. B. Muzzy.

The frontispiece, "Excelsior," is happily chosen, to indicate the onward and upward aim of the fair editor of this beautiful annual, which has now reached its sixth volume. We have all but one of them, and it affords us pleasure to note the improvements that have characterized each successive issue. That in the engravings is perhaps the most prominent; and we think, too, we discover in the constant contributors a more matured style, and higher aims; the articles, to say the least, exhibit a vein of christian thought and sentiment, more in harmony with the principles of a spiritualized, active, philanthropy. In "Glimpses of a Better Life," Horace Greely has given utterance to some of the highest and best thoughts of our time; thoughts which seem to occupy the attention of the loftiest intellects christendom over; if we can rely upon the expression they find in periodical literature, the speeches of the statesman, and the efforts of those who would advance man's social destiny on earth. E. H. Chapin, an eloquent divine, and one of the most popular Lyceum lecturers in New England, has contributed an admirable essay on "Unity," a little word, but a subject of deep significance to the christian philosopher. On the whole, we may commend the present volume, as one well calculated to strengthen and encourage every noble and generous impulse of our nature.

- 4.—*The Novels of Frederika Bremer. The Neighbors—The Home—The President's Daughters—Nina—Sketches of Every-Day Life—The H— Family, &c., &c.* Translated by MARY HOWITT. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We are glad to welcome these works, included in a single volume. Their appearance marks, we may almost say, a new era in English literature. They have at least opened to English and American readers a new literary world—one before almost entirely unknown to the great mass of the people, and scarcely explored even by literary men. They have also done not a little to open new fields for the exercise of the imagination, in investing with the colors of fiction the daily and hourly occurrences of domestic life. But most of all is their influence to be prized for the spirit of love and brotherly sympathy which they display, and for the irresistible charm which they throw around the domestic virtues, and the sweet charities of common life. No series of novels, in the compass of English literature, can be compared with them in this respect. Their influence must always be salutary, and they will never cease to be read so long as delightful narrative, fertile and graceful imagination, and the most delicate taste, render literary productions attractive. They have been published in one large octavo, very handsomely issued, and forming a most desirable work.

- 5.—*Revolutionary Orders of General Washington, issued during the years 1778, '80, '81, and '82.* Selected from the MSS. of JOHN WHITING, Lieutenant and Adjutant of the 2d Regiment Massachusetts Line, and edited by his son, HENRY WHITING, Lieutenant-Colonel U. S. Army. 8vo., pp. 255. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.

The correspondence of such a man as Washington, upon any topic, will attract respect and interest; and especially his orders upon subjects regarding his military career. In the very valuable series of volumes, embracing the correspondence of Washington, which has been compiled by Mr. Sparks, this part has been omitted; and it accordingly forms a proper supplement to those volumes. The various subjects which these orders embrace, are many of them minute; yet they serve to show the principles which guided the public conduct of this upright man, which induced him to be as scrupulous in his regard for the smallest, as the greatest of his concerns. They also exhibit his reliance upon a superintending Providence, and his watchfulness respecting the condition even of the most obscure soldier in the ranks of his army. As indicating the military character of the commander-in-chief upon the field, and the discipline which he preserved, they are a very valuable contribution to the revolutionary history of the country.

6.—*The Child's Picture and Verse-Book, commonly called Otto Speckter's Fable-Book.* Translated from the original German. By MARY HOWITT, author of "Love and Money," "Work and Wages," "Alice Franklin," "Hope On, Hope Ever," "Who Shall be Greatest," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

7.—*My Uncle, the Clock-Maker. A Tale.* By MARY HOWITT.

Mary Howitt has contributed liberally to our stock of juvenile literature, and her books are not only unexceptionable in their tone and tendency, but they are absolutely excellent; and, as moral and social teachers, they deserve a high rank, if not the highest. There is, in her truthful fictions, none of the false sentiment, the erroneous judgments concerning character, principle, and duty; the exaggerated coloring of life and manners, and human prospects, which falsify and debase the common romance; and, we are sorry to add, render worthless and enervating so many of the little works written for the improvement of the young. We love to read well written books for children—there are few of Mary Howitt's works from which we have derived more pleasure than from those intended for the young; and we feel no shame in confessing that we have read several of the works enumerated in the titles above quoted, with interest and pleasure.

