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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1845.

ART. I.—THE CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

ORIGIN AND OBJECTS OF THE CONSULAR SYSTEM—THE PRESENT SYSTEM AND ITS EVILS, ETC.

As one of the citizens of the United States, participating in its privileges, and jealous of its fame, I cannot express the regret I experienced, when I learned that Congress had adjourned without enacting into a law, the bill introduced in the Senate of the United States, by the Hon. James Semple, to remodel our consular establishment. The abuses of the present system are so glaring, the subject has been so often and so ably discussed, facts in such abundance have been collected, the conviction, that some change ought to take place is so universal, and above all the whole commercial system of America so imperiously demands a change, that I can discover no reason to justify Congress in their insensibility and inaction. A reason undoubtedly exists, and I fear will exist for some time to come, to the prejudice of our commerce in every part of the world. I shall endeavor to make this appear, by a statement of a few facts, which have fallen under my personal observation; for it is quite impossible, in the limits of a single letter, to crowd all the considerations which naturally arise in treating of a subject interwoven with all the interests of modern commerce. And I beg that in the facts I state, and the suggestions they give rise to, I may not be misunderstood. For after reading Mr. Semple's luminous exposition of this matter before the Senate, I should be guilty of unpardonable presumption, in even hoping to cast any new light upon the subject. I only wish to illustrate the propositions of the bill, by a few considerations, which have been the result of my consular experience. At the same time, I make my apology, for speaking often of myself, in the words of Sheridan—"in stating the result of my own experience, I must often allude to myself." I ought also to state, that although I now hold a consulship under our government, I do not seek a reform in the consular system, with the hope of deriving any advantage from it directly myself, for no emolument, of a foreign office, could ever make me, for any length of time, even a voluntary exile from my country. My birth, education, tastes and sympathies are American; and in the luxury, the arts, the

literature of Europe, I can find no adequate compensation for the associations of early friendships, and for the consciousness of living under the shelter of perfect liberty. But I do feel deeply the duty of every man under a free government, where liberty of thought, and freedom of action, universally exist, to illuminate every question of public interest with the lights of his own experience. And who would question even the right of consuls to complain of the abuses of the system under which they suffer, in the service of their government, although they sought a change for their own advantage. As public servants, they feel that they too are entitled to their share of the fruits of a free government—at least all those feel it, who honor their country by their representation. But whatever may be the opinions of others, let each man speak his own sentiments. Let us contemplate—

I. The origin and object of the consular system. We have derived this term from the ancient Romans. When the Tarquin tyrants were driven out of Rome, and the commonwealth was founded, the government of the state was committed to two consuls, who represented the power and the dignity of the nation, and they were regarded with the greatest reverence by the people and foreign princes. They were chosen annually by a general election, and for a long period the office was filled by the purest and most illustrious names in Rome. No one could aspire to the consulship with any hope of success, who had not rendered some signal service to the state. They held correspondence with kings, and gave audience to foreign ambassadors. Their insignia (with the exception of the crown) was like that of kings. They had control of the Roman armies, and led them out to battle. They were the guardians of the public honor, and public safety, at home and abroad, and so faithfully did they execute their trust, that it was under their administration, Rome made her name feared throughout the world. In the latter periods of the republic, consuls were frequently placed over the government of the provinces, and this custom prevailed, even under the Empire, until its final downfall. Some of the most distinguished historians have attributed the glory of Rome to her consular office, and they tell us that she would sooner have lost her provinces, but for their administration. The consular office was nearly or quite blotted out, when the ancient civilization of the Empire was lost, and during the long night of barbarism, which covered Europe, science, liberty and commerce were extinguished. But light began to break over Europe, when the crusades began. Genoa and Venice, in the 12th century, divided the commerce of the world. The Ligurian Republic had been able to resist the rush of barbarians from the north, and had even, in the 9th century, nearly destroyed the Saracen Empire, in Africa. More deeply fired with the spirit of maritime adventure than any other state in the world, she led the way in the commerce of the East, and closed her magnificent career of discovery with the New World. She had opened a flourishing commerce with the East before the time of Peter the Hermit, and she was present at the conquest of Antioch and of Jerusalem. The chivalric leaders of those bold enterprises well knew how much they owed to her valor and commercial power, and the red cross, in the white field, (the ensign of the Ligurian Republic,) was planted on the towers of Antioch, and on the walls of Jerusalem. Godfrey, of Bouillon, and Geoffrey, ordered the following inscription to be placed over the Holy Sepulchre, "STRONG HOLD OF THE GENOESE." As she was in advance of

every other maritime power, it is more than probable, she first established the consular system of modern Europe. It is quite certain, that before the first crusade, she had her consuls all over the Mediterranean. For many ages previous, the only commerce of Europe was a system of freebootery and private plunder. Might made right whenever rivals met, and this system had not yet entirely disappeared in the 12th century. The exigencies of her commerce, particularly in the East, demanded the protection and surveillance of public commercial agents at all the ports visited by her vessels; and so essential was the aid derived from resident consuls, that to them it is to be attributed, in no small degree, the rapid extension of Genoese and Venetian commerce, which at last became so incredible. The office of a consul, in those times, was no inconsiderable matter. No man was thought worthy of so important a trust, who did not perfectly understand commerce and diplomacy; for to them, treaties of commerce and international negotiation, involving every question of diplomacy, were continually intrusted. They represented the government that sent them in all its authority and dignity. They were sent to their destination in public vessels, and maintained at the public expense, and it became a proverb in the middle ages, throughout the shores of the Mediterranean, that the Italian consuls were princes. They were prohibited from engaging in speculations or commerce, that they might devote all their time to their official duties, and be swayed by no private interest in their negotiations. The early Genoese and Venetian writers tell us that the consular office was guarded with the utmost jealousy, and looked upon as the greatest support of their commerce with foreign nations. And even at a later period, when the rising powers of Europe began to offer a powerful rivalry to these two states which had so long held sway, and they sent their ambassadors to foreign courts, they gave them the most imperious commands to watch over the commerce of their country, and to concede to other princes nothing that could impair their commercial power or prosperity. The indolent loungers around the courts of princes were busy in the tricks of courtiers, and negotiations of marriage. The Genoese and Venetian ambassadors were occupied principally in promoting their commercial power. And what was the consequence? Venice, which had been founded by a few old men and children, who had fled to a marshy island in the Adriatic, to escape the rage and devastation of the Northern Barbarians, who were then overrunning Italy, in a few centuries came to be one of the first powers of Europe. Genoa, which stands at the head of the Ligurian Sea, hemmed in by overhanging mountains, the Appenines and the Maritime Alps, which she could not cross, could hardly get her bread from the barren and rocky hill-sides, and she was driven out upon the Mediterranean. In the eighth century, she had reached such a pitch of grandeur and power, that the Pontiff of Rome appealed to her to undertake a crusade to Corsica, to hurl a blow against the dreaded power of the Saracens, who, advancing from the African coast, had already gained a foothold upon the continent of Europe, and threatened to sweep over it with devastation. The Pontiff alleged, as the reason of his demand, that Genoa was more adequate to the enterprise than any power in Europe. The event justified his confidence. The little city of Genoa drove the Saracens from their hold on the continent, to the island of Corsica, from Corsica she chased them to Sardinia, from Sardinia she drove them out upon the open sea, and at last

fell upon the seat of their power in Africa, and laid the capital in the dust—seized uncounted millions of their treasures, liberated all the Christian captives they had taken in all their wars, and dragged their dreaded chief to a prison in Italy. At last the Northern States of Europe began to feel the maritime enthusiasm of the age, and went forth upon the seas for discovery and adventure. They finally adopted the commercial system of Italy, and in the seventeenth century it became general all over Europe. But although essential service has been derived from the system adopted by England, France and the Germanic States, it was without a question vastly inferior to that of the Italian Republics. But to it, such as it has been, and still is, we must attribute no inconsiderable share of the commercial prosperity of modern states.

The objects contemplated by the modern consular system are nothing less than the advancement of the prosperity and power of nations. And in modern times, when commerce has become the great question of governments, and its prosperity, or decline, an index of the advancement or decadence of nations, it is surely worthy of some consideration from the government of a Republic, like our own, which to surpass the power and the civilization of all other nations, needs only to be guarded by wisdom. The consul to a foreign nation is sent to be the guardian of all the interests of his country, and sacred is his trust. This is, or ought to be, his business. No pains should be spared, and no exertion or fatigue considered, which can in any manner result in good to his country. He should fully understand the structure, the spirit, and the policy of the nation he represents, and the nation to which he is accredited. He should know their past commercial history and relations, the origin and progress of their commerce, and the causes of its advancement or decline. He should make himself perfectly familiar with the agricultural, the mechanical, and the maritime power of the country to which he is sent—all its branches of industry, and all its resources of wealth—how the great system of reciprocal barter and exchange is carried on, and how it may be extended—the defects of commercial treaties, and how they may be remedied—the branches of commerce, which are sustained by the essential wants and abundance of the two nations, and have, therefore, a basis for permanent prosperity, and those which depend upon exaggerated and ephemeral speculations—what new articles of luxury, or convenience, may be exchanged—what encouragements given to new fields of industry and adventure—what new improvements in agriculture, in manufactures, in science and all the mechanic arts—how the ingenuity of man, in one country, may administer to the economy of life, in another, and finally, what fruit can be gathered by his country from the experiments of men and governments in past ages.

These are the absolute and indispensable objects contemplated by the consulships, and I have thus far limited them to the bare necessity of the office. Let us go a step farther, for the consul must not limit himself to this field.

He is the protector of his countrymen as well as their general interests. Wherever American consuls are found, there will be found his fellow-citizens, in the pursuit of gain, or intelligence, or pleasure, or they may be cast upon his charities from the arms of misfortune. It is wasting words to say, that the consul, who does his duty, will protect his fellow-citizens, when they appeal to him for defence in a foreign country. He will do

something more if he be a man worthy of his station; he will see that they travel or live in a foreign country with the same security and peace, and are treated with all that respect, and allowed to enjoy all that liberty which the more favored of their own subjects enjoy. Owing to their ignorance of the laws, the language, the customs of the country, mistakes may often arise, which, without explanation or interference, may involve them in serious difficulties, expense and dangers; or it may frequently happen that the mistakes, the corruption, the insolence or injustice of civil officers may expose them to a violation of those rights which are secured by international law, or the courtesy of civilized nations. If there be no consul on the spot, or he be a dilatory, or ignorant, or selfish man, or if his influence be small with the government where he lives, or he be disqualified by any circumstance from exercising his consular trusts with fidelity, wisdom and success, it is certain his countrymen can never reside, or even travel through that country, with safety.

But he may feel all this, and in a measure do his prescribed duty, yet his work will be poorly done, unless he inspire respect for his government, his countrymen and himself, in the country where he dwells. Men, and particularly civil officers, always presume upon those for whom their superiors do not manifest respect; and the consul, whose ignorance, or ill breeding, or immorality, or indiscretion, or dishonor, have lost for him that regard, so essential to his success in all public undertakings, will find that the power of his government, or the prosperity of its commerce, or the respectability of his fellow-citizens, will neither save him, or them, from a thousand abuses and insults they never would have presumed on, had he been a different man. I am quite certain, the fair character and high standing of the consul abroad, unaided by an ambassador or commercial treaty, can do more for his country and its interests, if he be the right man, than ambassadors, or treaties, or stipulations can ever effect alone. In fact, I am somewhat skeptical on the point of commercial treaties, especially such as we have generally entered into within a few years. I am well persuaded they have injured our commerce. We have given to other nations more than they have given us in return, or they can ever give us; and although private individuals may "give, without hoping for a return," yet the folly of this policy will sooner or later appear to the prejudice of every nation which adopts it. A good consul, on the spot, is worth to the commerce of a country more than all the treaties in the world. His vigilance is constant, his care unwearied, and by fidelity and wise management, he may win, even from half civilized and barbarous governments, by private influence, what would never have been conceded by treaty. Macchiavelli declared "*il vero ambasciatore e il console.*" The consul is the real ambassador, and unless the consul, by a fixed residence in a foreign country, comes to understand its real policy and interests better than the newly appointed ambassador can understand them, he has failed in his duty. Almost every difficulty that finally ruptures the peace of nations, begins in some commercial question under the immediate inspection of the consul; this is particularly true in modern times, where, in the language of Carlyle, "commerce is king." "I fear no war," said Guizot, a few days ago, in the Chamber of Deputies, "except one that will grow out of commerce." England and France have within a few days adjusted, the papers tell us, the Tahaité and Morocco affairs, which less than twenty-five years ago would have kindled a fire that would have set

the world in a blaze. Why? "We have about come to the conclusion," says a London Ministerial Journal, "that a little spurious honor is worth less than a good many thousand bales of cotton." "Parbleu," says a French Gazette, "do you think you can stuff it down our throats, as the *Rouen Fabricants do la gareuse*, that Mr. Pritchard, if we had him, would be worth a single cargo of Lyons silks."

There is more in all this than words; the *Times* and *le Journal de Debats*, speak out the voice of universal civilization. Nations will hereafter fight for "the commerce king," and not for a whim of a starched, corsetted, perfumed Louis XIV. An ambassador returning from the Sublime Porte, dined with me the other day. "I thought," said he, "I should have my hands full at Constantinople, but the consul there has made me a mere 'hanger on;' I had nothing to do but to go away off any where, to journey over Europe, and live on my pay, and let the consul do my duty, for he knows ten times as much about the business as I do." I ought to say, that he was not an American ambassador. As long ago as Mazzarin's time, he declared: "No man could be a useful ambassador, who had not been a good consul, and no man could be a very bad ambassador, except the man who was ignorant of commerce." Who were Napoleon's consuls? One of them told me that, when Napoleon was in the height of his power, he applied to him for a consulate in a foreign country. "What do you know about the duty of a consul?" asked Napoleon. "I know he can do more than an ambassador," said the young man, boldly, in reply. "Eh bien," said the great captain, "you know your duty, let us see if you will do it; take the office, and ten thousand francs extra pay for the first year." The same man afterwards told General Bertrand, that Napoleon ought not to undertake the expedition to Russia, alleging his reasons. Napoleon heard he had said so: "I'll show him he's mistaken," said Napoleon—we all know the result. Well, while Napoleon was at St. Helena, this consul visited the Emperor, at his request. "You," said he, when he took his hand, in his confinement on that lonely island, "would have been too good a counsellor for me—my evil destiny made you consul, when I ought to have made you my *bon genie*."

We have now glanced at the origin and object of the consular office: let us speak of—

II. The present system and its evils.

In a few words, an American consul is often a foreigner, almost always a merchant, never paid by government, can't live on his fees, nor even pay the necessary expenses of his office; is scolded and cursed by almost anybody that has anything to do with him, and is expected to entertain his countrymen, not only with hospitality, but with a considerable degree of luxury. Says an American consul, who writes me on this subject, "he must not only find out his countryman in town, but call at his hotel, invite him to dinner, sending a carriage for him, get him, in Italy, a box at the opera, (free of course,) spin street yarn with him for one day, or more, as it may be, showing him the lions of the city, with as much *gusto* as though he had not already seen them a thousand times, and be his humble servant for a week or ten days, taking drives out into the neighboring country, &c.; and when he comes to go away, he is expected to vise his passport, *gratis*, and send it to his lodgings. If he does charge his \$2, why, "that man must be turned out." The master of a vessel expects to call on his consul, get legal advice, commercial information, defences

before tribunals of commerce, help in difficulty; he stays two weeks, and when he goes away, leaves two or three destitute seamen, the consul is bound to support, by the laws of the country. The government commands him to aid those men, and yet refuses to pay him the disbursements he has made in doing it; and finally, when the captain weighs anchor, he comes up to the consulate, and refuses to pay anything more than \$4, "for receiving and delivering papers," and he thinks even this an unreasonable charge. He's a hopeful subject, you say—yes, he is, particularly as he lets you pay the boatman of the port a franc to row you and him (the captain) out to his own ship, to see him off; often he has dined with you at no trifling expense, saying nothing of some few empty Madeira and Port and Champagne bottles. He continues—"Well, next comes the government at home. Once in a few months comes out a circular, (which would be useless, if consuls did their duty,) calling for particular or minute information in regard to the productions and condition of the country, its foreign commerce, and domestic manufactures, prices of labor in every department of industry, exports and imports &c. &c. Well! the next day comes back a letter from the 5th auditor of the treasury, informing you that your draft (sent with proper vouchers) for \$125 53 1-2 cts., for sums disbursed for distressed seamen during the past year, or six months as it may be, has been protested. 'You are authorized by law to reimburse only the sum of 20 cents a day (Federal money) for distressed seamen.' The man is discharged from a vessel, sick—he goes to a hospital—is destitute and naked—he must have a pair of pantaloons, a jacket and at least one flannel shirt, and like one of Mr. Squeer's subjects go to bed, while as a Paddy would say, 'he washes his own shirt,' and the old tar must have a little tobacco, 'or do worse,' and then he must eat (but drink water, which wont hurt him, as he is certain to have swallowed his full share of the 'cretur' in his time) and what not. Twenty cents per diem, Federal money, is a pretty large allowance for all this. Oh, yes! Well, the government have been known to protest consuls drafts even for the twenty cents a day, Federal money, for shipwrecked seamen, taken off the shoals and reefs by fishermen—and the consul recalled for—God knows what—and to cap the climax, a foreigner appointed to his place."

My correspondent may be guilty of a shade of extravagance, but this is pretty nearly what Cotton Mather called "the living, royal truth," without exception! "Oh! no," he goes on to say: "Now and then it's true, the traveller says it's really shameful, the government don't pay our consuls like other nations, and he lays down an eagle on your table and says, consul take that, if you will do me the favor—and in spite of your pleasure, in seeing the eagle, that first plumed his wings in Fanueil Hall, ere he took his flight over a thousand hills, (Webster,) and that's a grateful sight to the real American, in a far off land, but he loves the strangers generosity better than his money, and he says: 'No sir, I take only my fee.' 'But do me the favor.' Well, he takes it and gives it to his wife, to keep for his boy, as the gift of the generous stranger. This does sometimes happen—but truth against the whole world—I have oftener received a letter from the next town, telling me I should be turned out for that enormous and unjust charge of \$2,—when even the consuls of the princely and tyrannical governments of Europe (who, he might have said, have prince's pay) 'never charge but four, or at most five francs.' He is rabid, 'and you will be turned out, when I get back to America.' Now and

then, too, a generous captain comes along,—‘Consul, I’m coming up,’ says he, to-morrow, to take some of your grub.’ ‘Well done, captain, come on.’ You give him a good dinner, he’s a generous fellow; before he sails, you, and it may be, your wife, are invited aboard, the ship’s boat is at the pier for you, before the time—there’s a cushion in it, too, and it’s all nice and clean, there is a very nice little piece of bunting, too, hanging over the *tiller*, with thirteen red and white stripes, and as many white stars in a field of blue, the oars strike handsomely in the water, and dip like a man of war’s men’s. As you approach the merchantman, you see through the forest of masts an ensign floating, you have seen before, the boat comes along side, the captain comes down the ladder in his Sunday’s best, and in a moment a chair is lowered by a tackle, and in goes the consul, and up goes the chair. Well, the dinner is plain, but great cheer, such as hungry men call good; the captain is a gallant for the hour—you think, after all, a good American captain ‘is the goodest of all men’—we are again in the boat, captain at the *tiller*, this time—what you got there, captain? Oh, there’s a half a dozen smoked hams, and a keg of molasses, and a barrel of buckwheat flour, and the buckwheat flour is good, any how, for it comes from ‘down east,’ where the way we eat it is a caution to all hungry men, and I shall be much obliged to you, if you’ll let my men take it up to your house. Rare fellows, they do sometimes come over the consul’s vision like ‘*naves rares gurgiteur*,’ &c. But out again with the truth. The chance is, that the captain asks you if you’ll have the goodness to send the bill of port-charges and consular fees on board—Oh! yes. Well, more than once my vice consul has received just as much of the bill as the captain pleased to pay, and then been told to leave the deck and tell the consul, his d—m bill of port-charges, and consular extortions, he would pay him under his bow-sprit.* Well, sometimes the government, through a powerful friend, makes a consul a charge d’affaires, after he has served several years faithfully in the quality of consul. This is almost invariably the case with other governments, who, by the by, seem to understand their own interests a good deal better than we, but more commonly after the consul has gone to all the expense of establishing himself in a foreign country, and has just commenced a successful business, some broken down merchant goes to Washington, and the consul is told he is no longer consul, (postage on the valuable document unpaid.)

Now, let us ask any reasonable man, what sort of a consular system are we likely to have, under these circumstances? He will answer, without a moment’s reflection,—“the very worst in the world”—and facts bear him out in his answer.

It is quite certain, there are not ten American consulates in the world, that will support a consul, even with the greatest economy; and, the great proportion of them, do not even support themselves—their total receipts will not re-imburse the expense of office-rent and stationary, to say nothing of a clerk, and the incidental expenses of the consulate. The evils that naturally spring out of such a system are more numerous, and more serious, than any man supposes, who has not been a consul:

I. The office of a consul is, generally, held either by American merchants or foreigners; for, with a few exceptions, no American, who is qualified for such a station, will ask for, or except an office, which is only

* This is quite a common trick, I have heard from many consuls.

a bill of expense. Some go abroad, with exaggerated ideas of the emoluments of a consulship, and, finding out their mistake, leave very soon. Those whose private fortunes are adequate to their support, will not confine themselves, for any great length of time, to the grudgery of a consulship; and they, who are so rich they care not for the fees, are rich enough to travel, and they generally fling up their commissions. Some consuls, who supposed their offices would, at least with strict economy, support them, and, perhaps, spent their all in getting to their stations, are, sometimes, too poor even to go home—like some of Carlyle's chartists, who are "too lean to rebel," and they stay, and get all out of their office they can, and exceed their lawful fees—they must do it or starve. They are not the only men, whom the State makes dishonest! Endless difficulties and disputes, between masters and commercial houses, and the consul, arise; the consul is complained of, and turned out, perhaps; well, he deserves it, for "he broke the consular law;" and, after all, the same man may have been much purer, and better, and nearer right, than the law itself. This poor consul is the slave of an unjust and unwise system!

Edward Livingston, in 1833, while Secretary of State, called the attention of Congress to a reform in our consular system in an able report, which, after all, seems to have had very little effect. He says: "In many, perhaps the greater number of cases, the office is sought for, chiefly, for the advantages, and the influence it will give to extend the commercial affairs of the officer. Can it be believed this influence will always be properly exercised? When it is, will not contrary suspicions be entertained? This must create jealousy, detraction, and all the arts that rivalry will exercise and provoke, amidst which, the dignity of the public officer is degraded, and his influence with the foreign functionaries lost."

There is more truth in these words, of that singularly clear-sighted statesman, than appears. It is almost certain, that a merchant can never make a good consul; he may perform, with the utmost fidelity, all the details of his official functions; he may be, as most of our American merchants are, a man of high and pure honor, and unspotted integrity; all pecuniary interests committed to him may be safe, and he may watch, with great vigilance, over all the interests of the commerce of his country, (concede all you wish, and we have such consuls,) it is, still, almost certain, that man cannot be a good consul, and, for many reasons—his time is, and must be, devoted principally to his own affairs, and, it must be a very obscure, and a very insignificant consulate, which does not demand that very same time for official duty. True, a ship's papers may be signed and delivered, and the vessel sent to sea, in one hour; a passport may be signed in five minutes, or less, and registered; but, writing his name and affixing the consular seal, is a pretty small part of a consul's duty. If he cherish the views and feelings we have before mentioned, of his country and his office, he will find it is enough to be a consul, without spending eight or ten hours a day in his counting-room. But, there is no little danger that, in spite of himself, his own interests, or prejudices, or relations, will sway his judgment in all his official conduct. A ship enters the port, with a cargo of, no matter what; his own interests are to be affected by the sale or consignment of that cargo, (it must be so, if he be a merchant, for commerce is competition for gain between man and man,) is it likely he will give the captain such information, or advice, as will most directly prejudice his own interests?

The captain has a difficulty with a merchant, and the case is carried to arbitration, or a judicial tribunal—is it likely the consul will give any advice, or take any measure, calculated to injure the interests, or excite the animosity, of the merchants, or the local authorities of the country where he resides? His success in business, is, in a great measure, dependant upon the good will of the authorities and the people, and it is perfectly certain, that, sooner or later, disputes and difficulties will arise, when he will fail in his official duty, or take part with the captain, at the expense of his own personal popularity and influence; and, in the name of reason, how is he to act, when he, as a consignee, has a difficulty with his captain? Has he two identities?—a consular, and a mercantile one? No! the judge, the jury, the council, the witness, the merchant, and the consul, sit in the same chair—he can administer the oath to himself—examine, and cross examine himself—why, the very idea is enough to disturb the gravity of an Esquimaux Indian!

But what security have you, that your consul-merchant is to be so pure, high-minded, and honorable a man? there are such, I know, and I well know they are few. More than one consul has been appointed, who had failed in business at home, and left no very dubious character, as a sinking fund for his creditors. They hope, in a foreign country, to begin anew to court fortune—finally get consignments, and, at last, become rich—some do. I might state facts which have fallen under my own personal observation, in different European countries, in regard to our consular system, but my motives, for so doing, would be misunderstood. Many of our merchant-consuls, however, are our best consuls; I might speak of Mr. Sprague, of Gibraltar; Mr. Payson, of Messina; Mr. Edwards, of Buenos Ayres; and others. Under our present consular system, perhaps, we cannot have better men; but the odds, on the other side, are fearful; it is more commonly the case that the merchant-consul utterly neglects his official duty to attend to his own affairs.

But it is perfectly certain the consul-merchant will, generally, have little influence with the government, to which he is accredited. By entering into business, he, voluntarily, gives up the station he might otherwise occupy; other things being equal, commerce is more than respectable, it is everywhere honorable; but, in nearly all countries, although the merchant, as a merchant, may often be received in polite society, yet, he does not expect to move in so select a circle as an official character. The consul-merchant will find that he loses his standing, by entering into business, and this will appear whenever the experiment is made. Why not allow ambassadors, and charges d'affaires, to carry on business? an ambassador could, undoubtedly, make money, owning ships; and a very insignificant charge could keep a very good shop of Yankee notions, which would, most likely, sell very well; but he would, at least, seem to be an odd charge, and, probably, his customers would laugh at him when he rode by, in his lace, chapeau, and sword, to go to court; and yet it is respectable to buy and sell goods! "Oh, yes! commerce is the great humanizer of mankind, the agent of civilization!" "Yes! all that; but one thing at a time, if ye care after well done things." A consul is not clothed with diplomatic power. True—but his office partakes more or less of the diplomatic character, and he is often obliged to conduct the most important international affairs; his relative position to a charge d'affaires, is the same the charge bears to the ambassador, and, very fre-

quently, the consulship is vastly more important than the legation, and the consul may often be called on, by the ministry of the government to which he is, for information, for correspondence, for an audience with a sovereign, (such things often happen,) and, in all such cases, the difference between the consul, who maintains his station with dignity, and is known to be a man of letters and polite education, and the common consul-merchant, will be found to be just great enough, to secure for one, all the respect paid to a diplomatist, and the other, all the attention a business man receives from the courtier. Although the former makes no more pretensions, yet, he is, *a priori*, supposed to be a man of more elevated and liberal views, more polite education, more finished address, and more extended and richer learning. In all European countries, where such wide distinctions and ranks exist, and where no merchant is admitted to the society of the first class, the consul who would, otherwise, naturally be found there, voluntarily cuts himself off from such society, by assuming the garb of an inferior class; and the effect of it will appear, when an important crisis arises, and great interests are committed to his hands. I need not enlarge here, every intelligent man understands this, nor need I disclaim any fondness for European aristocracy; I have too long been committed to the American people, on this subject, to be misunderstood—the whole thing is said in two words. The consul-merchant will be treated, by everybody, from the king to the boatman, as a merchant, in all his applications, relations, and intercourse; the consul, in the high sense of the term, will be treated as the representative of his country. Let us look at the policy of other great nations—they understand this matter. None of the other great powers, and only two or three of the smaller ones, suffer their consuls to have anything to do in any commercial speculations; they know the myriad evils which flow from a system we cling to so tenaciously, and they are careful to avoid them; they universally pay their consuls salaries adequate, in all instances, and often much better than our charges d'affaires; all fees go to the government, and all causes of dispute and difficulty are taken away. The office of a consul becomes a desirable post, and is sought for by able, well educated, cultivated, and experienced men. The consequence is a natural one—they are abler, and more respectably represented than ourselves; their consuls are treated with more honor, and their citizens with more respect; their government receives privileges, and concessions, and favors, which are utterly denied to our own. "As is the priest, so is the people." With them, a consulship is regarded as a necessary step to a higher diplomatic station; and the man who discharges the duties of the one, with ability and honor, is sure to be rewarded by the other. Their consuls cannot be appointed without some special qualification, and they are rarely recalled, unless guilty of maladministration; they are familiar with their official duty, and few changes take place.

Take a single illustration. No place in Europe, of the same amount of commerce, has so splendid a consular representation as Genoa; the consuls of most of the leading powers here are noblemen, and many of them have been charges d'affaires, or secretaries of legations; their salaries vary from \$5,000 to \$20,000 a year. Only one nation in the world has more commerce with Genoa than our own, and yet the fees of this consulate will not support a clerk, and pay the incidental expense of the office!

Is it any wonder that, within four years, we have had five consuls here, and three of them foreigners?

Another evil, and, perhaps, a greater one still in our present consular system, is the appointment of foreigners to office. General Jackson introduced a reform in this matter, Mr. Van Buren prosecuted it, and Mr. Tyler has done more than all our former presidents, put together; but, still, a very large number of our consuls are foreigners—I do think it requires no argument to prove that, no foreigner, under any circumstances, should ever hold an office under our government. By a foreigner, I mean a man who owes allegiance to a foreign government. Set a wolf to watch the fold, but, in God's name, don't commit republicanism to the keeping of foreigners, and, last of all, to Englishmen. I received a letter from an American consul, (a foreigner,) not long ago, addressed to "His Lordship, the American Consul General of the United States, at Genoa," and signed "———, Consul General of the United States and its Dependencies." This is a fair sample of the intelligence of foreigners in our institutions and affairs. Who ever heard of Great Britain asking a foreigner to hold an office for her? John Bull ask another dog to watch his fold? Not he! This is one of the good things of the exclusiveness and pride of England! this is the spirit which has brought her to the top of the world! and what is her consular system? In the most distant port, of the most barbarous nation, where no American would except the office of a consul, the English send an intelligent, experienced man, and maintain him, too, with a handsome salary, and he is backed by all the authority of the government. This is one of the reasons why that tremendous power is so universally dreaded. She is everywhere present, and no man or nation can tread upon the folds of her mantle, without finding cause to repent of it afterwards; and Mr. Pritchard, an obscure consul, in a port of Otahaite, can treat a gallant French admiral with insolence, and Parliament make a great noise about it, and all the world is likely to get into a flame that will burn around the globe, and, at last, to give satisfaction to the consul, the French admiral is disgraced. Very well, John Bull, I like you for it; your pride sticks to you, like life to the adder's tail, and it will make you glorious, like Rome, even in your decay. It has made you what you are—it makes you very disagreeable, but it makes you very great.

It is humiliating to contrast our consular system with even that of half-civilized nations; but I have written longer than I intended to, and will soon close; I have not mentioned a tenth part of the evils of our present system, nor said half what I had intended to.

What shall be done?

Adopt one of the plans submitted to Congress, by those who have sought a reform in the consular system, and you will do well. Mr. Livingston's, of 1833, is a good one—it provided that thirty-six of our principal consuls, should be paid salaries, averaging \$2,000—\$72,000; one hundred and twenty-six vice consuls, and commercial agents, average salary, \$1,000—\$126,000; total expense, \$198,000. Consuls were, by the provisions of his bill, I think, prohibited from engaging in commerce.

It is thus seen, that, for a trifling expense, an able and respectable consular corps could be maintained, that would reflect honor upon our nation; and, "I take the responsibility" of saying, that, after the experiment

was fairly tried, not a man, could be found who would advocate a return to the old system. Three grand provisions should be made, in whatever new system is adopted:—1st. Consuls and vice consuls should be paid a proper salary, like all other officers of the government, and all fees should go to the United States. 2d. They should be prohibited from engaging in commerce. 3d. No foreigner should be appointed, under any circumstances. In the Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1842, there is a valuable paper on the "Consular System of the United States," and the suggestions of the writer are worthy the most earnest attention of the American government.*

Any system which embraces the above-mentioned provisions, will be better than the present. A great advantage would, also, be experienced by adopting the commercial agency system of Great Britain. Mr. J. G. Harris, of Tennessee, who was sent, in 1843, to Europe, as tobacco agent, and collected a good deal of valuable information for the government, told me, that, at the great meeting of the Talserin, there were thirteen commercial agents of Great Britain there! He was there by accident, and, I think, at the time, he was the only commercial agent of the United States in Europe!! Is it to be supposed our Congress is to be well informed of the commercial condition, and relations of European countries, when no more pains are taken to gather commercial information? They must be close students, indeed, to know much about the real state of our commercial interests in Europe, to get full and accurate information, from our newspapers, or commercial treaties, or books of travel. My own observation has convinced me that, upon commercial information gathered in that way, very little reliance can be placed. The price of stocks, and the fluctuations of trade, may be pretty accurately known from such sources; but, what has the American government to do with such things, in directing its foreign policy? That kind of information the statesman wants for his guidance in public deliberations, is more important, and more extended, and is not to be gained from published documents, or acquired without labor and careful examination on the spot.

But I fear, after all this, that the great argument always brought against such beneficent changes, will still prevail, and the present system of inaction, inefficiency, and abuse continue. The government can appropriate millions to any purpose under heavens, that meets with the acclamation of demagogues and voters; and it can extinguish lighthouses along our coast, to save a few gallons of oil; twenty millions are voted, with acclamation, for hunting down Seminole Indians, through the

* I cannot suffer this opportunity to pass without paying my humble tribute of respect to your noble journal. Mr. Guizot, a few months ago, said to an American gentleman of my acquaintance, that, in his opinion, it was the most valuable commercial work in the world. I have heard Lord Brougham express the same opinion. It is a pity it could not be placed in the hands of every American master—I doubt not, every ship owner in America would "make a speculation" to buy a copy of it for every captain he sends to sea, and compel him to read it. A very intelligent sea captain told me, last summer, he should be afraid to enter a foreign port, if he had not Hunt's Magazine with him—he considered it, on shore, as necessary, as Bowditch, at sea. In the summer of 1842, the chief partner of a large house in New York told me, he did not doubt that book had saved him a thousand dollars a year. For myself, I consider it "the consul's own guide"—I have rarely found a consular, or commercial exigency, for which it did not provide—in some very difficult and trying exigencies, I have had recourse to it, when, in my instructions, I could find no directions, and, in every instance, I believe, my decisions have been confirmed by the supreme courts, and the government at home.

C. E. L.

swamps of Florida; and the merchantman is left without a protector, when she goes loaded with her precious cargo to the distant port. The party in power, no matter who they are, can pay \$50,000 a year more than is necessary, to a public printer, for documents that are carted into the lumber rooms of the capital, to be eaten by worms, but it cannot spend half the sum to adorn the same noble edifice with the most valuable library for sale in Europe, and the petty German prince takes it away, while Congress is voting that it would be of very little use to America, as most of the books are in foreign languages!! and, in that congregated mass of wisdom, John Quincy Adams, the papers say, was the only man who told them that was just the reason why it should be had. But better days will come!

C. E. L.

United States Consulate, Genoa, 30th of August, 1844.

ART. II.—THE IRON TRADE.

THE manufacture of iron indicates, perhaps, more than any other, the march of civilization, and its progress is coeval with those arts which elevate a nation, and constitute the best evidence of its wealth. And as it is essential to every department of human industry, directly or indirectly, and to a country's independence, it becomes an interesting object of investigation to trace its progress and survey its condition. The war declared by Congress against Great Britain, in 1812, and the events connected therewith, gave a great stimulus to manufactures, in this country, and induced the diversion of capital from commerce and agriculture, to be invested in mills, workshops and factories. Every encouragement was given to mechanics, who were instructed in a knowledge of machinery, and in Pennsylvania, admitted freeholders on the day of their arrival. High duties were imposed on the foreign raw material, while the implements, tools, and even furniture of the immigrant mechanics, were admitted free of duty. Metallurgy became an object of study; and the vast resources of the country brought more prominently to view, and its inexhaustible supplies of fuel and mineral ore elaborated to the production of iron.

In 1790, Colonel Hamilton remarks that the manufactures of iron had grown up with surprising rapidity, and proposes on them a duty of 10 per cent, ad valorem; but it is not till 1810, that we have the earliest authentic accounts of the quantity of iron produced in the United States; when, according to Adam Seybert, (who collects from official documents,) from 153 furnaces, were made 53,908 tons pig iron; from 330 forges, were made 24,541 tons bar iron; from 410 naileries, were made 15,727,914 lbs. nails; and there were 316 trip-hammers, and 34 rolling and slitting-mills, which required 6,500 tons of iron; and the total value of the manufactures of iron was \$14,364,526; and 19,000 muskets were annually made at the two public armories of Springfield and Harper's Ferry. In this stage of its manufacture, the elevation given to the price, by the restrictive legislation, operated onerously on the consumer, and tended to repress industry, and diminish consumption. The duty was—

	In 1818.	In 1824.	In 1828.
On bar iron, rolled, . . per ton	\$30 00	\$30 00	\$37 00
“ hammered,	15 00	18 00	22 40
On pig iron,	10 00	10 00	12 50

but, even under this high protection, the production did not exceed, in twenty years, 191,536 tons of pig iron, from 239 furnaces, according to the statement of the committee appointed to report on iron, by Congress, in 1830. There were then made 112,866 tons of bar iron, and 25,520 tons castings; in the manufacture of which, 25,254 men were employed.

The extreme dissatisfaction of the South, at the fiscal regulations relative to foreign commerce, and the threats held out of nullification, led to the enactment, by Congress, of the compromise act of 1832; and it may be curious to notice the votes which were given on that memorable occasion:

TARIFF BILL.

States.	Ayes.	Noes.
New England,.....	16	34
Middle States, including New York,...	32	52
Southern,.....	67	1
Western,.....	37	13
Total,.....	152	100

By the operation of this tariff, the duty on English bars was gradually reduced from \$30 per ton, in 1832, to \$27 in 1834, \$24 in 1836, \$21 in 1838, \$18 in 1840, \$14 in the first six months of 1842; and, finally, to \$7 50 per ton, in July and August of 1842, and on other kinds in similar proportion; and the effect had upon the importation may be seen in the table which we give at the close of this article.

The iron district, which spreads through New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Western Virginia, traverses regions exuberant with coal, and abounding in water-power; and, travelling further west, we find in Ohio, Kentucky, and particularly in Missouri, immense stores of metaliferous wealth, adjacent to the most fertile agricultural districts. It is to Pennsylvania, however, we must chiefly direct our attention, where two-fifths of all the iron in the United States is made. The United States contain 80,000 square miles of coal, which is about sixteen times as great as the coal measures of Europe. A single one of these gigantic masses runs from Pennsylvania to Alabama, and must embrace, itself, 50,000 square miles. Out of fifty-four counties of Pennsylvania, no less than thirty have coal and iron in them; and, out of the 46,000 square miles of Pennsylvania, which form its superficies, there are 10,000 miles of coal and iron; while all Great Britain and Ireland have only 2,000—so that Pennsylvania, alone, has an area of coal and iron five times as great as that of Great Britain. The quality of the coal and iron is as rich as that of Great Britain, and they have the advantage of lying near the water-level; while those of the latter country are sometimes more than one thousand feet below the surface, and are excavated through subterranean passages.

The coal frontiers, forming an amphitheatre, intersected at intervals with streams of water, are accessible through ravines, to which they converge; thus inviting the labor of the miner, by the facility of access and transportation. The coal of Wyoming lies conveniently for the supply of the lake frontier, and the whole of the northern part of New York; and the Lehigh, Schuylkill, Wilkesbarre, and Cumberland coal-fields, for the supply of the Atlantic border, and the domestic and manufacturing purposes of the interior.

Since 1820, when the trade commenced, the quantity of anthracite coal which left the different regions for market, has increased from 365 tons, to 1,631,670 tons, last year.

With these materials and resources so profusely prepared for the enterprise of man, we must look for the causes which retarded this manufacture, so as, the ten years past, to require an importation of more than forty millions dollars of iron and steel.

The principal portion of the pig and wrought iron was made in the United States with charcoal, and in England and Scotland with mineral coal. The latter was vastly cheaper, and became scarcer every year; and here we may remark that, in the whole of Europe, charcoal is used for the reduction of the ore, with the exception of some furnaces in France and the Netherlands. If the ore be smelted, and the iron puddled with bituminous coal, it requires an average of about six tons of coal for every ton of bar iron. If the iron be smelted with charcoal, and puddled with bituminous coal, (the mode in use here at the period to which we allude,) then a little less than two tons of bituminous coal was required. The average price of the bituminous coal, at the works in England, which is in close proximity to the iron ore, is not more than \$1½ per ton. The same coal costs, when we get it to our works, situated at some distance from the ore, from \$7 to \$9 per ton; and the cost of transportation, and the difference in the value of the charcoal used here for smelting, and the coal used there, was very greatly in favor of England. England, too, has the advantage of priority in improvement in the manufacture, in the concentration of capital, and the cheapness of labor, which forms 75 per cent of the cost, as well as the economy of fuel; and the most striking proof of the advancement in this branch is, that her furnaces produce 3,500 tons annually each, on the average, of pig or cast iron; while here they do not annually produce 1,000 tons each, on the average.

Another impediment was the great indisposition existing amongst capitalists, in our cities, to advance money to carry on works situated in the far interior, (where the bituminous coal and iron ore may be found,) which they could not overlook, and the want of cheap inland communication with the markets on the seaboard. This last consideration, which we shall again allude to, is of importance, as the costly transportation, itself, acts as a bounty on the foreign iron introduced to the Atlantic ports, and far exceeds the freight from England and Scotland.