8.—*Clever Stories, for Clever Boys and Girls; containing "Think Before You Act," "Jack, the Sailor Boy," "Duty is Safety."* By Mrs. SHERWOOD, author of "Henry Milner," "Little Lucy," etc., etc. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

"Clever Stories"—a very good title, and followed by very good "words;" the better because designed for children and young persons. If we could ever advocate a censorship of the press, it would be for the purpose of preventing the publication of "grown-up romances in miniature." We rank them with baby balls and boys' parties, in which the evils of mature life and artificial society are made to come down to the innocent and pure, and torment them before their time. If we were compelled to regulate morals and trade by human laws, we would allow no traffic but in "things true, honest, lovely, pure, and of good report." Under such laws, the author of "Clever Stories" would have no cause to fear. There is nothing in her pages but what is true and healthful, tending to impart and sustain a high tone of moral sentiment; to build the character on elevated principle, and to raise up for us sons and daughters who shall adorn and bless society.

9.—*The Prize Story Book; consisting chiefly of Tales translated from the German, French, and Italian; together with Select Tales from the English. Embellished with numerous designs.* Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

The sources from which this collection of tales has been derived, were ample; and the author or translator has brought together, in an accessible form, a variety of pieces, scattered throughout voluminous works, mixed up with others of less interesting, and even objectional character. There is not, however, in the present volume, anything fairly open to objection on the score of principle, or which may be thought to countenance a questionable morality. Every story in the book does not, perhaps, contain a direct lesson of instruction. It does not profess to be more than a mere *book of recreation*; and, in many cases, of *mirthful* recreation, too. It seems, on the whole, to be the design that, if any moral is deducible, it should not be a bad one.

10.—*The Book of the Indians of North America; illustrating their Manners, Customs, and Present State.* Edited by JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Book of the Army," "Book of the Navy," etc., etc. 12mo., pp. 283. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The editor of the Book of the Indians has heretofore won deserved credit in preparing two works illustrating the history of two prominent arms of the public defence. In the present volume, he has embodied much interesting matter connected with the character, history, and customs of the Indian tribes. The habits of many of the remote western Indians, who are little known to white men, are here described; and the book is enlivened with numerous engravings, which present the customs of those tribes in a visible form. We are glad to perceive that there is an evident improvement in the style of this species of our historic literature, as well as in the form of its publication.

- 11.—*Richard III., as Duke of Gloucester and King of England.* By CAROLINE A. HALSTEAD, author of the "Life of Margaret Beaufort," and "Obligations of Literature to the Mothers of England." Complete in one volume. Svo., pp. 472. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The work whose title we have here quoted, is an attempt to rescue the character of the Duke of Gloucester from the aspersions cast upon it by early historical records, as well as by the great dramatist Shakspeare. We have been accustomed to view him as a diminutive hunchback, although an accomplished warrior; possessing mighty energy, and all-absorbing ambition, yet having a soul black and malignant as, according to popular belief, his body was deformed. These traits are denied, in the volume, as belonging to this personage. It is alleged that the imputations of this sort, resting upon his character, are unfounded, being based upon unauthenticated tradition and inaccurate history. We can easily imagine that the unenviable position which he sustained toward the public of his own time, exposed him to many popular rumors, as malicious as they were exaggerated. Historical facts are referred to for the purpose of showing that the nation was indebted to him for many salutary statutes; that he was distinguished for the administration of justice, and for acts of beneficence towards the arts, and seminaries of learning; and that he was innocent of that long catalogue of crimes which, it is to be regretted, disfigured the stormy age in which he lived.

- 12.—*Anastasis; or, The Doctrine of the Resurrection of the Body Rationally and Scripturally Considered.* By GEORGE BUSH, Professor of Hebrew, New York University. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is a remarkable work, and has already created considerable interest among Christian theologians; and will, we predict, increase and extend its interest and influence, as it shall become more widely known in the religious world. The results announced, are of momentous import to the interests of revealed truth. The conclusions to which Professor Bush has arrived, as embodied in the present volume, must, "if built upon sound premises, present the grand future under an entirely new aspect." "The resurrection of the body," he says, "if my reasonings and expositions are well founded, is not a doctrine of revelation." The almost universally admitted idea of human progress, he applies to Scripture; maintaining, with great perspicuity and force, that the knowledge of Revelation, like that of Nature, is destined to be continually on the advance. The elevated character of the author, intellectually and morally, cannot fail of commanding for his investigations a profound respect, and the most marked consideration.