Before entering on the present condition of the trade here, we will take a brief review of the progress in Great Britain.

In 1740, there were in that country but 59 furnaces, yielding 17,350 tons cast iron, or 294 tons per furnace. They were heated with charcoal, and the blast given from leather bellows. The establishments did not flourish, as loud complaints were made of the destruction of her woods, from the use of the charcoal. Indeed, an act was passed for the importation of pig iron, (1750,) from the American colonies, to reduce the consumption of wood in smelting; but, in 1783, Mr. Cort obtained a patent for making iron in a reverberatory, or air-furnace, heated by common raw pit coal; and another for manufacturing the iron, when malleable, into bars, bolts, &c., by passing it, in a welding heat, through rollers with grooves, instead of working it under forge-hammers, the mode before employed, by which the scoriæ were separated. By this improvement, fifteen tons of iron were obtained in twelve hours; while, in the same time, only

one ton was drawn from the hammer; and this may be considered the era from which to date the growth of the present valuable element of the national prosperity of England. Then came the introduction of the coke refinery, which brought the balling and puddling furnace into general use, with the addition of rollers instead of hammers. In 1788, the make was 68,300 tons, from 85 furnaces, or 804 tons per furnace; and in 1796, 125,079 tons, from 121 furnaces, or 1,033 tons per furnace; having nearly doubled itself in eight years. It then rapidly extended itself, at the several periods mentioned below, to the present enormous production of 1,578,260 tons.

Years.	Furnaces in blast.	Pig iron, per annum.	Annual make, per furnace.
1806,.....	169	258,206 tons.	1,528 tons.
1820,.....	400,000 " "
1823,.....	237	452,066 "	1,907 "
1825,.....	259	581,367 "	2,244 "
1828,.....	278	703,184 "	2,529 "
1830,.....	333	678,417 "	3,037 "
1839,.....	378	1,248,781 "	3,303 "
1844,.....	451	1,578,260 "	2,498 "

Which is thus distributed:—

South Wales,.....	565,700 tons.	132 furnaces in blast.
Forest of Dean,.....	27,000 "	7 "
Staffordshire, South,.....	370,000 "	120 "
" North,.....	30,400 "	12 "
Shropshire,.....	110,600 "	34 "
Yorkshire,.....	112,000 "	41 "
Derbyshire,.....	47,560 "	17 "
North Wales,.....	43,000 "	16 "
Newcastle-on-Tyne,.....	17,000 "	7 "
Scotland,.....	255,000 "	65 "
Total,.....	1,578,260 "	451 "

About three-tenths of the quantity made, is used in the state of pig or cast iron, and is consumed principally in Great Britain and Ireland; and the other seven-tenths are converted into wrought iron, being formed into bars, bolts, rods, sheets, &c.; and her exports increased, according to parliamentary returns, in periods of four years, from 104,726 tons in 1827, 139,577 tons in 1831, 219,203 tons in 1835, 269,088 tons in 1839, to 448,879 tons in 1843, viz:—

Bar iron,.....	tons	176,148
Bolt and rod,.....		22,625
Pig,.....		154,770
Hoop,.....		14,590
Old,.....		5,924
Iron wire,.....		1,508
Anchors, grapnels, &c.,.....		3,058
Nails,.....		6,020
Unwrought steel,.....		3,199
All other sorts, except ordnance,.....		44,577
Total,.....	tons	448,879

In the same year, she imported only about 15,000 tons; 11,000 tons of which was from Sweden, to be converted into steel. Previous to 1786, she imported 70,000 tons iron, from Sweden and Russia, per annum—her export last year was considerably beyond 448,00 tons; for the Miner's Journal states that, for the year ending 5th September, 1844, the amount of iron and steel, of copper, brass, and tin, was £4,136,984, against, in same time, 1843, £3,405,568; being an increase of £731,416 in one year, of the export in these metals. The largest blast-furnace in South Wales is 18 feet diameter in the boshes, 9 to 10 feet in the filling place, the height 40 feet; so that the capacity is equal to 7,000 cubic feet; and, when at work, must contain 150 tons of ignited materials for smelting. At the Plymouth iron-works, are 7 furnaces, blown with cold air, which produce each about 5,300 tons cast iron, per annum.

Larger and better-formed furnaces, improved blast, superior knowledge in its application—in the preparation of the materials, and the working of the furnaces, have contributed to the extraordinary increase in the yield; and those furnaces in Staffordshire, which make the best work, as to yield and quality, do not exceed $11\frac{1}{2}$ to 12 feet in the boshes. The furnaces in the United States are generally not more than 8 to 9 feet in the boshes, to which circumstance is mainly to be attributed the comparatively smaller product.

Such has been the effect of combined economy, skill, and intelligence, applied to this manufacture, that pig iron, which sold in 1803 to 1815 for £6 a £7 10 per ton, was reduced to £3 per ton in Wales, and some contracts were made in Scotland at £2, last year; and bar iron, which sold in the same period at £12 a £16 per ton, was reduced to £4 15 per ton, last year.

As Mr. Cort's process for converting refined metal, or pig iron, into malleable iron, became better understood, various meliorations were adopted; one of which was, replacing sand with iron bottoms, in the furnace. Mr. Cort's object in refining the ore with coke, previous to puddling it in a reverberatory furnace, was to decarburate the iron; and, by substituting the drawing cylinders for the extension under the hammer, and subjecting the puddled iron to a second heating, he materially advanced the manufacture of bar iron. At first, there was a waste of 30 to 35 cwt. of iron; afterwards, one ton of bars resulted from only 20 to 26 cwt. of iron, including the waste in the refinery.

It is not our design to expatiate on the minutæ of this manufacture, but to attempt to describe the progress of an art, the importance of which, is making, every day, stronger claims on our acknowledgment, and take a general view of its extent, the elaborations of which, form the elements of all industrial pursuits, are becoming appropriated to the uses of commerce, as well as science and agriculture. We cannot, therefore, omit to notice an innovation, producing the most signal alteration in the fabrication of this metal—the invention of hot for cold blast, or, the substitution in the furnace, of air heated to a very high temperature, instead of common atmospheric air.

Mr. Neilson, manager of the gas works, at Glasgow, took out a patent, in 1828, and succeeded in producing cast iron by the hot blast. When in operation, the economical result was very apparent, for, whereas, previously, it required 8 tons of coal for 1 ton of pig iron, by the cold air, 2 1-4 tons of coal was now an adequate supply. This method acquired gene-

ral use in Scotland, and was afterwards introduced in this country. Mr. Mushet, in his papers on iron and steel, (1839,) says: "Instead of 20 or 30 cwt. of limestone, formerly used, the blackband, (or ironstone,) now required only 6 or 8 cwt. to the production of a ton. This arises from the extreme richness of the ore, when roasted, and from the small quantity of earthy matter it contains, which renders the operation of smelting the blackband, with hot blast, more like the melting of iron, than the smelting of an ore. When properly roasted, its richness ranges from 60 to 70 per cent; so, little more than 1 1-2 ton is required to make a ton of pig iron, and, as 1 ton of coal will smelt 1 ton of roasted ore, it is evident, when the blackband is used alone, 1 3-4 ton of our coal will suffice to the production of 1 ton of good grey pig iron."

About 20,000 tons of this pig iron is annually imported into the United States, being chiefly used, for its softness and fluidity, to mix with the harder qualities of American pig iron, in the formation of castings and hollow-ware.

Notwithstanding that an increase in the quantity of one-fourth followed this mode of operation, the hot blast meets with much prejudice in Wales, where the cheapness of the fuel does not render its reduced consumption so much an object, and the cold blast there generally prevails. In 1740 the smelting of iron ores, in England, was executed entirely with charcoal, and the ores employed, were principally brown and red hematites. Earthy iron ores were also smelted, but the sole smelting material of the present day, is the argillaceous carbonate of iron, or the clay iron stone, and, so admirably adapted are some locations for ferruginous productions, that, in Dudley, in Staffordshire, the iron ore, the limestone for flues, and the fire clay for constructing the brick-work of the furnace, are found associated together.

One-third of the mineral basin of South Wales is a formation of anthracite coal, and Mr. Crane, in 1837, succeeded in smelting iron from anthracite coal, from 27 cwt. from which he obtained 1 ton of iron. In Mr. Crane's furnace, the consumption of the coal was diminished one-third, and the yield of iron increased 50 per cent more, by the anthracite coal and hot blast, than ever before by coke from coal and the cold blast.

Mr. W. Lyman first put in successful operation, at Pottsville, Pennsylvania, in 1839, a furnace for smelting iron by anthracite coal and the hot blast. In 1840, Messrs. Biddle, Chambers & Co. erected extensive works in Dansville, Pa., on the same principle, and Messrs. Reeves & Whitaker changed their furnace, at Phœnixville, Pa., from the use of charcoal to anthracite coal.

Mr. Lyman's furnace yielded 35 tons of cast iron per week, but Mr. Thomas, the agent of Mr. Crane, superintended some works, erected about the same time, by the Lehigh Coal Company, at Allentown, Pa., called "Crane Works," from which were obtained, when first in blast, 60 tons per week; and now, in that state, 17 furnaces, employing anthracite coal and hot blast, producing 47,000 tons per annum. In that state, anthracite coal is always used in smelting with hot air, and in puddling, in most instances, the process undertaken is the ignited gas, on the principle of Detmold's patent, obtained in England. In Maryland, bituminous coal is used in puddling, in New York, charcoal—the "black diamond" not being one of the constituents of the mineral wealth of the Empire

State. And west of the Alleghany ridge, we find only the bituminous formation, except in the Cumberland region.

At Brady's Bend Iron Works, are two blast furnaces, capable of producing 5,000 tons cast iron per annum, each; a rolling-mill, which has 12 puddling furnaces, from the whole of which could be obtained 8,500 tons iron per annum; 1 scrap, and 3 balling furnaces, for merchant mill, or finishing rolls; and a nail factory, capable of manufacturing three tons per day, of assorted nails; besides works for sheet and boiler plate, &c.; and the manager of these works, P. Raymond, Esq., solicits orders for the heavy H, T, and V rails, at even lower rates, it is stated by Niles' Register, than the Mount Savage Works. At these latter works, situated in Maryland, at the foot of Mount Savage, nine miles from Cumberland, is erected a rolling-mill, calculated to produce weekly 150 tons iron, including boiler, plate, sheet, hoop, band, and railroad iron, where the heavy edge rail is offered to be made for \$59 a \$60 per ton.

In New Jersey, are 12 furnaces, yielding 12,000 tons pig iron per annum; and in Bergen and Morris counties 65 forges, which make annually 3,000 tons bloomery bar iron; and this last description of iron, which is made by a single operation from the ore, without the intervention of the blast furnace, technically called "blooming," is prosecuted to some extent in Connecticut, Vermont, New York, and Pennsylvania, as well as East Jersey. New Jersey obtains her coal by the Morris canal, from Pennsylvania, and supplies even that state with pig iron, reduced from her rich ores. In New York, in Clinton county, the legislature has determined on constructing a prison where convict labor may be employed in manufacturing iron in the Catalan forge; and the heat, which has heretofore been suffered to escape, is now availed of, by a system of conduction, to generate steam, which drives the trip-hammers while melting the ore. As this operation is performed at the mouth of the mine, without the cost of transportation of the ore and coal to a distant water-power, the preparation of the ore, and its conversion through the various stages of manufacture, can be conducted by the convicts in the prison-yard, at a very reduced cost.

In 1810, 11,000 tons bar iron only were made in Pennsylvania, when there were 44 blast furnaces, 78 forges, and 175 naileries.

In 1840, in the United States, it appears from the report of the committee appointed by the New York State Home League, the trade had so far progressed that we had 450 blast furnaces, yielding 347,700 tons pig iron, being 772 tons per furnace; and 795 bloomeries, forges, rolling-mills, &c., yielding 208,440 tons wrought iron. The number of furnaces differ from the census of that year, which was manifestly exaggerated.

At the present moment there are 13,000 tons bar iron made in the state of New York, chiefly in Essex and Clinton counties. Near Baltimore city, 20 furnaces are in operation, giving 20,000 tons per annum; and so great has been the impetus given to the iron trade, that in every direction new furnaces are being constructed, and those out of blast again becoming active, in Pennsylvania. In the vicinity of Danville 40,000 or 50,000 tons of coal have illumined the hearths of the furnaces in that region last year. The Montour Iron Company have 3 of the largest furnaces in the country, the product of which is about 4,000 cast iron, each, per annum.

The trade, at present, is in a very flourishing condition; and this year, no doubt, there will be a considerable addition to the yield, in the great seat of this manufacture. We have taken great pains to arrive at an approximate enumeration of the iron works now in that state, and the annual quantity of iron producing from each, and we now give the result: 235 furnaces, yielding 211,500 tons pig iron; 187 forges, rolling and slitting-mills, bloomeries, &c., converting the above pig iron into 105,000 tons bar, bloom, boiler sheet, nail, nail plate, rod iron, &c.; and the rapid increment of these works is very perceptible, as by the governor's message it appears there were transported, by the several state lines of improvement, for the fiscal year, ending Nov. 30, 1844, 71,406 tons iron; against the same time, 1843, 38,022 tons. In 1843, however, there was not much activity in the iron trade. A more particular account of the iron works in Pennsylvania, appeared in the Philadelphia Commercial List, for the year 1841, the sum of which is, that there were then 210 furnaces, and 170 forges, rolling-mills, &c., and 7 foundries, which produced 4,580 tons castings, 300 tons iron, (description unknown,) 103,450 tons pig iron, and 70,040 tons bar and bloom iron.

It has been well observed that, "of all the metallurgic arts, that by which iron is prepared from the ores, demanded the greatest degree of practical skill, and is the most difficult to bring to perfection; although ages have elapsed since it first became an object of human industry, its manipulation and preparation are yet receiving improvements, whilst those of other ancient metals seem hardly susceptible of modification or advancement. Copper, and its alloys, tin, lead, and mercury, were as well known, and as cheaply prepared, by the ancients, as by the moderns."

This is strikingly illustrated by a recent surprising discovery in the conversion of cast into malleable iron. The difficulty the iron-master has hitherto had to contend with, has been the extirpation of the carbon, and other noxious elements, associated in the metal. At Codner Park, in Derbyshire, are works, on Mr. Wall's patent, now in successful operation, which is on the principle, that when a compound is subjected to an electrical current, its negative and positive elements are detached from each other. Iron is electro positive—the elements it contains when crude—the carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, arsenic, oxygen, and silicon, are electro negative. By the application of a stream of electricity to the iron, in a state of fusion, when in the furnace, these impurities are dislodged, and bars, of the purest metal, and strongest fibre, can be at once drawn out, without any re-heating, piling, or fagoting, thereby effecting a saving of from \$5 to \$10 per ton. This new and ingenious process has not yet found its way to the United States.

From all the information we can obtain, we believe the following to be nearly a correct statement of the whole product of the United States:—540 blast furnaces, yielding 486,000 tons pig iron; 954 bloomeries, forges, rolling and slitting-mills, &c., yielding 291,600 tons bar, hoop, and sheet boiler, and other wrought iron, 30,000 tons blooms, and 121,500 tons castings, such as machinery and stove plates, hollow-ware, &c., which, at their present market value, would stand thus:—

291,600 tons wrought iron, at \$80 per ton,.....	\$23,328,000
121,500 " castings, at \$75 per ton,.....	9,112,500
30,000 " bloomery iron, at \$50 per ton,.....	1,500,000
To which must be added the quantity imported, say—	
46,000 tons bar iron, rolled, at \$60 per ton,.....	2,760,000
17,500 " " hammered, at \$80 per ton,.....	1,400,000
26,050 " pig iron, converted into castings, at \$75 per ton,.....	1,953,750
5,570 " scrap iron, at \$35 per ton,.....	201,950
4,157 " sheet hoop, &c., at \$130 per ton,.....	540,410
2,800 " steel, at \$335 per ton,.....	938,000
<hr/>	
102,277 tons.	
443,100 "	
<hr/>	
545,377 tons.	Consumption,..... \$41,734,610

So that the consumption of iron in the United States, in nearly the crude state, approximates \$42,000,000 per annum, nearly equal to the whole value of raw cotton produced in the United States at present prices. We are rapidly outstripping the continental countries in the growth of this great sinew of national power, for, according to Mr. Virlet, France, Sweden, Russia, and all the civilized powers on the continent, only produce about 700,000 tons per annum.

To follow out the uses to which iron and steel are applied, in their transformation to machines, implements, tools, &c., in their variety of shapes, or the multiplied value they assume, under the hands of the mechanic and manufacturer, would be a difficult task. The articles into which they are converted are as various as the wants and occupation of man. Without them, the soldier would be harmless, the artizan useless, the farmer pursuing a fruitless avocation, and a nation destitute of independence. It is important, therefore, that a commodity of such great necessity, and universal use, should be abundant and cheap. The present duties, on the quantity imported, which has averaged about 100,000 tons per annum, for five years, excluding 1843, amount to from 50 to 150 per ct. on the first cost; and it is evident that so large a proportion of the consumption would not be taken from abroad, if our domestic iron-masters were prepared to supply the demand. Under these circumstances, we consider such exorbitant imposts, onerous and impolitic. For, whether it be true or not, that the higher the duty the higher the price, it is certainly true, the lower the duty the lower the price, where the domestic and foreign articles come fairly into competition. The effect of a moderate reduction would be, to compel the domestic manufacturer of iron to accede to lower terms, in order to rival in sales the foreign article, and the consumer would be benefited. The present price of American bars is, from \$75 to \$80 per ton. We know they can be laid down here for \$57 50, and the rapid increase in the number of works, in Pennsylvania, is ample testimony to the remunerative character of the business.

The consumption will increase with the diminution of price; and now that the appropriations of this metal are becoming more multiform, it is unwise to keep it up to a fictitious level, by exclusive legislation. It is not only being used in the construction of houses in England, but extensively in ship building, steam frigates, and the commercial marine, made of this material, are preferred for their durability, lightness of draft, and economy. There is one steamboat building in New York, we understand,

for the North River, of iron; and when she has performed a few trips, we predict that not many more will be made of wood.

What would tend more, however, perhaps, than any other circumstance to make iron cheaper, and extend the consumption of both domestic and foreign, would be the increase of facility in communication with the interior by railroads. M. de Villefosse properly remarks: "What they call, in France, the question of the price of iron, is, properly speaking, the question of the price of wood, and the question of the means of interior communications by means of roads, streams, rivers and canals." The cheap and rapid communication of railways, is what so bulky an article requires; and the only point to consider is, whether it would be more advantageous to wait until this country can make it, or import it from Great Britain. The manufacture of the heavy-edge rail, calls for such a large outlay of capital, so much more experience and manipulation, than any other species of fabrication, that it would retard the progress of the country too seriously, we apprehend, to stand still till the bantling attained maturity.

It has been stated that the heavy-edge rail can be made here, in Maryland, for \$60 per ton, which is about the cost of bars laid down at the seaboard. It appears, from English invoices, the heavy T rail has always cost \$7 25 per ton more than the common bar, and that, too, where the manufacture is brought to perfection.

Years.	Av. price of merch. bar, per ton.	Av. price of rails, p. ton.	Years.	Av. price of merch. bar, per ton.	Av. price of rails, p. ton.
1831,.....	£5 5	£6 17 6	1838,.....	£8 15	£10 10 0
1832,.....	5 0	6 15 0	1839,.....	9 0	10 10 0
1833,.....	6 0	7 10 0	1840,.....	8 0	9 12 6
1834,.....	6 10	8 0 0	1841,.....	6 10	8 0 0
1835,.....	5 15	7 10 0	1842,.....	6 00	7 15 0
1836,.....	10 0	11 15 0	1843,.....	5 00	6 10 0
1837,.....	8 15	10 0 0			

We cannot, therefore, understand how it can be made near the price of common bars here. In consequence of the great demand for railways, in Great Britain and the Continent, the price, in England, now, of the T rail is £7 10 per ton, or \$36 per ton, to which add \$8 for freight, insurance, commission, &c., makes the cost of importation \$44 per ton.

As the edge rail will replace the flat bar, in this country, on 2,500 miles, or say 250,000 tons, the difference between \$44 and \$70, the present price, is \$6,500,000. The sum the country would save, if the present duty of \$25 per ton were abolished.

The importation of 90,000 tons of bar and pig iron per annum, (comparatively crude articles,) shows that the country is not yet prepared for the manufacture of the more complicated and expensive edge rail; and, at present, until the avenues of transit have placed the existing works in more complete communication with the various markets, we think a high duty on rails highly inexpedient; besides, the railroads would not only facilitate the progress of the manufacture, by placing the ore, the fuel, and the flux, the furnace, the forge, and the rolling-mill, now in many sections of the country, at some distance from each other, by giving between each a cheaper and easier communication, but they would furnish considerable employment in the making of locomotives, cars, and all kinds of work connected with railways. Many of the richest portions of

the Union remain undeveloped for want of the means of transportation. Professor Shephard, of Yale College, says, that in many parts of Missouri the iron ore is so devoid of foreign materials, as scarcely to require the preliminary process of roasting, to dissipate the volatile ingredients, or the subsequent addition of large doses of flux, to effect the withdrawal of other impurities; and, that a mountain exists there, whose circuit is two miles, and whose elevation is 350 feet, consisting of specular iron, so pure that only a few solitary crystals of feldspar can be discovered, which would yield 70 per cent of pure iron, and the region is amply supplied with charcoal.

Unlike the precious metals, which, when once separated from the ore, cease to contribute to the productive industry of the country, iron, through its various transformations, from the ore to the finished utensil, acquires an accession of value, calls for additional mechanical labor, and gives occupation and reward to different avocations. This dormant treasure lies imbedded to an inexhaustible amount, through a vastly extended region; and we will take a rapid glance at its richness and variety. The most valuable—the magnetic oxide of iron—characterises the stratified primary rocks of New England, and is prolonged across New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, to a remarkable degree. It occurs abundantly at Winchester and Franconia, in New Hampshire; at Cumberland, Rhode Island, whence it is taken to Massachusetts to be smelted; at Somerset, in a range of talc slate, twenty miles north of Massachusetts; at Hawles and Bernardstown, in Massachusetts. In New York, it occurs in the northern primary district in abundance, especially near the valley of Ausable river. In the Highlands, and in the neighborhood of Ringwood, thick beds, averaging ten feet of solid ore, are seen—in Morris county, New Jersey, near Succasunny, and at intervals as far as the Delaware river, and on the northern side of Berks and Lancaster counties, Pennsylvania. Its average thickness is from five to twelve feet, and it yields 65 per cent of metallic iron.

In Pennsylvania, where the various ores are profusely distributed, besides the magnetic or oxydulated iron ore, the brown and yellowish argillaceous or hematite ore is found principally along the borders of the lime-stone valleys, containing from 45 to 55 per cent of metallic iron; the fossiliferous ore, from the variegated shale formation, containing from 40 to 60 per cent of metallic iron; and the ore of the coal region, similar in character to the clay iron-stone of England and Wales, yielding from 30 to 50 per cent of metallic iron, and is highly useful from its general dissemination through those districts where the other ores are not encountered.

Here is a vast field for future operations; and no means would tend more efficiently to develop its teeming resources than the construction of railways. Railways would not only cheapen the manufactured article by affording a quick and economical vehicle of conveyance, but open new markets to the iron-master, and widen consumption. From the difficulties of transit, the north and west branches of the Susquehanna, and of Clinton and Essex counties, New York, would consider \$60 per ton for bars a poor compensation, but with railways would be able to compete more successfully with foreign supplies. The rolling-mill at Mount Savage owes its existence to the Baltimore and Ohio railway of imported iron. So that, independent of the considerations attached to railways as

a means of national defence and a bond of union, the interests of the iron-manufacturer seem to demand the free admission of railroad iron. The two establishments now in existence for the manufacture of this branch, cannot possibly supply the demand that will exist for this method of locomotion and conveyance; for it appears that not only will 250,000 tons be required at once of heavy rails to replace the worn out flat rails, but 4,378 miles are undertaken for railroads, besides those already in use throughout the United States.

Agriculture, into which the consumption of iron so extensively enters, and which forms the preponderating interests of the country, has sacrificed much to support the protective policy, in the high prices created thereby. The price of most of the products of agriculture is at present depressed, and it would materially relieve its burdens if the duty were in some measure relaxed on all descriptions of iron; and we do not believe, under the existing profitable rates, any moderate reduction would injure a single manufactory within the influence of foreign importations. Besides, the quantity which comes in collision with foreign iron is but a minor proportion of our whole production. Of 300,000 tons wrought iron made in the United States, only one-third, or 100,000 tons is calculated to reach the seaboard; the other two-thirds, or 200,000 tons being despatched to the western markets.

In England the duty on bar iron, in 1826, was \$7 25, on pigs \$2 40, it is now \$4 80 per ton on bars and \$1 20 per ton on pigs; and their liberal policy exercised towards an article entering into such general consumption, is worthy of imitation. Whatever arguments might have been adduced in favor of protection, to bring into existence, and foster in its infancy, a manufacture, lose much of their cogency when that manufacture has attained maturity sufficient to compete with foreign products, which has surrounded itself with the capital and skill of an intelligent community, and summoned to its growth all the modern improvements of arts and science—as is the case here with common bar, hoop, sheet, and rod iron now.

We do not advocate any extravagant or sudden abatement of duties, but it is not just to the interests of the other states, nor the large consuming mass, that any particular branch of national industry should be protected beyond the requisitions of government, for efficient public service or what is necessary to counteract the regulations of foreign nations. In effecting any modification of the tariff, a due regard should be preserved to the manufacturers who have invested capital on the faith of a continuance of a protective policy, and who cannot sustain themselves at first without it; but it is expecting too much from the people to suppose that they will submit to a perpetuity of the system, when the temporary and incidental protection has enabled the domestic to vie with the foreign manufacturer in his own market, and the revenue raised by this means is no longer necessary for the administration. The effect of this abatement would be that the manufacturer would be obliged to reduce his profits in the price lest he should be undersold by the foreign article; and the consumer would reap the benefit of the competition.

We now subjoin the table before alluded to:—

IMPORT OF IRON AND STEEL INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1828-29, TO 1843-44, INCLUSIVE, ENDING ON THE 30TH SEPTEMBER OF EACH YEAR.

ARTICLES.	1828-29.		1829-30.		1830-31.		1831-32.		1832-33.		1833-34.		1834-35.		1835-36.	
	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.
Bar and bolt iron, rolled.	3,320	\$119,326	6,449	\$226,336	17,245	\$541,664	20,367	\$701,549	28,028	\$1,002,750	28,896	\$1,187,256	28,410	\$1,050,152	46,675	\$2,131,828
Bar and bolt iron, hammered, or otherwise manufactured,	29,489	1,884,069	30,693	1,730,375	23,368	1,260,166	38,150	1,929,493	36,124	1,837,473	31,784	1,742,883	31,524	1,641,359	32,987	1,891,214
Pig iron,	1,138	28,811	1,129	25,664	6,448	160,681	10,151	232,303	9,330	217,668	11,113	270,325	12,295	289,779	8,541	272,978
Hoop and sheet iron,	1,089	89,057	1,038	59,822	2,332	151,960	2,853	182,559	3,350	245,848	2,214	190,237	2,009	133,639	3,643	325,676
Brazier's rods, 3-16 a																
8-16, inclusive,	75	6,164	97	5,945	217	13,660	233	13,727	221	12,834	132	10,017	113	7,428	240	21,764
Nail and spike rods, slit.	3	234	14	784	101	4,585	56	2,063	95	6,080	77	77	244	10	1,301	
Band, scroll, or casement rods, slit or hammered.	-	-	14	81	10	72	3	176	12	2,063	3	230	1-20	5	1-8	5
Old or scrap iron,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	998	24,035	1,617	33,243	640	10,609	1,846	28,224
Total iron,	35,114	\$2,127,661	39,421	\$2,049,007	49,861	\$2,135,728	71,833	\$3,051,870	78,158	\$3,348,751	75,759	\$3,434,248	74,992	\$3,133,215	93,342	\$4,672,990
Steel,	1,266	289,931	1,223	291,957	1,710	389,635	2,146	645,510	2,131	523,116	2,431	554,150	2,605	576,888	2,878	686,141
Tot. iron and steel,	36,314	\$2,417,592	40,644	\$2,340,964	51,571	\$2,525,363	73,979	\$3,697,380	80,289	\$3,871,867	78,190	\$3,988,398	77,597	\$3,710,103	96,220	\$5,359,131

IMPORT OF IRON AND STEEL INTO THE UNITED STATES, etc.—Continued.

ARTICLES.	1836-37.		1837-38.		1838-39.		1839-40.		1840-41.		1841-42.		1842-43.		1843-44.*	
	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.
Bar and bolt iron, rolled.	47,839	\$2,573,367	36,174	\$1,835,121	60,285	\$3,181,186	32,825	\$1,707,650	63,055	\$2,172,278	61,600	\$2,033,453	20,230	\$637,617	46,000	\$1,825,121
Bar and bolt iron, hammered, or otherwise manufactured,	31,325	2,017,346	21,319	1,166,196	35,557	2,054,094	28,819	1,689,831	29,605	1,614,420	19,512	1,041,410	8,440	450,317	17,500	855,220
Pig iron,	14,128	432,929	12,192	319,099	12,307	285,300	5,516	114,562	12,207	223,288	18,694	295,884	6,472	76,858	26,050	349,000
Hoop and sheet iron,	5,041	504,473	2,536	218,162	3,369	354,933	2,469	235,869	3,646	376,075	3,560	296,679	1,532	154,628	3,600	280,360
Brazier's rods, 3-16 a																
8-16, inclusive,	201	21,792	142	10,648	381	27,942	193	47,782	164	12,842	530	37,767	212	15,369	470	10,648
Nail and spike rods, slit.	1	32	1	94	36	2,201	24	131	13	613	18	860	10	730	27	1,880
Band, scroll, or casement rods, slit or hammered.	1	36	55	2,712	15	686	15	963	15	1,161	22	1,023	16	1,612	60	6,500
Old or scrap iron,	766	18,391	436	7,567	539	10,161	707	15,749	783	10,537	685	8,207	169	4,424	5,770	152,160
Total iron,	99,300	5,558,366	72,854	\$3,549,629	112,679	5,916,787	70,544	\$3,812,370	109,548	4,411,215	104,621	3,734,683	37,071	1,341,565	99,477	3,481,499
Steel,	3,566	804,817	1,907	487,334	2,958	771,869	2,225	528,716	2,563	600,201	2,771	597,317	1,334	324,686	2,800	487,334
Total iron and steel,	102,866	\$6,363,183	74,762	\$4,036,963	115,637	\$6,688,656	72,769	\$4,341,086	112,111	\$5,020,416	107,392	\$4,332,000	38,405	\$1,666,251	102,277	\$3,968,833

* The last quarter of 1844 only estimated in part.

ART. III.—RESOURCES OF PENNSYLVANIA.*

THE native resources of Pennsylvania, are, doubtless, more abundant than those of any other state in the Union. With a territorial domain embracing forty-seven thousand square miles, it possesses extraordinary advantages for the successful prosecution of agriculture, mining, manufactures, commerce, and the mechanic arts. Its fertile soil stretches out a broad expanse, from the banks of the Delaware, westward, to the shore of Lake Erie, and the Ohio, and is eminently productive of those crops which are yielded in the northern and the western states. Its hill sides contain inexhaustible beds of coal and iron, lying in those precise positions where they are most required, and which are slid down almost into the very yards where they are worked up for manufacturing purposes. Quarries of the purest white marble are found in the vicinity of its prominent cities, and are used for the adornment of their principle edifices and streets. Upon its eastern side, it possesses the first city in architectural elegance, and the second in population, of the nation; its interior supports the most considerable inland town, and, upon its extreme western point, Pittsburgh echoes with the sound of the hammer, and blackens the sky with a hundred forges, like a city of the Cyclops. In mining, it stands the first in the nation, yielding much the greater portion of mineral products; it produces one-sixth part of the grain, and in manufactures, it stands the third. The most populous portion of its surface is traversed by railways, canals, and costly turnpike roads. Its exports find their way, by water, upon three sides, namely: through the chain of the northwestern lakes, by the way of Erie, down the Mississippi, through the Ohio, and by the Delaware, either coastwise, or to foreign ports, by the sea. Its wide surface exhibits the picturesque contrast of the cultivated farm and the winding river, the smiling village and the dense forest, the calm valley and the blue mountain; and it, moreover, possesses a population of about eighteen hundred thousand, consisting of some of the most enterprising, industrious, and moral of our countrymen. It is our object, in the present paper, to exhibit, in a compendious form, the resources of this great state, so far as they appear, from published statistical data, and oral information, as well as from a sojourn in the counties of the interior.

In the southeastern portion of the state, the surface of the soil is varied and undulating, although not hilly; and, indeed, but few extensive level tracts are found within its boundary. Occasional ridges of trap rock may be descried here, but the South Mountain, extending to the Maryland line, is the first range of any considerable altitude in this section; and, next to this, the Blue mountain stretches its long and level crest line of summit, to the height of about twelve hundred feet. The anthracite coal is found in the mountainous region, between the Lehigh and Susquehanna, and north of the Blue mountain. High ridges extend along, east of the Susquehanna; and the valley of Wyoming, so famed for its picturesque beauty and historic interest, courses through the territory, bordered by a lofty chain of mountains. The chain, running through the Blue and the Alleghany, is denominated the Appalachian chain, and possesses between

* For a full and elaborate article, on the "Trade and Commerce of Pennsylvania," see *Merchants' Magazine*, for April, 1844, vol. x., no. iv., page 308 to 326.—[*Ed. Merchants' Magazine*.

them, valleys sometimes twenty miles in breadth. West of the Susquehanna, are numerous other mountains, whose names we shall not designate. The Alleghany extends across nearly the whole state, and is first perceptible upon the north branch of the Susquehanna, thirty miles above Wilkesbarre, it then ranges westward, through the county of Luzerne, although, at this point, called by a different name, and inclining to the southwest, it enters the state of Maryland. West of the Alleghany, is a high ridge, that all who have crossed these mountains must have noticed, termed Laurel Hills, and, still beyond, is Chesnut ridge. That portion of the state, lying west of the Alleghany mountains, is hilly, and the whole region is intersected by deep channels and valleys, bordered by rugged hill sides, which appear to have been worn by the action of the water, and it is not unusual to perceive a coal seam, high up on the rocky steep, with its counter part upon the other side, thus indicating the wearing of that element.

The surface of the state is watered by streams which fertilize the soil, while they adorn the scenery with innumerable picturesque prospects. The most prominent of those rivers are, the Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Ohio, and, through their channels, the waters of every spring and brook, within its bounds, find their way to the ocean. The former of those rivers rise in the state of New York, and, flowing southeastward, and thence southwestward between Pennsylvania and New Jersey, passes through the Blue mountain at the Delaware water-gap, where it exhibits a panorama of sublime and beautiful scenery. Here the mountain rises, on each side, about twelve hundred feet, and rugged precipices rear their summits from the edge of the river, while the prominent peaks command a view of the wooded hills and cultivated valleys, not only of Pennsylvania, but also of the adjoining state of New Jersey; and the silver Delaware winds its way through the landscape as far as the eye can reach. The next river to which we have alluded, and the largest in the state, is the Susquehanna, which fertilizes tracts rich in natural beauty, and empties into the Chesapeake bay, below Havre de Grace. The breadth of this river, varies from a mile to a quarter of a mile, its shores present rich tracts of scenery, its bosom is diversified by numerous beautiful little islets, while the navigation is obstructed by rocky rapids, excepting at high water. During those periods, large quantities of lumber descend in rafts, besides numerous "arks," laden with grain, flour, iron, and other products of the interior. The portion of the state, west of the Alleghany mountains, is drained by the Ohio, the two main branches of which, the Alleghany and the Monongahela form a junction, at the thriving manufacturing settlement, to which we have before alluded, the city of Pittsburgh, where it constitutes a most valuable channel of exportation.

The valleys and hill sides of Pennsylvania are very fertile, and, indeed, the greater portion of the soil is productive. Although the limestone valleys yield the most abundantly, yet, the entire surface of the settled portion, presents wide expanses of cultivated fields, which yield adequate returns to the labor of the husbandman. Agriculture is prosecuted here upon a large scale, and with a success that is not exceeded by that of any other portion of the country. While, as has been before remarked, the greater portion of the soil is fertile, those tracts, less favored by nature, are tilled by the farmers, with equal profit, by the application of skill and industry, and barren plains and hill sides have been converted into luxu-

riant fields of the grapes and the grains. In the older and more settled portions of the state, the use of lime, and other approved means of fertilization, as well as improved implements of husbandry, among which the plough holds the most important place, together with the proper rotation of crops, have advanced Pennsylvania to the first rank, as an agricultural state. Here the traveller, in a journey through the interior, beholds, in the abundant harvests, in the neat and substantial appearance of the farm-houses, in the well constructed fences, and in the large barns, either entirely, or in part, built of stone, some of which are from sixty to one hundred and twenty feet in length, and provided with all the appliances of stables, threshing-floors, and granaries, the most undoubted evidences of thrifty and profitable husbandry. A good degree of attention is, moreover, paid to stock: the breed of milch cattle has become much improved, as well as that of the sheep and swine. Horses have been, also, improved, but the enterprise of the farmers has been directed to those suited to the draft and the plough, rather than to the race-course, and no state exhibits more powerful animals, for that purpose, or of larger size. The farmers of this state, indeed, exhibit favorable examples of the benefits of agricultural enterprise. Owners, for the most part, of the soil which they cultivate, with all the means of necessary subsistence at hand, their profits, if not large, are certain, and they enjoy all that sober independence, free from vexatious and harassing cares, which naturally spring from rural life. We here subjoin a table, exhibiting the number and average value of the live stock of the state, according to an authoritative computation:—

Horses and mules,.....	365,129 at \$60 00	\$21,907,740
Neat cattle,.....	1,172,665 at 15 00	17,589,975
Sheep,.....	1,767,620 at 2 50	4,419,050
Swine,.....	1,503,964 at 3 50	5,263,874
Poultry,.....	(estimated value,)	685,801

We also add a table of the principal agricultural products annually yielded by the soil:—

Wheat,.....bush.	13,213,077	Hay,.....tons	1,311,643
Rye,.....	6,613,873	Flax and hemp,.....	2,650
Indian corn,.....	14,240,022	Hops,.....lbs.	49,481
Oats,.....	20,641,819	Wax,.....	33,107
Buckwheat,.....	2,113,742	Tobacco,.....	325,018
Barley,.....	209,893	Silk cocoons,.....	7,262
Potatoes,.....	9,535,663	Sugar,.....	2,265,755
Wool,.....lbs.	3,048,564	Wine,.....galls.	14,328
Value of the products of the dairy,.....			\$3,187,292
“ “ the orchard and gardens,.....			901,218

The population of a state may be considered a part of its resources; for it is they who give a direction to its industry, and mark the soil with the impression of their character, in the public and individual improvements. Pennsylvania derives its population from various sources, although the distinctive shades of character that distinguished the early emigrants, are fast melting away, under the influence of common interests, and frequent and friendly association. The shores of the Delaware, that were first colonized by the Swedes and Dutch, before the arrival of Wm. Penn, are now cultivated by their descendants; in the southeastern counties, which were first settled by the English followers of Penn, we now see their respectable successors, of the same race; and a small, but industrious body of emigrants, from Wales, planted themselves near the

Schuylkill, in the counties of Montgomery and Chester ; Lancaster, Berks, and Northampton, were settled by the palatine Germans, who emigrated to this country about the year 1727, and settled upon some of the most fertile lands in that region. The population of the state, has, moreover, received some considerable accessions from Ireland. Many of the early settlers of that nation scattering themselves through the counties of Lancaster, York, and Cumberland, and as their numbers swelled by new accessions, they spread themselves westward, across the mountains. These several sorts of emigrants, although now presenting the distinctive characteristics of the nations from which they sprang, maintain friendly relations with each other, and are associated in ordinary enterprises relating to the common prosperity.

In order to exhibit the advance of population, throughout the state, we subjoin the following table, showing its increase from 1684 to 1840 :—

Year.	Pop.	Year.	Pop.
1684,.....	7,000	1810,.....	810,091
1701,.....	20,000	1820,.....	1,049,313
1763,.....	280,000	1830,.....	1,347,672
1790,.....	434,000	1840,.....	1,724,033
1800,.....	602,545		

In presenting these few remarks respecting the population of Pennsylvania, we have alluded to that portion who are now settled in the interior of the state. There are, besides those that we have mentioned, a few emigrants from New England, scattered through Luzerne and the adjoining counties, and the large cities present a mingled mass of persons, from various quarters of the globe. In the city of Philadelphia, may be noticed, not only the plain and neat descendants of William Penn, and representatives from the other nations that we have enumerated, but emigrants of Spain and Italy, and the successors of many of the French Huguenots, protestants, who escaped from France during the religious persecutions of that country ; so, also, a considerable number of the French, who left St. Domingo during the revolt of that island, in 1792, have made this city their permanent home, together with more recent emigrants from those nations.

We now direct our attention to the productions of its mines, for, in this respect, the state stands pre-eminent, and we will first examine its resources in coal and iron, those two most powerful agents of modern mechanical and commercial enterprise. The production, in great abundance, of mineral products, situated in convenient positions for use, have, naturally, caused the erection of numerous forges, in parts of the state where iron is wrought, and cast into various forms, and it has, also, furnished a stimulus for the industry of the interior, in mining, and in transporting its products to market. The quantity of limestone and marble, yielded by the quarries, is, also, of great value, not only in fertilizing the soil, and in furnishing facilities for mining, but also in supplying materials for the adornments of architecture.