- 13.—*The Complete Works of Mrs. Hemans. Reprinted entire, from the last London edition.* Edited by her sister. In two volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The reputation of Mrs. Hemans as a poetess, is too well known to require commendation. The present volumes are given to us in a compressed form. The entire body of her poetic efforts, although they appear in a small but clear type, are more valuable on that account, to those who may wish to carry them on occasional travelling excursions, when a more bulky edition would be inconvenient and cumbrous. The edition is, however, adorned with engravings; and, we doubt not, will amply compensate the publishers in their reprint of it in the present elegant form. It is from the latest London edition, and the most complete and perfect heretofore published.

- 14.—*The Settlers in Canada. Written for Young People.* By CAPTAIN MARYATT. In 2 volumes, 18mo., pp. 170-179. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The design of these two little volumes is to depict the circumstances connected with the first settlement of emigrants in Canada. Captain Maryatt uses a ready and graphic pen, and he is doubtless conversant with the scenes he has described. The narrative portion is conveyed in a style easily intelligible by the youthful mind, to which it is especially addressed; and it is also interesting to the mature reader, in so far as it exhibits some of the most prominent events connected with the life of an emigrant, in the yet new territory of Canada.

15.—*The Library of American Biography*. Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second series. Vol. III. 12mo., pp. 438. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The public are much indebted to Mr. Sparks for perpetuating, in permanent forms, the most important portion of the documentary history of the country. The present volume contains the life of John Sullivan, by Oliver W. B. Peabody; of Jacob Leisler, by Charles F. Hoffman; of Nathaniel Bacon, by William Ware; and that of John Mason, by George E. Ellis. These biographical sketches appear to be well compiled—a remarkable degree of industry is exhibited in consulting ancient records, and in developing new facts; and the entire work is presented to us in a very elegant shape. We hope that the series may meet the success which its substantial merits richly deserve.

16.—*The Illustrated Book of Christian Ballads, and other Poems*. Edited by the Rev. RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackstone.

One of the most prominent features of the literary enterprise of our own country, at the present time, is the improved style in which the volumes that daily issue from the press now appear. That improvement is doubtless owing alike to the advanced state of this department of the arts with us, and to the requirements of the public, which call for more elegant books than formerly. Here is a collection of devotional poetry, not more remarkable for the pure and elevated religious spirit which it is adapted to inspire, than for the splendor of its embellishments, both upon its cover and its pages. The spirit of genuine piety which many of its pieces breathe, is worthy of the present style of its publication.

17.—*Elements of Rhetoric and Literary Criticism, with Copious Practical Examples. For the use of Common Schools and Academies, &c., &c.* Compiled and arranged by J. R. BOYD, A. M., Principal of Black River L. and R. Institute. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The numerous testimonials appended, relating to the merits of this work, from gentlemen long engaged in the business of instruction, or occupied in superintending the management of public schools, while it renders any opinion we might express valueless, so far as the public are concerned, convinces us that the treatise may be relied upon as worthy of confidence. Besides the elementary principles laid down, we are presented with a brief but succinct history of the English language, and of British and American literature from the earliest to the present times, on the basis of the recent works of Alexander Reed and Robert Connell.

18.—*The Philosophy of Rhetoric*. By GEORGE CAMPBELL, D. D., F. R. S., Edinburgh, Principal of the Marischal College, Aberdeen. A New Edition, with the author's last Additions and Corrections. 12mo., pp. 435. New York: Harper & Brothers.

From the examination we have been able to give this work, we should deem it a profound philosophical treatise upon rhetoric. It is a new edition, and it appears to have been prepared as early as 1757. Some of the doctrines advanced by former rhetoricians are met and refuted, and some very satisfactory views are put forth upon the principles of the science. It abounds with the results of learning and deep thought, and could be studied with great advantage by all those who desire to become acquainted with the subject of which it treats.

19.—*The Moss-Rose, for a Friend*. Edited by Rev. C. W. EVEREST. Hartford: Bunn & Parsons.

20.—*The Hare-Bell, a Token of Friendship*. Edited by Rev. C. W. EVEREST.

Two elegant little books, uniform in size and appearance, designed as gift-books for the approaching Christmas and New Year, but possessing a standard perennial value, suited to all times and seasons. They consist of original pieces, and choicest gems, in prose and verse, (chiefly the latter, however,) from our purest and most accomplished writers. Mr. Everest, the editor, and the author of several of the best articles, we know and esteem, for his pure life and manners; and those who purchase will admit and admire the elegance and correctness of his taste, as evinced in these delightful volumes.

- 21.—*Oracles from the Poets; a Fanciful Diversion for the Drawing-Room.* By CAROLINE GILMAN. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This very pretty and pleasant volume is designed to be used as a fortune-teller, or a round game for forfeits, or examined as a treasure-house for the thoughts of poets on particular subjects, from Chaucer down to the minor poets of our own time and country. Questions are propounded; as, "What is the character of him who loves you?" "What is your destiny?" and a hundred others, and answers given from the poets, which are numbered. The literature of the volume is of the highest order, and the most exquisite descriptions and sentiments are contained in the answers. It is, altogether, an elegant book, suitable for a Christmas or New-Year's present to one's "lady-love."

- 22.—*The American Poulterer's Companion; a Practical Treatise on the Breeding, Rearing, Fattening, and General Management of the Various Species of Domestic Poultry, with Illustrations and Portraits of Fowls, taken from Life.* By C. N. BEMENT. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Mr. Bement, from the interest he has taken in the subject of the present volume, and his practical experience as a poulterer, possessed advantages for the preparation of such a work rarely enjoyed by persons capable of imparting their knowledge or experience in such matters. We have accordingly, in the volume before us, a thorough and systematic treatise, lucid and clear, embracing all the facts and circumstances connected with the production of the "feathered tenants of the farm-yard;" and showing, moreover, how poultry, under proper management, may be made as commercially profitable, according to the capital invested, as any other branch of agricultural industry.

- 23.—*A Treatise on the Forces which Produce the Organization of Plants. With an Appendix, containing several Memoirs on Capillary Attraction, Electricity, and the Chemical Action of Light.* By JOHN WILLIAM DRAPER, M. D., Professor of Chemistry in the University of New York. 4to., pp. 216. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume is a philosophical treatise, exhibiting the causes which produce the organization of plants, not only in their connection with the light and the air, but in the development of their various parts, as produced by chemical forces. The science of vegetable and animal physiology has recently been enriched by valuable and brilliant contributions from Germany, France, and England; and it is the avowed object of the author to add this to the rich fund of knowledge which has been, from those sources, thrown upon the subject abroad. There are, moreover, some new facts, which he has himself discovered, presented in its pages. "The great idea," says the writer, "which it is designed to illustrate, is that which connects the production and phenomena of organized beings with the imponderable principles." It is furnished with plates, one of which is highly colored, and is an important acquisition to this interesting department of science.

- 24.—*A Plain System of Elocution; or, Logical and Musical Readings and Declamation, with Exercises in Prose and Verse distinctly marked, for the Guidance of the Ear and the Voice of the Pupil.* By G. VANDENHOFF, Professor of Rhetoric in the city of New York. New York: C. Shepard.

We have many books on the subject treated of in this volume; and although, in the present, Mr. V. makes no pretension to profundity, and not much claim to originality, except in that it is *simple and intelligible*, and, as far as it goes, correct in theory, and *easy of practice*, which he considers (and we agree with him on that point) rather a novelty in works on elocution. The author, we may add, is an accomplished elocutionist himself; and it is but fair to suppose that he has imparted a correct idea of the art in which he has attained proficiency.

- 25.—*Mora Carmody; or, Woman's Influence. A Tale.* New York: Edward Dunigan.

A well written story, illustrating the influence of woman over the mind of the author; who, it seems, became a convert to the ancient, or Roman Catholic faith, through the medium of that influence. The writer seems to possess a loving and liberal spirit.