There are two different species of coal in the state—the anthracite and the bituminous. Coal fields, possessing the same geological features, yet separated by rocky lines of elevation, contain the great bulk of the anthracite coal of Pennsylvania. There are some of them, in turn, divided into minor basins, bounded by the same sort of elevations, although smaller. The basins of coal, intermingled in strata, with slates, shales,

and sand-stone, appear generally in the form of a trough, shaped like a canoe; and the coal beds vary in thickness, from one foot to thirty, although they are sometimes found even fifty feet thick. It is found more productive, in mining, to work those beds that are from five to twelve feet thick, inasmuch as they are more accessible, while those that are of the depth of thirty or forty, must be worked in chambers, pillars of coal being left to support the roof. In the less thick beds, the whole mass may be taken out, and the roof can be supported by single props. The seams of coal are exposed, in many places, upon the walls of precipices, deep ravines, and the channels of streams, running through the hills.

The ordinary mode of mining coal is to run a tunnel, or drift, into the hill, to the coal bed, above the water level. This drift is wide enough to admit the passage of a railroad car, and also serves as a drain for the water of the mine. The bed is then worked upward toward the surface, the coal being thrown or slid down the drift. Here it is loaded in cars, and drawn to the mouth of the mine, and thence conveyed to the canal boats, in which it is transported. If the coal bed, above the drift, is exhausted, the miners then work the bed downward, below the water level, and the coal and water, from the mine, are raised by the agency of steam engines. It is not uncommon to find several coal beds in the same hill, some being separated only by a short distance, while others are several hundred feet apart.

The four mining districts, into which the southern coal field of Pennsylvania is divided, are the Lehigh, the Schuylkill, the Swatara, and the Susquehanna; and the former is owned by the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company. The summit mines, which are situated on a high ridge, at a place called the Mauch Chunk Landing, possess remarkable advantages for mining, which has long been extensively prosecuted here. The coal bed, that is worked at this place, is somewhat extraordinary in its character, consisting of a mass, lying in a horizontal position, about fifty feet thick, and appearing to be constituted by the junction of numerous veins. This bed is worked by removing a mass of earth and loose stones, to the depth of about twenty feet, when the surface of the bed appears, and the coal is quarried, not in subterranean darkness, and by the glimmering of a lamp, but the light of day. North of these, beds of from five to thirty feet thick, have also been opened. From those mines, railroads have been constructed to the river, near Mauch Chunk, and immense quantities are carried to the Delaware canal, at Easton, whence they are transported to Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and other places, not only upon the coast, but also in the interior.

That portion of the southern coal field, lying upon the branches of the Schuylkill, is denominated the Schuylkill district, and it is very extensive, including the Tamqua, Little Schuylkill, Pottsville, Mine Hill, as well as other collieries, which transport their coal from the mines to the river, communicating with the Schuylkill navigation, or the Philadelphia, Reading, and Pottsville railroad. The greater portion of those mines is conducted by individual enterprise, while a few are held by mining companies, possessing special privileges. The coal, quarried in those several mines, is, moreover, various in quality, some being hard, and emitting intense heat, another species softer, burning more easily, and depositing red ashes, while there are other kinds, possessing qualities peculiar to themselves.

The Swatara coal district, lying upon the waters of that river, produces

coal, of less compactness, and burning more freely than some of the harder kinds, to which we have alluded; and that which is here mined, is sent from the vicinity of Pine Grove, through the channels of the Union Canal Company, either to the Susquehanna canal, or toward the Schuylkill. There are, also, extensive beds, varying from three to thirty feet in thickness, which, being broken by the passage of numerous streams through them, afford special facilities for mining, which are situated in the Sharp, Red, Coal, Little Lick, and Big Lick mountains.

The Susquehanna district embraces the western terminations of the southern coal field, branching out, in two divisions, toward the Susquehanna. The Southern, or Stony Creek coal region, contains valuable beds, which appear to possess a bituminous character, but no mining operations, of any importance, have been undertaken here, in consequence of the want of the means of transportation of its products to market. The Bear Valley coal beds, communicate with the Susquehanna, by a railroad to Millersburgh. Those mines have been long worked, and yielded coal of a good quality, although but a few of them have been opened, while preparations have been made for the opening of other beds as soon as the means of transportation shall be provided.

The middle coal field, constituted of many basins of minor size, embraces, on its eastern end, the mining districts of Beaver meadow and Hazleton, near the middle, the Mahanoy, and toward the western end, the Shamokin, the field being situated north of the Broad mountain. The quality of the coal, here mined, is similar to that of the southern coal field, some beds yielding white and others red ashes, and yet, various in quality, a portion being hard, shining, and compact, and emitting an intense heat, yet burning slowly, while, in other points, is produced a coal more brittle, lighter, less solid, and more easy of combustion. At Hazleton, Beaver meadow, and other mines in this vicinity, the collieries are worked by incorporated companies, which transport the products of their mines, by the agency of railroads, to the Delaware canal, through the Lehigh navigation. Mines are, also, opened in the Mahanoy district, near the Pottsville and Danville railroad, near Girardville; and, from that point the coal can be sent to the Schuylkill, and may soon be transported to the Susquehanna. A number of mines are also now in operation at Shamokin, which produce coal of various qualities, which is transported down the Susquehanna canal, as well to the towns upon the bank of the river, as to the city of Baltimore. But a small portion of the coal fields, in this vicinity, have, however, as yet been mined, from the want of the means of transportation of its products to market; and it is only when its wild and mountainous recesses shall have been penetrated by railroads and canals, that its value will be fully appreciated.

The northern, or Wyoming and Lackawana coal field, is about sixty miles in length, and from one to six in breadth, and is of equal extent with the others that have been described. Beds of coal, varying from one to thirty feet thick, which are exposed among the hills by deep channels and ravines, are worked, almost entirely, by individual enterprise. Collieries are carried on, with some considerable profit, in the vicinity of Wilkesbarre, as well as in Nanticoke and Plymouth, near the river. The Baltimore Company works a mine, three miles above Wilkesbarre, where a deep bed of coal has been opened, there being other beds in the valley where the coal is thirty-two feet thick. The coal field, to which we have

alluded, extends up the valley of the Lackawana to Carbondale. Here are carried on the mines belonging to the Hudson and Delaware Canal Company, who convey no coal excepting that which is mined by themselves, and which transports annually large quantities to markets in New York, Albany, and other places, by their own railroad and canal to Rondout, upon the Hudson river. The northern coal field also presents marked advantages over the middle and southern, in the circumstance that, while the latter possesses only a thin and sterile soil, this spreads out a fertile agricultural valley, whose surface may be enriched by the most luxuriant crops, while its subterranean recesses pour forth from below its mineral products, and furnish exhaustless storehouses of wealth, illumined only by the glimmering and solitary lamp of the miner.

It has been estimated that these three fields of anthracite coal embrace about 975 square miles; and as each cubic yard of coal in the ground yields a ton when mined, we can hardly estimate the enormous quantity of this useful product which is embedded in the soil. The actual amount of coal recently mined may be ascertained from statistical data. It appears that the coal trade is yet in its infancy; for in 1820, only 365 tons were sent to market; in 1830, 174,737 tons; and in 1840, 865,414. The quantity produced from each of the mining districts during each year, now exceeds 1,000,000 tons, more than 800,000 of which are conveyed to other states. The following table, showing the amount produced in 1841 and 1842, we here subjoin:—

COAL PRODUCED.

	1841.	1842.
Lehigh, Beaver Meadow, &c.,tons	142,821	272,126
Schuylkill,.....	584,692	540,892
Swatara,.....	17,653	32,331
Lyken Valley,.....	4,379	4,864
Shamokin,.....	21,463	10,000
Wyoming,.....	53,315	47,346
Lackawana,.....	192,270	205,253
Total,.....tons	1,016,593	1,112,862

* We subjoin statements exhibiting the amount of the transportation of coal to the city of Philadelphia, down to the 12th of December, 1844; the amount transported from the Schuylkill and Lehigh districts, by the various tributary companies; and the total amount of the two districts, down to the same period.

The Schuylkill Canal Company have transported, up to Thursday, Dec. 12th, 279,465 tons; from Schuylkill Haven, 63,353; and from Port Clinton, 56,669; being a total of 399,487 tons for the past season, as per official report of the different collectors.

The Reading Railroad Company, up to Thursday, Dec. 12th, inclusive, have passed over the road the aggregate amount of 424,075.03 tons.

These are the two great arteries of communication from the Schuylkill coal region to this city, through which medium 823,562.03 tons have found their way to tide-water, from January 1st to December 12th, 1844. Among the various tributary companies to the business of the Schuylkill region, we notice the transportation by the following companies, viz:—

	Tons.		Tons.
Mine Hill and Schuylkill Haven, .	324,688	Pine Grove, (last dates,).....	34,223
Mount Carbon railroad,.....	195,630	Swatara, "	16,447
Little Schuylkill railroad,.....	56,696		

The Schuylkill canal is closed for the season; but the Reading Company intend transporting through from Pottsville, as far as practicable, during the whole of the winter. If the Little Schuylkill Company's bridge be finished by the time anticipated, so as to enable their road to connect at Port Clinton, that company will also bring down coal, during the winter, from Tamaqua.

ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE.

The following table exhibits the quantity of anthracite coal sent to market from the different regions in Pennsylvania, from the commencement of the trade, in 1820, to 1844, inclusive, with the annual increase, consumption, &c.

Years.	SCHUYLKILL.			LEHIGH.		OTHER REGIONS.		Aggregate.	Annual increase.	Con- sumption.	Unsold April 1.	Sold on canal.
	Canal.	Railroad.	Total.	Total.	Pine Grove.	Shamokin.	Lacka- wana.					
1820,.....				365					365			
1821,.....				1,073					1,073	708		
1822,.....				2,240					2,240	1,167		
1823,.....				5,523					5,623	3,588		
1824,.....				9,451					9,541	3,718		
1825,.....	6,500		6,500	28,393					34,593	25,352		
1826,.....	16,776		16,776	31,280					48,047	13,154		3,154
1827,.....	31,360		31,360	32,074					63,434	15,837		3,372
1828,.....	47,284		47,284	39,232					77,516	14,082		3,332
1829,.....	79,973		79,973	25,110				7,000	112,088	34,567		5,321
1830,.....	89,984		89,984	41,750				43,000	174,734	62,651		6,150
1831,.....	81,853		81,853	40,966				54,000	176,520	2,086	177,000	10,048
1832,.....	209,271		209,271	70,000				84,600	363,871	187,051	298,871	13,429
1833,.....	252,971		252,971	123,000				111,777	487,748	123,877	434,986	19,429
1834,.....	226,692		226,692	106,244				43,700	376,636	Decrease.	415,186	18,571
1835,.....	339,508		339,508	131,250				90,000	560,758	184,122	635,935	17,863
1836,.....	432,045		432,045	146,522				103,561	682,428	121,670	632,428	21,749
1837,.....	523,152		523,152	225,937	17,000			115,357	881,476	199,048	680,441	28,775
1838,.....	433,875		433,874	214,211	13,000			78,207	739,293	Decrease.	788,968	30,390
1839,.....	442,608		442,608	221,850	20,639	11,930		122,300	819,327	80,034	867,000	28,924
1840,.....	452,291		452,291	225,288	23,860	15,505		148,470	865,444	46,087	973,136	41,223
1841,.....	584,692		584,692	142,841	17,653	21,463		192,270	958,899	93,485	958,899	40,584
1842,.....	491,602	49,290	540,872	272,129	32,381	10,000		205,253	1,108,001	149,102	1,158,001	34,619
1843,.....	447,058	230,237	677,295	267,734	22,905	10,000		227,605	1,263,539	155,538	1,213,537	60,000
1844,.....	398,443	441,491	839,934	377,821	34,916	13,087		251,005	1,631,669	368,130	50,000	90,000
Total,	5,587,990	721,018	6,308,948	2,773,654	185,354	81,985		1,875,435	220,252	11,445,628		

In 1820, only 365 tons were sent to market. In 1830, the quantity had reached 174,737 tons; in 1840, 865,414; and in 1844, 1,631,699 tons. By this statement, it will be observed that the trade has nearly doubled within the last four years.

The other species of coal abounding in the state is the bituminous, the region of which is situated mainly west of the Alleghany mountains, its area in the limits of Pennsylvania having been estimated as extending a distance of 21,000 square miles. There bituminous coal fields are found, stretching through the hills in horizontal planes, or with occasional undulations, there being, according to a recent estimate, not less than ten separate beds of coal from three to ten feet thick, and most favorable for mining. Those who have journeyed through western Pennsylvania, as it has been our good fortune to do, could hardly fail to have noticed the approach to the bituminous coal region of that portion of the state. The numerous channels cut upon the mountain sides, the multiplication of manufacturing establishments of various sorts where coal is used as a propelling power, the numerous furnaces, rolling-mills, and iron-works, which there abound, the smoky atmosphere produced by innumerable fires, (for almost every man has vast quantities poured down from the hills to his very door, where it supplies the place of other fuel,) all evince the influence that has been produced by the cheapness and abundance of this simple mineral product. More than 8,000,000 bushels are consumed in the opulent city of Pittsburgh, and nearly the same quantity in the salt-works that are situated upon the neighboring streams; 2,000,000 bushels are supposed to be consumed in the city of Cincinnati, and the diminution of wood upon the western waters will, doubtless, greatly increase its consumption, both upon the Ohio and the Mississippi. The estimate is believed to be judicious, that 2,000,000 tons of bituminous coal are annually mined in Pennsylvania, 200,000 tons of which are conveyed down the Ohio, and nine-tenths consumed in the state, both for manufacturing and domestic purposes.

Another of the most prominent enterprises of Pennsylvania is the mining and manufacture of iron. It is, doubtless, well known that this is the great iron state of the Union, and its soil yields that most valuable metallic product in abundance. The iron ores which are scattered over its surface are various in quality. For example, the magnetic oxide of iron, found in the south mountain between the Delaware and Susquehanna, yields from 60 to 70 per cent metallic iron, while brown and yellowish argillaceous, or hermatite and pipe ores, which are extensively worked along the borders of most of the limestone valleys, contain from 45 to 60 per cent. The fossiliferous ore, that is excavated near Danville, in the county of Columbia, and in other places in Union, Juniata, Huntingdon, Bedford, and other parts of the state, contains from 40 to 60 per cent of metallic iron. The iron ores are also most extensively found in the anthracite and bituminous coal region, and of the same character with the clay iron-stone that is used for the manufacture of iron both in England and Wales. It yields from 30 to 50 per cent; and, from the fact that it is produced in very large quantities in those parts of the state where the other iron is not found, it has become highly prized. That species termed bog iron ore, is excavated in almost every county of the state, and its best species are found to yield from 40 to 55 per cent of metallic iron.

The great abundance of iron and coal, which are scattered throughout the soil of Pennsylvania, has naturally induced the construction of numerous iron-works; for, as before remarked, iron is one of the great staples of the state. Almost every county in the state possesses its furnaces, forges,

foundries, and smitheries, where iron is wrought from a crude state into bars and pigs, and moulded into steam engines, as well as the numerous smaller sorts of manufactured implements, such as scythes, nails, cutlery and the various kinds of utensils of husbandry. It has, indeed, been estimated that the value of iron produced throughout the state, and the additional value given to it by its manufacture, amounts to \$21,000,000 annually, and that there is consumed in this manufacture during each year about 188,000 tons of anthracite and bituminous coal. It has also been estimated, from authentic sources, that there are employed in the various branches of the manufacture of iron throughout the state 20,000 workmen, and that a population of 120,000 persons are here depending for their support upon the different departments of the iron business. A considerable portion of the iron that is used by the cupalo furnaces of Philadelphia, besides that which is produced by the state, is the iron of New Jersey and other states, while the rolling-mills of Pittsburgh work large quantities of blooms from Ohio, Kentucky, and Virginia. The exact quantity of iron mined and smelted throughout the state has been pretty accurately ascertained by returns made by the county commissioners to the secretary of the commonwealth in 1839, by which it appears that there were mined in 699 townships that made returns 334,151 tons, and adding to that number the remaining 361 townships, according to the same ratio of production, there is in the 213 furnaces of the state the following quantity produced:—

Iron ore mined in 699 townships,.....	tons	334,151
Estimated for the remaining 361 townships,.....		172,573

Total,.....tons 506,724

It has been, moreover, estimated that the average amount of iron yielded by ore in the furnace is about 37 1-2 per cent, which produces one ton of metal to two and two-thirds of a ton of ore. To yield 190,000 tons of iron, which is the estimated annual product of the state, requires 506,666 tons of iron ore. In order to exhibit in a tabular form the amount of the iron-works throughout the state, independent of the manufacture of iron, and their influence upon the measure of its industry, we subjoin the following table, prepared by a committee appointed to obtain statistical reports of the iron interests of Pennsylvania:—

NUMBER AND PRODUCT OF THE IRON WORKS IN PENNSYLVANIA, IN 1842.

Product.	Tons.	Val. ton.	Aggregate.	Tot. val.	Hands emp'd.
22 rolling-mills, producing—					
Bar iron,.....	20,800	\$85	\$1,768,000
Boiler iron,.....	2,400	110	264,000
Sheet iron,.....	1,200	130	156,000
Nails,.....	8,960	110	985,660
Nail-plate iron,.....	2,400	90	216,000	\$3,389,600	1,678
54 forges, producing—					
Blooms,.....tons	17,725
Less—ded'ct bl'ns manuf. into boiler, sheet, nails, nail-plate,.....	14,960
	2,765	60	165,900
Hammered bar,.....	4,105	90	369,450	535,350	1,666
99 furnaces, producing—					
Castings,.....	4,580	65	297,700
Pig iron,.....tons	80,305

Less—ded'ct 42,620 tns. bar iron and blooms manuf'd from pigs, al- lowing 25 cwt. pigs to the ton, is.....	53,287	27,018	30	810,540	1,108,240	5,063
7 foundries, producing—		300	90		27,000	31
172 works—total pig iron,.....		74,528			5,060,190	8,438
131 fur., est. produce,.... tons	109,695					
Less—deduct manuf'd into bars and blooms,	32,262	76,433	30	Pig iron	2,292,990	6,856
84 forges, rolling-mills, &c., esti- mated to produce.....		27,410	75	Bar and bloom.	2,055,750	1,370
387 works in Penn'a., producing.....		178,371			9,408,930	16,664

We give below a statement derived from the official report of the canal commissioners of Pennsylvania :—

Statement showing the quantity of Iron, of every description, shipped at the following offices, in the years 1843 and 1844, and the increase or decrease at each office.

Collector's office.	No. lbs. of iron shipped in 1843.	No. lbs. of iron shipped in 1844.	Increase.	Decrease
Philadelphia,.....	1,375,595	1,742,741	367,146
Paoli,.....	4,024,289	6,932,681	2,908,392
Parkeburg,.....	602,384	1,359,932	757,548
Lancaster,.....	2,033,439	2,680,103	646,664
Columbia,.....	745,932	7,000,081	6,254,149
Portsmouth,.....	1,246,620	8,363,212	7,086,592
Harrisburgh,.....	6,679,601	10,167,781	3,488,180
Newport,.....	992,816	1,463,982	476,166
Lewistown,.....	4,493,622	5,429,925	936,303
Huntingdon,.....	7,109,445	4,773,567	2,335,878
Holidaysburgh,.....	13,253,611	19,249,517	5,995,906
*Johnstown,.....	7,958,000
Blairsville,.....	446,612	981,085	534,473
Freeport,.....	7,600	60,500	52,900
Pittsburgh,.....	3,873,137	3,425,008	448,129
Berwick,.....	74,300	4,317,216	4,242,916
Dunnsburgh,.....	5,354,575	8,016,863	2,662,288
Williamsport,.....	302,066	443,790	141,724
Northumberland,.....	12,146,737	22,445,040	10,298,303
Liverpool,.....	149,863	405,119	255,256
Junction,.....	1,742,964	1,876,116	133,152
Bridgewater,.....	6,476,504	14,839,723	8,363,219
Easton,.....	10,293,407	20,750,595	10,457,148
New Hope,.....	215,250	84,404	130,846
Bristol,.....	1,529,710	3,105,599	1,576,889
Total lbs.,.....	85,170,119	157,948,580	67,635,314	2,914,853

Whole amount of toll received on iron of every description, transported on the several lines of improvement, during the fiscal year, ending November 30, 1844, \$64,378 39.

We have alluded to the marble and limestone abounding in the state as rich sources of its mineral wealth, and we would first describe more particularly its marble. There are in the vicinity of Downington numerous quarries of white marble, from which large quantities have been transported from time to time to Philadelphia. Other quarries of white, dark, blue, and variegated marble, as well as that possessing various shades of color, have, moreover, been opened east of the Schuylkill

* No return from this office for 1843.

river, from which large masses have been transported to Philadelphia, and other cities in this quarter; and that species called Potomac marble, has been found in large quantities in various parts of the state. The abundance of this beautiful material for building and other architectural purposes, is a source of great wealth to the cities in the immediate vicinity of which the quarries are opened. It tends, in a greater degree than perhaps any other material, to supply the most elegant adornments to domestic architecture, and to contribute to the elegance of public edifices and streets, as well as all sorts of ornamental work.

Even of larger value than the marble which abounds in the state, is the quantity of limestone which is diffused through its greater part—constituting the most fertilizing element in the soil, it is employed in building bridges, houses, barns, canal locks, and other edifices. Burned into lime, it yields a most valuable mortar, which is used extensively in the plastering of houses, in white-washing, in the smelting of ores, and various other objects; but, more especially, in its use for agricultural purposes, it is of greater value than gold or silver mines; for a quarry of this mineral product, in the vicinity of the most barren land, will, with very little expense, cause it to be highly productive, and it has already become an important article of transportation in the interior. In the vicinity of the limestone quarries there is also found a rock producing hydraulic cement, and it has been pretty extensively used in the construction of canal locks. In addition to these products, are many kinds of potter's clay diffused throughout the state, and also those particular varieties used for the making of bricks. Slate quarries have also been opened somewhat extensively in that part of the state stretching along the southeastern side of the Blue mountain, and large quantities of roofing slate, and that which is employed in schools, is produced below the Delaware Water Gap, in the county of Northampton. To these mineral products may be added zinc, copper, and lead ores, which, however, have not been yielded in sufficient quantities to warrant their being worked.

It has been estimated that two-thirds of the entire surface of Pennsylvania are now covered with timber, and yet the productions of the forest constitute an inconsiderable item in the sum of its available worth. Among those productions, we may specify the quantity of fuel that is used for the numerous purposes required by a large population, both for manufacturing and domestic objects; the charcoal employed in the foundries, forges, furnaces, and smith-shops; the logs that are sawed into boards, shingles, and various sorts of lumber, both for building and mechanical objects; the wood for farming utensils; the lumber for ship and boat building, and those other implements required in manufactures and the mechanic arts, the greater portion of which may be supplied by the Pennsylvanian forests. From 5,389 saw-mills, 400,000 feet of lumber are annually produced, and about \$500,000 worth of shingles, staves, and unsawed timber, are annually sent to market.* Besides this amount, there is to be taken into the calculation a considerable quantity which is used for home consumption, and the timber that is employed for other objects. Among

* We deem it our duty to allude, in connection with the subject of the present article, to a work of which we have availed ourselves largely, the *Geography of the State of Pennsylvania*, by Mr. Charles B. Trego, which has recently been published. It is comprehensive, minute, and practical, and is the most satisfactory work of the kind that has been issued in this country; it may be considered in fact a model of this species of compilation.

the products of the forest of the state, may be mentioned, moreover, 2,000 barrels of tar, pitch, turpentine, and rosin; 300 tons of pot and pearl ashes; and about 2,000,000 pounds of maple sugar.

It has been remarked that Pennsylvania stands among the three first states of the Union in the amount of its manufactures. There is provided by nature, in its vast beds of coal and iron, as well as in the great extent of its water power, ample resources for manufacturing enterprise. It is estimated, indeed, that upon the Susquehanna and its hundred branches, as well as upon the Delaware and the Schuylkill, and their tributaries, and the numerous streams that make up the Alleghany and Monongahela, there is a power of this sort capable of performing the labor of 400,000,000 men, without calculating the material embodied in its vast anthracite coal fields, and its 10,000 square miles of bituminous coal lands.

The operations of the various kinds of manufactures throughout the state, employ a great number of individuals, both in the interior and in the principal cities upon the borders; and we will first consider the amount of the manufacture of iron. The largest amount of iron produced is in the counties of Northampton, Lehigh, Berks, Lancaster, York, Cumberland, Franklin, Bedford, Huntingdon, Centre, Columbia, Armstrong, Clarion, and Venango, although, in other counties, a considerable quantity of this metal is yielded from furnaces and forges. There are air and cupola furnaces, rolling mills, steam engine factories, nail factories, scythe and sickle factories, axe and edge tool factories, cutlery factories, factories for shovels, spades, and forks; gun factories, car, carriage, and wagon factories, plough factories, and sheet-iron factories. We here annex, from the journal of the coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania, a table, exhibiting the annual value of the manufactures of iron, based upon the amount produced in 1842:—*

MANUFACTURES OF IRON.

87,244 tons made into bars, additional value,.....	\$3,489,760
71,000 tons castings,	5,000,000
45,000 tons rolled iron,	1,937,339
Iron in 270 steam-engines,	700,000
7,017 tons nails,	253,110
Scythes and sickles,	15,000
Edge tools,	110,000
Cutlery,	25,000
Shovels, spades, and forks,	30,000
Guns,	185,074
Cars, and other vehicles,	900,000
Ploughs, iron,	107,000
Sheet iron manufactures,	100,000
Articles made by blacksmiths,	5,000,000
Total,.....	\$21,254,133

According to the census of 1840, Pennsylvania had 213 furnaces for the manufacture of pig iron and castings, which produced 100,000 tons; 169 forges, bloomeries, and rolling mills, which annually manufactured 87,254 tons of bar, rod, sheet, and boiler iron, and nail plates. The capital invested in iron works is about eight millions, employing twelve thou-

* We have derived much valuable information respecting the coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania, from a semi-monthly magazine, devoted to the coal, iron manufactory, and agricultural interests of Pennsylvania, edited by Henry R. Strong, Esq., and published in Harrisburgh in 1842. The work has, we believe, been discontinued.

sand persons, who, with their families, would number about one hundred thousand. It had 736 flour mills, manufacturing, annually, 1,193,405 barrels of flour; 2,554 grist mills, 5,389 saw mills, 166 oil mills; the total value of these several branches of manufacture being \$9,424,955, giving employment to about eight thousand men, and about eight million dollars of capital. It had 105 cotton factories, forty establishments for the dying and printing of cottons; 235 woollen manufactories, producing woollen goods to the amount of \$2,319,061 annually, and affording employment to about three thousand persons; besides a vast amount of capital invested in various other branches of manufactures, and producing manufactured articles, of various kinds, to a very great value. Indeed, the total amount invested in manufactures throughout the state, is returned at \$31,815,105. In order to establish the total value of manufactured products throughout the state, we here subjoin a table derived from an authentic source:—

SUMMARY OF ALL ANNUAL PRODUCTS.

Value of 113,395 tons pig iron, at \$30,.....	\$3,401,850
“ additional, by various manufactures,.....	17,852,283
“ anthracite coal mined,.....	5,000,000
“ bituminous coal mined,.....	4,000,000
“ agricultural products,.....	126,620,617
“ manufactures, except iron,.....	43,151,843
Annual products of the state,.....	\$200,026,593

The state of Pennsylvania, possessing as it does, such vast resources in the agricultural and mineral treasures of her soil, has established a system of internal communication, in the improvement of navigable rivers, the construction of railroads, canals, turnpike roads and bridges, calculated, in a great degree, to develop them. It is doubted, indeed, whether the scale upon which the plan of internal improvement has been framed, is not much too large for its requirements and its present means. The plan of internal improvements early commenced, has been carried out to a considerable extent, and a chain of public works has been constructed, which, although attended with great expense, has contributed to the wealth of the state in a much greater degree than the amount of their cost. The expenditure of money upon those public works, has now involved the state in some pecuniary embarrassment, of which it will require a few years to relieve itself. The canals and railroads that have been built, connecting the most populous and productive parts of the state by convenient lines of transportation, have doubtless added vast value to the property of the state, and also to its trade. The long lines, extending from its eastern to its western boundaries, furnish the most important avenues through which the products of the west may be transported to eastern markets; and the cargoes of foreign goods received in eastern ports may be, in turn, sent to their most remote places of sale in the interior. Besides the construction of the larger works, by the state or by individuals, there have been numerous shorter lines of railroads and canals, connected with coal or iron mines, carried out by private enterprise, and we are writing within sight of long trains of its cars, composed of sections of canal boats, taken from the waters of the Susquehannah, divided into fragments, and despatched as cars to the city of Philadelphia upon the wheels of a railroad. But the particular in which the state ex-

cels all others of the Union, is in the number and excellence of its turn-pike roads, which have been built by incorporated companies, and have produced great advantage, although they have, as yet, yielded but small dividends. Those roads are constructed of beds of broken stone about two feet thick, and in a convex form, in order that the water may drain off from their surface. They are so broad as to permit two or three carriages to travel abreast, and by their side is also laid out a summer road upon the natural surface of the ground, for the greater convenience of travellers during the dry summer weather. The elegance of the numerous bridges that are constructed upon those roads, and their value for solidity, symmetry, and permanence, have been topics of comment by all who have been conversant with the actual condition of the interior; and although they have been, so far, unproductive, in a pecuniary point of view, they have been of marked advantage to the public, by furnishing convenient and safe lines of transportation, both for passengers and merchandise. We here subjoin a summary, showing the aggregate length of the canals and railroads throughout the state.*

	Miles.		Miles.
Length of State Railroads,.....	118	Length of State Canals,.....	849
“ Company Railroads,.....	602	“ Company Canals,.....	432
“ private railroads, to mines, &c.,.....	75	Total length of canals,.....	1,280
Total length of railroads,....	795		

From the view that we have taken of the resources of the state of Pennsylvania, it is evident that they must maintain a large amount of trade. The produce of its fields and its mines, its manufactures, and its workshops, possess the most convenient outlets through its canals, railroads, and navigable rivers, as well as from its close proximity to the markets of the north, the south, the east, and the west. The public works constructed across the state, find ample freights in the amount of business which is carried on; and while the great manufacturing city of Pittsburg is shipping from its hundred fires, manufactured articles of various sorts, made from glass and iron, down the Ohio and Mississippi, the mountain sides of the interior, in their abundance of coal, are supplying to the city of Philadelphia, by the coal trade, an amount of commerce which is worth three times as much as her foreign trade. In transporting this coal to New York, and other Atlantic ports, it is not unusual to perceive the arrival of one hundred vessels into that port during a single day. The mere transportation of this mineral product through the public works, is an item of no inconsiderable importance. With a view of showing the amount of the transportation upon the state canals, we subjoin the following table, exhibiting the amount of coal in tons of 2,240 pounds, which, during the year 1841, passed over the state canals this side of the Alleghany mountains, the tolls paid into the state treasury, and the estimate for 1842:—

* The receipts into the Pennsylvania state treasury, accruing from her public improvements, for the fiscal year, ending November 30, 1844, are as follows:—

Canal tolls,.....	\$578,404 45
Railroad tolls,.....	252,854 64
Motive power,.....	319,590 07
Trucks,.....	13,476 68
Total,.....	\$1,164,325 84
For the year ending Nov. 30, 1843,.....	1,019,401 15
Increase,.....	\$144,924 69

COAL TRANSPORTED ON THE STATE CANALS.

Mining Districts.	1841.		1842, (estimated.)	
	Tons.	Tolls.	Tons.	Tolls.
Wyoming,.....	53,315	\$33,804	90,000	\$65,000
Shamokin,.....	21,463	6,692	40,000	22,000
Swatara,.....	17,653	1,408	50,000	5,000
Lykens Valley,.....	4,908	1,014	6,000	2,000
Lehigh,.....	142,158	48,063	350,000	140,000
West Branch,.....	*8,115	3,597	30,000	20,000
Juniata,.....	17,314	12,836	25,000	21,000
Kiskiminetas,.....	1,467	287	2,000	400
Total,.....	266,393	\$107,701	593,000	\$275,400

* 2,122 tons used on the Philadelphia and Columbia railroad, and paid no toll.

In conclusion, with the subject of the coal trade upon the state canals, we would adduce other facts, bearing in a more practical manner upon this interest, for there is little doubt that its coal resources will, for a long time to come, attract to itself the industry and enterprise of its population. Although this trade is still in its infancy, yet the demand for that product is rapidly increasing, and will continue to increase with the advance of the nation. It is fast taking the place of wood for domestic purposes in the Atlantic cities, and in propelling the steamboats of the eastern waters. It is also supplying the place of other agents for propelling all sorts of machinery, as well as for the making of iron. But Pennsylvania alone does not possess this useful mineral. Virginia and Maryland own mines upon the Potomac, and we perceive that in a lecture upon the geology of the United States, recently delivered by Mr. Lyell, the eminent geologist, he states that the Ohio coal field extends for a length of seven hundred miles, and that of Illinois embraces an extent of surface even larger than the whole of England. In those fields the coal is formed in workable beds, and, in one instance, there is a bed of coal forty feet thick, which comes up to the surface, and is quarried like stone. Although we possess such vast bodies of coal within our own soil, it has been found profitable for the British to import it in considerable quantity to this country. Hardly a month passes without the arrival of coal from England; but the circumstances, which would at first appear strange, require some explanation. The British coal mines, it may not be generally known, are upon the coast, and near the place of export, while the nearest anthracite mines of this republic are one hundred miles from the seaboard, and the nearest bituminous mines are nearly two hundred, so that the difference in the cost of transportation, together with the price of labor of our own, is nearly the same as the export of that article to us, the inferior cost of their own labor almost counteracting the duties. In order to show the relative amount of British coal imported into the United States from 1821 to 1842, inclusive, in tons of 2,240 pounds, and the amount of Pennsylvania anthracite sent from the mines to the cities upon the tide water, we subjoin a table, which will exhibit, in a condensed form, the comparative extent of the British import of that product.

The following comparative table, derived from the Miners' Journal, will show the quantity of coal imported into this country from 1821 to 1842, both years inclusive; also, the quantity of bituminous coal mined and shipped at Richmond, Virginia, and the anthracite coal trade of the United States for the same periods. The importation of foreign coal is official—from the Register of the Treasury:—

Year.	Foreign. Tons.	Virginia. Tons.	Penn'a. Tons.	Year.	Foreign. Tons.	Virginia. Tons.	Penn'a. Tons.
1821,.....	22,122	1,073	1832,.....	72,987	117,878	363,871
1822,.....	34,523	48,214	2,240	1833,.....	92,432	142,587	487,748
1823,.....	30,433	39,255	5,823	1834,.....	91,626	110,714	376,636
1824,.....	27,228	59,857	9,541	1835,.....	49,969	96,428	560,758
1825,.....	25,645	59,571	34,893	1836,.....	108,432	110,714	682,428
1826,.....	35,605	79,144	48,047	1837,.....	152,450	100,000	881,476
1827,.....	40,257	75,643	63,434	1838,.....	129,083	96,428	739,293
1828,.....	32,302	89,357	77,516	1839,.....	181,551	85,714	819,327
1829,.....	45,393	83,357	112,083	1840,.....	162,867	78,571	865,414
1830,.....	58,136	91,785	174,734	1841,.....	155,394	71,071	958,899
1831,.....	36,509	93,143	176,520	1842,.....	103,247	68,750	1,108,001

The mining of coal will, in future time, when the exhaustion of the woodlands, and the increase of the population shall increase the demand, become a prominent enterprise of capital and industry. The construction of new railroads leading to valuable mines, the application of this material to new purposes, and the opening of additional markets, will greatly multiply the motives for working mines of this sort, as well as the demands for its product. There are various expenses connected with the working of collieries that are now not known to the public, and with a view to present these prominent facts in a compendious form, we annex the following table, procured from an authentic source, and relating to this subject in the state of Pennsylvania.

The following table exhibits the several items of expense of mining and transporting to market, a ton of 2,240 pounds of mineral coal, from those mining districts whose tonnage passes over any portion of the public works; and, also, the number of miles of railroads and canals from the several mines to market:*

	ANTHRACITE.						BITUMINOUS.		
	Wyo- ming.	White high.	Ash- Shamo- kin.	Swa- tara.	Red Swa- tara.	Ash- Ly- ken.	Jun- ata.	W'st Br'nc'h.	Mer- cer.
Miles of railroad,	2	9	20	8	5	16	12	—	—
“ State canal,	148	60	84	17	17	55	174	155	90
“ Tide canal,	45	..	45	45	45	45	45	45	..
“ Union canal,	52	52
“ Lehigh canal,	49½
Total miles to market, . . .	195	116½	149	122	119	116	231	200	90
Rent or interest on coal land, . .	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Opening veins, gangways, faults and buildings,	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Mining, timber, mine-wagons and tools,	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62
Hauling out, skreening, and load- ing cars,	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Transportation to the canal, . .	15	72	60	36	30	87	60	38	15
Transshipment and cost of land'gs, Depreciation from small coal and waste,	30	20	33	20	33	50	10	10	10
Toll on the State canal,	95	40	54	11	11	35	92	82	48
Freight on the State canal, . . .	1 29	52	73	14	14	49	1 53	1 35	68
Toll on the Tide canal,	29	..	29	29	29	29	29	29	..
Freight on the Tide canal, . . .	39	..	39	39	39	39	39	39	..
Toll on the Union canal,	40	40
Freight on the Union canal,	46	46
Extra for Union canal boat,	28	28
Toll on the Lehigh canal,	58
Freight on the Lehigh canal,	40
Cost of unloading boat,	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Cost of coal in market,	\$ 4 74	\$ 4 35	\$ 4 50	\$ 4 25	\$ 4 22	\$ 4 51	\$ 5 45	\$ 4 95	\$ 3 00

* A considerable reduction on the prices of transportation of coal has, we understand, been made since this table was prepared.

We have thus gone through a compendious account of the resources of the state of Pennsylvania, and it is easily seen that they are enormous. It has been estimated that the great western bituminous coal fields of the state, contains three hundred thousand millions of tons ; and when we look at the immense amount of the manufacturing interest, the extent of its iron works, and its wide surface of fertile soil, the existing and rapidly increasing amount of its agricultural products, it must be apparent that it is destined to a high career of prosperity. The present embarrassment in the financial affairs of Pennsylvania, so far as it induces increased taxation, is, to say least, at this time somewhat inconvenient. The state debt is now larger than that of any other state in the Union, amounting to \$36,331,005, but it must be remembered that the value of this debt has been realized to the state, not only in the encouragement of the industry of its people, but also in the public works already constructed, adding to the value of property, and contributing to the public convenience to the full amount of their cost. The total value of the property of the commonwealth has been judiciously estimated at two billions one hundred millions of dollars, and with the resources at her command, there is but little doubt that she can, with the exercise of more economy and prudence, soon relieve herself from debt. Indeed, the increase of the population of the interior, each prominent iron mine and colliery furnishing a nucleus for a future village, will tend to aid that object. The position of the state is as extraordinary as its resources are opulent and its energies powerful. It occupies a central situation, a sort of truce ground between the north, the south, the east, and the west. No narrow local prejudices and national jealousies can here flourish. Its commercial ports touch the eastern waters as well as those of the great lakes, and the Ohio. Its territory stretches along the eastern frontier, and at the same time rests in the valley of the Mississippi. It spreads out in its western part, the primeval solitude of the forest, and on its eastern side, all the blandishments of metropolitan life. It exhibits the strong contrast of frontier habitudes and the most polished manners of the eastern cities. Its wilderness casts its mighty shades as shelters for the bear and the wolf, which it has done ever since the creation, while on the eastern border, Philadelphia, with its symmetrical squares, its magnificent edifices for public objects, its splendid piles erected for charitable purposes, its elegant shops and its numerous blocks of private mansions, bound in pure white marble, as if they had been chiseled from banks of snow, attest elegant taste and the beneficent spirit of the second city in the Union in population. In the character of the people of the state, there are presented traits which afford an earnest of its future prosperity ; although they are, in a considerable measure, derived from different nations, they maintain a harmony which is the mark of patriotism and the harbinger of good. They are prudent and industrious, and the means of improvement which have been elsewhere experienced have here worked out the most beneficial results. No true patriot, from any quarter of the Union, can regard the resources and prosperity of this great state with other feelings than those of honest exultation that it forms a part of his country.

ART. IV.—WHEATON'S LAW OF NATIONS.*

MR. Wheaton, the American minister to the Court of Berlin, has recently introduced to the public a history of the law of nations, in Europe and America, from the earliest times to the treaty of Washington in 1842. It was originally written and published in the French language, as a memoir, in answer to a prize question, proposed by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in the Institute of France, but has been considerably enlarged, on rendering the work into the English language, as the author informs us in the preface.

The work appears in four parts, with an Introduction and Conclusion. The learned author is an American by birth and allegiance, and was educated at one of our universities; in early life pursued the profession of law in the city of New York; was connected with the judiciary of the United States, as a reporter of decisions, for a period of twelve years; and in the year 1827, appointed Charge des Affairs of the United States to the Court of Denmark; and thence has been transferred, by the government, as minister at the Court of Berlin, where he has continued to be the accredited representative of the United States to the present time. While Mr. Wheaton was reporter, he was a favorite of the profession, in our country, as well as of the tribunal which he attended, both as counsel and reporter; and his twelve volumes of reports bear ample testimony to his fidelity, legal learning, and general knowledge of historical and commercial law. Besides being a reporter to the highest judicial tribunal in America, he was selected as one of the revisers of the statutory code of the State of New York; and he entered, in the year 1825, upon the duties of this intricate enterprise, and continued as one of the revisers until he was sent abroad in a diplomatic character. The work before us is understood to have been mostly compiled since he left his native country, in his diplomatic employments; and it shows that he has been familiar with the state of various great questions of national law, which have arisen in Europe and America, while he has been a sojourner in foreign lands.

We regard Mr. Wheaton's work, as one which will shed a broad stream of light to the philanthropist and statesman, in their endeavors to calm the angry passions of nations and people, when excited to acts of hostility, either by love of power, feelings of revenge, or avarice. Mr. Wheaton is a public benefactor, and his work will give him a high rank amongst the most distinguished writers on the law of nations.

The work, though historical in its details, brings the law of nations down to the most recent decisions; and, to the diplomatist and statesman, will be what the life of an advocate is to the public—an application of the doctrine of legal science to the intercourse of men.

Every person who has occasion to look into the law of nations, should first consult Mr. Wheaton's book; in this he will find the latest decisions and discussions on the subject of national law; and when he has read this work, he may turn to the pages of Vattel, Grotius, Binkershoek and

* History of the Law of Nations, in Europe and America, from the earliest times, to the treaty of Washington, 1842, by Henry Wheaton, LL. D., minister of the United States to the Court of Berlin, corresponding member of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in the Institute of France: New York, Gould, Banks & Co.

the ancient authors, with a double facility to acquire the true interpretations of their doctrines. The work evinces much research; and the labors of the compilation have compelled our author to spend many an evening in searching the archives of States, and the diplomatic writers in Europe—the dusty tomes of German universities, while his brethren in the diplomatic circles have been paying their devotions to Fashion at the shrines of Courts.

We would gladly make many extracts from this book, for the benefit of our readers, but our limits will not permit. We will first refer to that portion of Mr. Wheaton's work, more recent in its date—coeval with our time. We mean the discussion of certain great questions of international law, which occurred between Mr. Webster and Lord Ashburton, as preliminary to the signing of the treaty between Great Britain and the United States, in 1842, called the treaty of Washington.

The question discussed by these two distinguished negotiators, which was not definitely settled by the treaty, was that of the African slave-trade, and the right claimed by Great Britain to search all suspected vessels on the high seas, which were supposed to be connected with this inhuman traffic, as well as the security of American vessels, when meeting with disasters in passing between the United States and the Bahama Islands, and driven by such disasters into British ports.

The letter to which we refer, is dated August 1st, 1842, Department of State, Washington, and is from Mr. Webster, secretary of foreign affairs, to Lord Ashburton, the British minister, and was written for the purpose of appraising the British government of the claims, which the United States government made in the case of the *Creole*, an American vessel carried into the port of Nassau, in the same year, by persons who had been slaves in Virginia; and who, while they were on a transportation from Norfolk, by sea, to New Orleans, had risen upon the master and officers of the vessel, put them to death, and escaped to the British Island, and had there been treated as free persons, by the Colonial government.

This letter is long, and exceedingly able, and one of the best didactic discussions we have ever seen put forth by the great mind of Mr. Webster. It discusses the rights which appertain to the vessels of nations, when on the high sea, in regard to the jurisdiction of the nation to which they belong. This right is shown, on the part of the American secretary, to be exclusive; he says:—

“A vessel on the high seas, beyond the distance of a marine league from the shore, is regarded as a part of the territory of the nation to which she belongs; and subjected, exclusively, to the jurisdiction of that nation. If, against the will of her master or owner, she be driven or carried nearer to land, or even into port, those who have, or who ought to have, control over her, struggling all the while to keep her upon the high seas, she remains in the exclusive jurisdiction of her own government. What reason or justice is there in creating a distinction between her rights and immunities in a position thus the result of absolute necessity, and the same rights and immunities before superior power had forced her out of her voluntary course?”

This argument embodies the law of nations on this subject, as acknowledged by the best writers on national law for the last century. Indeed, a private merchant vessel, or a public armed vessel of war, when driven into the ports of a neutral country, by stress of weather, for shelter or repairs, or when driven by pursuit of pirates or of their enemies, are entitled to protection. Mr. Webster further says:—

"If a ship be driven, by stress of weather, into a prohibited port, or into an open port with prohibited articles on board, in neither case is any forfeiture incurred. So, if a vessel be driven by necessity into a port strictly blockaded, this necessity is good defence, and exempts her from penalty. That the rules of law and comity of nations allow merchant vessels, coming into any open port of another country, voluntarily, for purposes of lawful trade, to bring with her, and keep over her, to a very considerable extent, the jurisdiction and authority of the laws of her own country; excluding to this extent, by consequence, the jurisdiction of the local laws. A ship at anchor in a foreign friendly port preserves its own national laws. So, if a murder be committed on board of an American vessel, by one of the crew or passengers, upon another of the crew or passengers, while such vessel is lying in a port within the jurisdiction of a foreign state, or sovereignty, the offence is cognizable by the proper court of the United States, in the same manner as if such offence had been committed on board the vessel on the high seas. But this jurisdiction of a nation over a vessel belonging to it, while lying in the port of another, is not necessarily wholly exclusive.

"We do not so consider, or so assert it. For any unlawful acts done by her, while thus lying in port, and for all contracts entered into, while there, by her master or owners, she and they must, doubtlessly, be answerable to the laws of the place. Nor if her master or crew, while on board in such port, break the peace of the community by the commission of crimes, can exemption be claimed for them.

"The jurisdiction and laws of a nation accompany her ships, not only over the high seas, but into ports and harbors, or wheresoever else they may be waterborne, for the general purpose of governing and regulating the rights, duties, and obligations, of those on board thereof; and that, to the extent of the exercise of this jurisdiction, they are considered as parts of the territory of the nation herself. And if a vessel be driven by stress of weather, perils of the sea, into the ports of another state, the laws of that state would not so attach to the vessel as to effect existing rights of property between persons on board, whether arising from contract, or otherwise. The local laws would not operate to make the goods of one man to become the goods of another man."

And Mr. Webster, in his argument, asserts that it ought not to effect their personal obligations, or existing relations between themselves. This latter argument applied to the case of the slaves on board of the *Creole*, which escaped from the vessel, and then were held freed, by the British authorities, from any obligations to their former masters. He says:

"By the comity of the law of nations, and the practice of modern times, merchant vessels entering open ports of other nations, for the purposes of trade, are presumed to be allowed to bring with them, and to retain, for their protection and government, the jurisdiction and laws of their own country. Because the ports are open—because trade is invited—and because, under these circumstances, such permission, or allowance, is according to general usage. It is not denied that all this may be refused—that on the arrival of a foreign vessel in its ports, all shipping articles, and all indentures of apprenticeship, between her crew and her owners, or masters, should cease to be binding. The nation has the power to do so, but they are not presumed to do so. It is competent for a nation, by express edict, or statute, to declare that no foreign jurisdiction, of any kind, should exist in, or over, a vessel after its arrival voluntarily into her ports; and so she might close her ports to the ships of all nations."

Mr. Webster further observes:—

"A state may also declare, in the absence of treaty stipulations, that foreigners shall not sue in her courts, nor travel in her territories, nor carry away funds or goods received for debts. The power of a state to make such laws is unquestionable; but, in the absence of direct and positive enactments to that effect, the presumption is, that the opposite of these things exist. While her ports are open to foreign trade, it is to be presumed that she expects foreign ships to enter them,

bringing with them the jurisdiction of their own government, and the protection of its laws, to the same extent that her ships, and the ships of other commercial states, carry with them the jurisdiction of their respective governments, into the open ports of the world.

"A merchant vessel enters the port of a friendly state, and enjoys, while there, the protection of her own laws, and is under the jurisdiction of her own government; not in derogation of the sovereignty of the place, but by the presumed allowance, or permission, of that sovereignty. This permission, or allowance, is founded on the comity of nations; and this comity is part, and a most important and valuable part, of the law of nations, to which all nations are presumed to assent, until they make their dissent known.

"Vessels which are compelled to seek the port of a friendly nation, by an overruling necessity, may place their claim for exemption from interference on still higher principles—that is to say, principles held in more sacred regard by the comity—the country, or indeed, the common sense of justice of all civilized states.

"The presumption of law is stronger in regard to vessels driven into foreign ports by necessity, and seeking only a temporary refuge, than in regard to those which enter them voluntarily, and for purposes of trade, that they will not be interfered with, and that, unless they commit, while in port, some act against the laws of the place, they will be permitted to receive supplies, to repair damages, and to depart unmolested.

"Vessels of the United States driven by necessity into British ports, and staying there no longer than such necessity exists, violating no law, nor having intent to violate any law, will claim, and there will be claimed for them, protection and security, freedom from molestation, and from all interference with the character or condition of persons or things on board. In the opinion of the government of the United States, such vessels, so driven, and so detained, by necessity, in a friendly port, ought to be regarded as still pursuing their original voyage, and turned out of their direct course only by disaster or wrongful violence; and they ought to receive all assistance necessary to enable them to resume their direct route; and that interference and molestation by the local authorities, where the whole voyage is lawful, both in act and intent, is ground for just and grave complaint."

We have not referred to this letter, to discuss the law of nations growing out of the Creole case; for we are of the opinion, that the law on this question has never yet been settled in the code of any nation, and we may presume that generations will come and pass away before any definite rules will be acknowledged for a similar case. But we do not remember ever to have seen the law and rights, appertaining to merchant vessels, while lying in the ports of a foreign and friendly nation, so fully and clearly expounded by any writer on national law, as in the letter of Mr. Webster, from which we have made the above extracts. This letter could have found no more appropriate repository than in Mr. Wheaton's work; and he has had the sagacity, throughout his book, to collect, from numberless sources, as well as from the ancient ponderous tomes of the writers on national law—the good and practical parts of them, while he has cast the rubbish away.

The British minister did not undertake to answer Mr. Webster's letter at length; for he came ambassador to the United States without instructions from his government to enter into a formal stipulation for the security of vessels of the United States, when driven by disasters into British ports.

The next letter, to which we would call the attention of our readers, in Mr. Wheaton's book, is found at page 737, and is also from Mr. Webster to the British minister, under date of August 8, 1842. This last let-

ter is upon the subject of the impressment of seamen out of American vessels, while on the high seas and in foreign ports, by British authority. This letter, like the preceding one, is a profound and able vindication of the law, on this subject, as claimed by the government of the United States.

The British minister, in his reply, states that the laws of England and America, maintain opposite principles respecting allegiance to the sovereign. America, receiving every year by thousands emigrants from Europe, maintains the doctrine, suitable to her condition, of the right of transferring allegiance at will. The laws of Great Britain have maintained, from all time, the opposite doctrines: the duties of allegiance are held to be indefeasible; and it is believed, says the British minister, that this doctrine, under various modifications, prevails in most, if not in all, civilized states of Europe.

Our readers are aware that Great Britain claims the right to visit and take out of American vessels, while on a voyage, all persons found on board, whether composing the crew or not, who are British-born subjects, although they have renounced their allegiance to their native country, and become naturalized American citizens. The United States government hold that a person can expatriate himself at will, and become the citizen of a country foreign to that of his birth. And at the present day, France, by her political code, has conceded the same right of expatriation to her native-born citizens.

At page 740 of Mr. Wheaton's work, Mr. Webster, in his reply to Lord Ashburton, says:—

“England acknowledges herself overburdened with population of the poorer classes. Every instance of the emigration of such persons is regarded by her as a benefit. England, therefore, encourages emigration. Means are notoriously supplied to emigrants, to assist their conveyance, from public funds; and the new world, and most especially these United States, receive the many thousands of her subjects thus ejected from the bosom of their native land by the necessities of their condition. They come away from poverty and distress in over-crowded cities, to seek employment, comfort, and new homes, in a country of free institutions, possessed by their kindred race, speaking their own language, and having laws and usages in many respects like those to which they have been accustomed—and a country which, upon the whole, is found to possess more attractions for persons of their character and condition than any other on the face of the globe. It is stated that in the quarter of the year, ending with June last, more than 26,000 emigrants left the single port of Liverpool for the United States; being four or five times as many as left the same port within the same period for British colonies, and all other parts of the world. Of these crowds of emigrants, many arrive in our cities in circumstances of great destitution; and the charities of the country, both public and private, are generally taxed to relieve their immediate wants. In time they mingle with the new community in which they find themselves, and seek means of living. Some find employment in the cities, others go to the frontiers to cultivate lands reclaimed from the forest; and a greater or less number of the residue, becoming in time naturalized citizens, enter into the merchant service under a flag of their adopted country.”

Mr. Webster argues the question with Lord Ashburton thus:—

“Now, my lord, if war should break out between England and a European power, can anything be more unjust, anything more irreconcilable to the general sentiments of mankind, than that England should seek out these persons, thus encouraged by her, and compelled by their own condition, to leave

their own native homes, tear them away from their new employments, their new political relations, and their domestic connections, and force them to undergo the dangers and hardships of military service for a country, which has thus ceased to be their own country? Certainly, certainly, my lord, there can be but one answer to this question!"

By perusing Mr. Webster's letters, the reader will find that the just rights of the United States, in regard to the impressment of seamen from her ships, are fully vindicated; and he will also learn the state of the question, as it now remains undecided by two great nations, who are urging, each against the other, their conflicting rules of international law. The work of Mr. Wheaton is of that practical nature, that gives it a claim to perusal by the mercantile reader on both sides of the Atlantic. And every person who wishes to fit himself for business in the daily commercial intercourse of the world, should purchase and read this book; he will not only find in it a history of the law of nations, but also the law as applicable to most questions which arise between nations in their political and commercial character. The right of visitation and search of American vessels on the high seas, suspected of being engaged in the slave trade, is also discussed by Mr. Webster, in a letter to Mr. Everett, our minister to the Court of London, under date of March 28, 1843. This letter is an able vindication of the American side of the question; and the British side is not supported or justified, according to Mr. Wheaton, by a single passage of any institutional writer on public law. It leads, according to Lord Stowell, to gigantic mischief and universal war. Mr. Wheaton has taken care, in his work, to vindicate the rights of our republic whenever he can do so in accordance with the law of nations. Mr. Webster, in his dispatch to Mr. Everett, page 718 of the work before us, denies, in the fullest manner, the right of British cruisers to detain an American merchant vessel either for a visit or search. The government of the United States does not admit that, by the law and practice of nations, there is any such thing as a right of visit distinguished from the right of search. It does not admit, a visit of American merchant vessels by British cruisers is founded on any right. A vessel cannot be called upon to show even her papers, while on the high seas, in times of peace. Her rights are equal to the rights of any other vessel, whether private or public, and no vessel has a right to molest her. The use of papers is, in times of peace and war, to show her national character, and the lawfulness of her voyage in those ports of other countries to which she may proceed for purposes of trade; and to prove her nationality when visited by belligerent cruisers in time of war. The historical accounts and discussions of the right of visit and search take up more than one hundred pages of Mr. Wheaton's work; and he has fully shown the immunity of merchant vessels in time of peace to be either visited or searched on the high seas. At page 308 Mr. Wheaton has also collected the law relative to rights of nations to participate in the navigation of great rivers which pass through the territory of one nation on the sea coast, to that of another above, *es.* in the case of the navigation of the Mississippi, page 508, he says:—

"The right of the United States to participate with Spain in the navigation of the river Mississippi previous to the cession of Louisiana, was rested by the American government on the sentiment written in deep characters on the heart of man, that the ocean is free to all men, and its rivers to all riparian inhabitants."

This natural right was found to be acknowledged and protected in all tracts of country united under the same political society, by laying the navigable rivers open to all the inhabitants on their banks. When these rivers enter the limits of another society, if the right of the upper inhabitants to descend the stream be in any case obstructed, it is an act of force by a stronger society against a weaker, and condemned by the judgment of mankind.

At page 134, of the work, the subject of contraband, and the confiscation of the vehicle carrying contraband, and of innocent, with unlawful articles found on board, is discussed. The French marine ordinances of 1681, subjected the contraband articles to confiscation, but innocent goods and the ships were free. Some nations have settled between themselves, by treaty, what shall be considered articles of contraband. In the nature of things there appears to be two kinds or species of contraband goods: 1st, contraband of war; 2d, contraband of the treasury. The first are goods carried by a neutral, into an enemy's ports, or designed for them, in time of war, between two belligerent nations. The second, are goods imported, or intended to be imported, into a country, either in time of war or peace, contrary to the regulations of the revenue laws of the country. In either case, the goods are subjected to seizure and condemnation, but whether the vessel that transports the goods, shall be liable to condemnation, is often a question of municipal custom, or regulations, but much more frequently, of international law. The laws of nations on the subject of contraband, as in other cases, is not to be drawn from any other source, than reason and usage, unless there has been some positive treaty, or regulation, on the subject. Reason commands us to be equally friendly to two of our neighbors, or friends, who are enemies to each other; and, hence it follows that, I am not to prefer either in war, or to give either aid and comfort, by selling, or carrying to either, articles, which are known as munitions of war. These articles are often enumerated in treaties, and consist usually of powder, ammunition, fire-arms, weapons of war, all war-like accoutrements, military dress and clothing, cannons, muskets, ships, sheet copper, wrought iron, spikes, sails, hemp, tar, pitch, rosin, timber, cordage, and whatever serves for the equipment of ships, and vessels of war. By the ancient Roman law, a vessel was condemned, or acquitted, which carried contraband of the treasury, according to the fact, whether the owners knew of the contraband being shipped. There was a wide distinction, in case of goods, whether the contraband goods, and the innocent goods, belonged to one owner, in regard to the condemnation of the whole cargo—the whole might have been condemned if they belonged to one owner, but, if the innocent goods belonged to another owner, they were not involved in the confiscation. The early practice of the English admiralty courts, was to condemn both ship and cargo, when contraband was found on board, and so is the practice, with many nations, at the present day; but, after the contraband cargo has been discharged, and the vessel is found on the high seas, or has cleared from the port of discharge, we believe that no nation, at the present day, condemns the guilty vessel. The English rule was subsequently relaxed, so as to limit the confiscation of the ship, and the innocent parts of the cargo, to cases where they belonged to the owners of the contraband, or where the shipment of the contraband is attempted to be concealed under false papers and false destination.

Mr. Wheaton's work is, truly, what it claims to be—a history of the law of nations; and, as such, may be consulted by every person who cares for the rights of his nation, on the seas, or on land, either in times of peace or war. The work is extended through some 790 pages, and brings down the law of nations to our own times. We hope that the learned author will abridge the work into a reasonable compass, so that it may be used, to advantage, as a text book, in our law schools, and universities. The introduction to the work, consists of 67 pages, and notes, and begins with the international law of the ancient states of Greece and Italy; it also treats of the influence of the Roman law, in forming the modern law of nations, and many other subjects, too numerous for us to recapitulate—while the general authors, mentioned therein, are recommended to us, with a biographical history of each, besides an ample reference to the despatches, negotiations, treaties, and official communications, of diplomatic agents, of the European and American nations, from the earliest times to the present day. Indeed, Mr. Wheaton appears to have consulted the diplomatic codes of all nations, and drawn from them the principles which illustrate the law of nations, at the present time; nor have the judicial decisions of our own country been overlooked, or those of England; and he has done his duty, faithfully, to the work, by reference to reports and decisions, on questions of international law, which have often been adjudicated, in the tribunals of different European countries. The work, as a literary production, is respectable, and will meet the requirements of the public in this respect, though we noticed an inaccuracy of sentiment, in the introduction, like the following:—

“The laws and customs, by which the mutual intercourse of Europe, and of European nations, was regulated, previous to the introduction of Christianity, were founded on the prejudices which regarded the different races of men as natural enemies.”

We are far from believing, or acknowledging, that the inhabitants of Europe were originally made up of different races. Indeed, the more we investigate this subject, the better satisfied we are, that God has made, of one blood, all the nations of the earth; they have all, essentially, the same elements to compose their language, the same principles and customs, on which to found their laws, and when they shall have been educated and enlightened, by religion, and a just system of municipal, and international law, peace shall reign triumphant throughout the world, and all will be of one mind, to the praise of their Creator.

ART. V.—RECIPROCITY TREATIES AND COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE
WITH BRITISH COLONIES.

THE only great department of the industry of the country, which is not at present in a flourishing state, is the shipping interest. It is not attended with loss, but it is by no means prosecuted with the success which for many years has attended it. It is highly important, that the mercantile class should at once make an effort to restore the navigation of the United States, to the position it occupied a few years since. A joint effort, from those interested in the shipping interest, in various parts of the country, to change the measures of the federal government in relation to it, would undoubtedly produce a favorable effect. All parties at

Washington appear to entertain the conviction, that the reciprocal treaties, and the convention with Great Britain in relation to her West India colonies, are adverse to American navigation. Then, why not legislate and restore the former state of our commercial relations? Mr. Webster, when Secretary of State, expressed the opinion that they operated unfavorably to American interests. Mr. Upshur expressed the same opinion in his report to the Senate of the United States, in 1843. During the session of Congress, in 1842, the committee of commerce, of which J. P. Kennedy was chairman, made a voluminous report upon these subjects. The committee reported bills requesting the president to give notice to Denmark, Sweden, the Hansiatic republic, Prussia, Austria, and Russia, that the reciprocal treaties would terminate in one year; also to request the president to give notice to the British government that the convention for trade with the British colonies would cease in one year. The committee also reported bills for placing the commerce, with these nations, upon a just and equal footing; but they were not passed, owing to the great excitement existing at the time.

We propose, therefore, with a view to bring the subject before the mercantile community, to give some of the remarks of Mr. Webster, Mr. Upshur, the committee of commerce of the House of Representatives, and some of the statements of the increase of foreign tonnage in comparison with our own. By these statements it will appear that the British tonnage has increased under this convention; for trade with the British colonies from 3,002 tons, in 1832, to 387,947 tons, in 1840; that instead of having a greater part of the tonnage with nations under reciprocal treaties, it is reversed, and instead of two-thirds, we have only one-third. The whole foreign tonnage is increased, from 133,436 tons, in 1830, to 741,632 tons, in 1840. Can we be surprised that freights are low, when foreign tonnage has increased 500 per cent in ten years? Mr. Webster expresses himself in his speech at Baltimore as follows:—

“I do, gentlemen, entertain the strongest belief that the principle of reciprocity, acted upon by the government, is wrong, a mistake from the beginning, and injurious to the great interests of the country. What is it?”

“By every reciprocity treaty, we agree to give to every nation, with which it is concluded, a right to trade between us and other nations on the same terms as we trade ourselves, is to give to the Hanse towns, and the other states of the same class, the right to fetch and carry between us and all the nations of the world on the same terms as we do, and practically they can do it much more profitably.

“In my opinion, the true principle, the philosophy of politics on the subject, is exhibited in the old navigation law of England, introduced by some of the odd geniuses of Cromwell’s time, and acted upon ever since.

“The principle is this, the rule is this, any nation may bring commodities to her in her own vessels, and carry our corn to her ports—we having the like privilege—but no nation shall bring the products of a third nation, or carry between us and that nation. It has been said, by a very distinguished person, and now living, that the rule of the navigation law had its foundation in this idea, England sought in her arrangements to secure as much of the carrying trade of the world as she could, and what she could not get herself, she sought to divide among other nations.

“In one sense, this is, doubtless, a selfish policy, so far as it indicates a disposition to obtain all she could, but this is not an extraordinary selfishness; in other respects the operation is most just, the wisest and most beneficial that could be desired. We may test this in a variety of ways. It does tend, to a certain extent, to increase the means of that state which has the greatest mercantile marine, and can afford to sell cheapest; but, at the same time, it does give to all

others the advantage of carrying their own goods. Suppose England can carry cheaper than any other nation in the world, and suppose all the nations of the world should adopt free trade principles, and open their ports to all that chose to enter; at once the great nation that could carry cheapest would go, step by step, till presently she monopolized the whole carrying trade of the world. Does not every one see that such a state must become master of the whole world? or, suppose there were two great nations, like Great Britain and the United States, found to be the cheapest carriers?

"We ought to give to every nation the right of bringing her cargo here in her ships, if she gives the like privilege; but by the reciprocity treaties, to give, for the carrying of a nation like Bremen, which has but one port, all the ports along a coast of 1,500 miles, with 17,000,000 of people, when she has scarcely 200,000 of her own—pray, what sort of reciprocity is this? It is very much like the horse and the cock who were walking together. The cock thought to make a reciprocal treaty with the horse—I will not tread on you, if you will not tread on me."

"Heretofore, in Baltimore we all know, before 1827, the trade was carried on in American vessels, with the Hanse towns, and sustained about eighty vessels regularly, mainly to Bremen and Hamburg. In 1827 a new treaty was formed with the Hanseatic republic, and by the first article of that treaty, it was agreed upon, that articles might be imported into the United States, from any part of the world, in a vessel of the Hanseatic powers, and it was further agreed that any vessel might be regarded a vessel of one or the other of the Hanseatic republics, which was owned by citizens of those republics. Our government, when it entered into that stipulation, should have been more cautious, as it had the example of England in making a treaty with the same republic in 1825, stipulated that no vessels should pass as Hanseatic which were not built in that republic; a very important consideration, at that time, for none of the republics were engaged in ship building, though since that time they have built many good vessels.

"And what was the practical result of this act of liberality? I have said before that previous to 1827 the number of American vessels engaged in trade with the republics in Baltimore was eighty during the year. It fell in a few years to twenty-five, and in regard to the tonnage of the two countries from 1831 to 1836, three-sevenths of it was in American vessels, and four-sevenths in Bremen vessels. In 1844 there entered from the Hanse towns 136 foreign vessels, and 44 American vessels."

Mr. Upshur, Secretary of State, in Nov. 24, 1843, made a report to the Senate of the United States upon this subject. He says:—

"The condition of our navigation and shipping interests demands at this time particular attention from government. The great and constantly increasing amount of foreign shipping, in our ports, shows the necessity of prompt legislation, for the protection and enlargement of our commercial marine. There is reason to apprehend that, if the best advisable measures be not presently taken, American commerce will be soon engrossed by the ships and seamen of Europe. There can be no doubt that the course of this great evil is to be found in the stipulations of our commercial treaties, which place the shipping of foreign nations on an equality with that of the United States, in the indirect trade, as well as direct trade."

This necessity operates to the advantage of those nations which build and navigate their vessels at the least cost.

"It is well known that most of the nations with which we have concluded such treaties, especially those of the north of Europe, have a decided advantage over us in these particulars: nearly all the materials of ship building are much more costly in the United States; the wages we pay our seamen are nearly double; and the general scale of living, on ship-board, is much better, and consequently much more expensive. The consequence of all this is, that our ship-owners, before they can find employment for their vessels, are obliged to wait in their ports until the Swedish, Danish, and Hanseatic, has taken off as much

freight as it can carry; yet we persuade ourselves that our treaties with all three powers have placed our commerce upon a footing of reciprocity.

"The remedy is, consequently, in our own hands, and we have only to retrace our steps, and make known the determination of this government to regulate foreign trade, in future, upon such principles of reciprocity as shall not extend beyond direct importation trade, in the produce and manufactures of the contracting parties."

The committee of commerce in the House of Representatives made a report, in which it was stated that the British tonnage, under the convention of the free trade with the British colonies, had risen from 4,002 tons, in 1830, 387,947 tons, in 1840.

"From these facts the committee feel justified in assuming the position that, in order to establish a just and actual reciprocity in the employment of the navigation of the two countries, throwing out of view any question relating to reciprocity in trade with Great Britain, in regard to which the most striking and oppressive inequalities exist, as we have already stated, it is essential—1st. That all the ports of the British colonies should be open to the admission of American vessels, on the same terms that British vessels are admitted into our ports; and, 2d. That American vessels shall have the privilege of conveying freely from the British colonies to the mother country, to all other British colonies, and to all foreign countries, all commodities of the same class or description as those which are ordinarily imported by the British colonies from the United States, on the same terms as British vessels carry them.

"These conditions are no more than are now substantially permitted by our law to British vessels; and it is quite obvious to your committee, that there can be no fair reciprocation without the allowance of them to our trade. The arrangement for such a privilege might easily be made by the designation of a list of articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, usually imported into Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and other British provinces, which list should form the staple of a carrying trade, open to vessels of the United States."

From the statements which have been made, and from the opinions expressed by two Secretaries of State, and the committee of commerce of the House of Representatives, it is evident that the subject was fully understood at Washington. All that is now required, is a general and great effort of the large body of merchants to annul the reciprocal treaties and the colonial convention with Great Britain, by which our navigation has suffered so severely.

After the forcible and eloquent extracts from the public documents upon the subject, it is unnecessary for the writer to enlarge upon the subject. The only defence of the convention for trade with the British colonies, which we know, was made by Mr. Woodbury, in the Senate of the United States. As he was in the cabinet at the time it was made, it was in a great degree the justification of his own political course. His principal argument was, that the custom-house returns, at Eastport, exhibited a fallacious view of the increase of foreign tonnage, from the frequent returns of British vessels, and the shortness of the voyages. This effects the general result in a limited manner, as the great increase of British tonnage has been at southern ports, principally at New Orleans. This has arisen from the great advantage which British vessels possess in making what is called a triangular voyage. They leave England with cargoes suited to the markets in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, or the West India colonies, which, if the markets at those points are not favorable, are brought to the United States. In this respect they have a decided ad-

vantage over American ships, of which the great increase of British ships, at the southern ports, particularly New Orleans, is the result. By the latest accounts from Savannah, a place of limited trade, there were 20 foreign ships waiting for cargoes; at New Orleans, there were 50 Bremen and British ships of the largest class, about one-third of the tonnage in port. This is evidently an increase upon the custom-house returns in 1840.

With the general reduction of the British tariff last year, the duties were reduced in the colonies; but the discrimination is still sufficient to give them the carrying trade: they have lowered the duties, but their own ships still have the advantage. It is this uniform and constant regard to the protection of her navigation, which has advanced England to a commercial prosperity beyond any nation of ancient or modern times.

The great increase of our productions, particularly of cotton, has diminished the effect of these treaties, and the convention for trade with the British colonies. The navigation of the United States would have been in a very depressed and embarrassed situation, if the production of cotton had not reached a point beyond all rational calculation. This, however, is temporary, and cannot continue. In the meantime, every year increases foreign tonnage in comparison with our own. It only remains for the mercantile community to make a direct and earnest appeal to Congress, to protect, by just and equal legislation, the great commercial marine of the country from embarrassment and ruin.

ART. VI.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

JACOB LEISLER, THE NEW YORK MERCHANT.

AN amazed back-woodsman, who had come to witness the wonders of New York, with its immense and never-ceasing improvements, remarked: "New York will be a fine city when it is done." The whimsical idea might apply with an equal degree of precision to society. Ever since the day when Lot entreated for Sodom, men have talked of the principles of conservation, and of the possibility of perfection; and yet the experience of every period finds society still in that most uncomfortable state of transition. The heterogeneous materials commingle and separate—seem even on the point of crystallization, when suddenly the infusion of some new element drives the whole mass asunder.

The period marked by the career of Jacob Leisler, the "martyr merchant of New York," was one of peculiar confusion and uncertainty. The minds of men were turbulent with wild adventures, and a restless speculation upon the principles of religion and legislation, while as yet opinions were crude and fluctuating.

They had but recently broken away the encrustings of long established forms in religion; the turmoil of political revolution had scarcely subsided in the English mind, while the germ of republicanism, not dead, was but laid aside to await elsewhere a sober and more healthful vitality. The supporters of protestantism beheld everywhere the stirring of popery, and (not without cause) dreaded the operations of plot and intrigue, that might, at some time, plunge both people and government into violence and bloodshed.

The middling classes of society, amongst whom were to be found the staunch advocates for free institutions, were ever on the alert for opportunities to advance their favorite views. Added to this, the laws of maritime and national intercourse were but imperfectly comprehended, and acts, which now would be considered violations of neutrality and national honor, were too frequently to be the subject of comment, at a time when the tendency of all nautical enterprise was to merge itself in the lawless career of the freebooter.

In proof of these things, we have only to consider the manner in which Charles II. coolly appropriates to the English crown the territory of a people amongst whom he had sought shelter in his days of exile and misfortune, granting to his papist brother, the Duke of York, the title to a colony owned and sustained by an independent government, and this in requirure for the hospitality with which he had been entertained by that very people.

There is something really affecting in the letters of the gallant Stuyvesant, at this gloomy period of the New York colonial history; when disheartened by the insufficiency of his means of defence, and the inertness of the people, he was compelled to yield to superior force, and see the province so dear to his heart pass into the hands of a foreign power. His hearty and indignant remonstrance at this unjust usurpation, is expressed with the earnest faith of a man not blind to national justice, and who cannot believe that such flagrant outrage will be tolerated.

But it is vain to dwell upon this part of our history, however dear to a generous mind, since the pen of the wit has determined that it ought of right to be ridiculous; and though we may recoil at the bad taste of a laugh at the expense of sturdy patriotism, the general voice is against us, and we will leave the affecting picture of a scanty population with its poor resources, and brave, true-hearted defenders, without means, and doomed to an ignoble surrender of their rights to those who, better than ourselves, conceive the whole affair to be exquisitely funny.

But the times were times of usurpation—of stirring questionings in men's minds, which as yet returned no response; and they, in the hurry of action, failed to perceive that the oracle was mute.

The colony of New Amsterdam is thus an appendage of the British crown: it is first lawlessly seized upon, and then, by a treaty of peace, in 1667, is formally bartered away—Surinam for New Netherlands, which becomes New York, in honor of the king's brother. Like most of the other colonies of the time, it is regarded more as a trading station, a commercial experiment, than as the foundation of a province hereafter to be the source of a national pride. It was here that men, troublesome to the country abroad, might be sent, and made innocuous, at least to their commissioners. Here the broken-down courtiers of the times, disaffected papists, and adventurers of every kind, found an asylum in the administration of the colony.

In order to judge correctly of the circumstances in the career of Leisler, we must keep these things steadily in view. We must picture to ourselves, not a great and prosperous country, well protected by the powerful government, amenable to just laws, and the people bound to each other by similar views and interests, speaking the same language, and swayed by the same religious faith, but as a station for trade, with but a handful of occupants scattered over an immense tract of country, the gov-

ernment consigned to incompetent hands, while the king is too busy with the disturbances and wars of Europe to attend much to what is going on in America, and the jealousies of protestants and papists, the dissimilar views of French, German, and English residents, create continued distrust and uneasiness.

We must picture to ourselves the rivalries of conflicting interests, the rich landed proprietors opposed by the enterprising merchant, with his expansive views and limited means of operation; when the whole carrying trade of the province was carried on through fifteen vessels of a hundred tons each, and but six of these belonged to the colony. Compare this with the shipping of New York now, when her sails whiten every sea.

Added to these disheartenments to the country, all the fluctuations of European policy found, in some shape or other, a reflex here. The colony, thus unjustly usurped, bartered for Surinam, and neglected, and struggling, is yet often uninformed as to what is going on abroad, till some blow is struck upon itself; and it was actually re-captured by the Dutch, in 1665, who held possession of the country six months, when the English took the ball once more into their own hands.

The people had no test, no shibboleth, by which a right to their immunities should be judged. They did not come hither to found a sect, but to establish a hearth-stone, and they had, therefore, no such plea as the Puritan fathers assumed when they expelled from amongst them all whom they found obnoxious to their views.

Incongruous as were the materials constituting the mass of society here, there did still grow up amongst them a class of men who identified themselves with the soil, who had the public interest at heart, sturdy, honest thinkers, who looked upon this land as their rightful heritage, to be cared for, and to be bequeathed to their children. Amid such as these, grew up Jacob Leisler, a thrifty merchant, following his vocation, nor intermeddling much with public affairs, till the people—the people of the soil began to feel the need of a leader. Then it was that, with one voice, they turned simultaneously to one who was of themselves, and would have their interest at heart. It was an instinctive expression of patriotism, thus early exhibited, notwithstanding the unpromising soil in which it had taken root.

“*Magna est veritas et prevalebit,*” however true in the abstract, will hardly apply to individual experience; hence it is that party interest, the prejudices of rank and religion, and the dull mantle of time, which covers what it cannot repair, have all conspired to place the character of Leisler in a false light upon the page of history.

It will be seen that he was a man of the soil; unlettered, but intelligent, and of a clear, manly understanding, although tinged with the credulity of the age, and the strong prejudices against popery. A man who obtained wealth by hardy enterprise; and influence, not by the arts of the demagogue, but by the practice of benevolence, courage, and integrity, and those social virtues that always commend themselves to the generous heart. A man whose sturdy republicanism made him peculiarly obnoxious to the rich landed proprietors, who had ruled the province previous to the possession of the English, such as the Livingstons, the Philipses, Schuylers, and Rensselaers.

It may easily be conceived how such a man, however well-meaning and patriotic he might be, unsustained, except by the voice of popular favor, unaccustomed to authority, governed by a few easily comprehended principles of action, which he supposed to be as obvious to the minds of others as they were to his own, and as equally binding; namely, loyalty to his prince and integrity to his country—it will be perceived how such a man might become entangled in the snares of the designing, and at length fall a victim to their malice.

This portion of the actual history of New York is so often passed over as the mere accident of a popular out-break, or an ebullition of individual ambition, that it is next to impossible to reach the truth as it really existed. Few are willing to perceive the indications of free principles amongst a people who thus chose their ruler by acclamation, and few are willing to see in Leisler himself the single-minded patriot he really was.

Immediately upon the abdication of James, rumors were afloat that an armed force would appear to hold the colony in behalf of the ex-monarch, and hence arose the cry of popery. The French were inciting the savages to acts of violence, while they were already tampering with our frontier; the old, rich landholders were supposed to be on the alert to recover the power they had lost; pirates were upon the coast, and the whole colony seemed ready to be plunged into violence and disorder. It was at this crisis that the people turned their eyes upon Leisler. In the animated language of the biographer: "They would seize upon the fort, they would place their most valued citizen, the oldest captain of their train-bands at their heads, and he should lead them on to the citadel. 'Tot Leisler! tot Leisler! tot het huys von Leisler!' To Leisler! to the house of Leisler! was the cry; and, clashing their arms as they rushed through the streets, the thronged multitude were soon pressing around the house of the merchant. The door was thrown open, and the light from within fell first upon the features of a few grave citizens, who, surrounded by the rabble, stood there cap in hand to address him. But even as he uttered his refusal to share in a movement so tumultuous, the tramp of the free companies, who marched in the rear of the multitude, was heard approaching, and, silent as was their tread, the gleam of corslet and harquebuss gave a sterner animation to the scene. Leisler withdrew to arm himself, and within the hour received the keys of the fort, of which his townsmen had meanwhile taken possession."

The first act of the "loyal and noble Captain Leisler," (as he is styled by the New England deputation in their congratulatory address,) was to proclaim the Prince of Orange King by the sound of the trumpet, thus forestalling the tardy and scheming men, who hesitated while the power was in their hands to perform this act of loyalty.

The next act of Leisler was to write a private letter to the king with his own hand, giving an account of everything that had been done, describing the present state of affairs and the future prospects of the colony, stating the repairs he had deemed necessary to commence in the fortification of the city, and detailing the consequent expenditures of the public money. Among other things, he told the king that (foreseeing the war with France) that must ensue from William's accession to the throne of England, he had, for the protection of the harbor against the enemy's cruisers, erected a new battery of six guns to the south of the fort. And

thus the noble promenade, still called the Battery of New York, incidentally owes its existence to the merchant Leisler.

This letter of Leisler, by those who delight to denounce him as an usurper, has been sneered at for some defects in its English phraseology. The manly openness, the business-like directness, and truthful accountability of the writer are wholly overlooked; his Dutch honesty is forgotten in his Dutch idioms.

It is curious, amid the excitements of those troublesome times, to trace everywhere the fidelity of the five nations to the people of the province, while the marchings and countermarchings of Schuyler, and his trusty Mohawks, would afford a harvest for the novelist. The generous magnanimity of Leisler, often exercised in behalf of his enemies, might have been worthy of a more chivalric age. The gallant Col. Milburn, too, the son-in-law of Leisler, seemed well to merit the confidence of his leader; while the last words of the unfortunate merchant upon the scaffold fully rebut the scandal of their enemies, that "Leisler was but the tool of Milburn."

"We now behold the province of New York thrown upon her own resources, with a governor, the choice of her own people, at the head of affairs; and Leisler, in the teeth of a virulent opposition, which stopped at nothing to thwart his plans, began to exhibit an energy in the conduct of his administration, which was equally new and startling to those whose ideas of a provincial executive were derived only from the broken-down courtiers, who had hitherto been sent from England to rule over them.

"The French had already made a bold attempt upon Albany. They had penetrated from Canada to the Mohawk, at mid-winter, after nearly a month's march of almost indescribable hardships, through wild and continuous forests, and through mountain defiles, blocked by the snows of a northern winter; they surprised Schenectady, destroyed the fort and soldiery, fired almost every dwelling in the place, and made indiscriminate slaughter of the inhabitants. The whole province was agast with consternation; but the moment it recovered from its bewilderment, they, whose political dissensions were the cause of the frontier being left unguarded, were the first to cry out against Leisler; they charged the blame of that horrid massacre upon the governor, whose rule they had refused to acknowledge, and whose efforts to unite the people against the common foe, they themselves had spared no pains.

"The blow struck at Schenectady was properly regarded by Leisler as only the precursor of some more formidable invasion, the object of which would be to wrest New York from the British crown; an invasion such as that attempted by Frontenac, about two years afterwards, when he poured battalion after battalion, of the veteran troops of Louis XIV., into the western wilds of New York. *The remedy of Leisler was none other than the conquest of Canada itself*—to strike at the root of the mischief, by expelling the French from the continent."

In the meanwhile, an "English stranger" had been appointed governor of the province; but a year elapsed, and he did not make his appearance, nor had Leisler been informed of the fact. Parcels designed for the regulation of public affairs, had been addressed—"To Francis Nicholson, Esq.; or, in his absence, (the ex-governor was in England, plotting against the people's man,) to such as, for the time being, takes care for preserving the peace, and administering the laws"—which was a virtual recognition of Leisler; but his manly letter to the king remained unan-

swered; and it was rumored that the dull monarch was jealous, "that what the governor had done for the province was more for the love of protestantism, than loyalty to himself;" and, therefore, he was silent in his behalf.

It is melancholy to see, at this time, how the net gathers around the brave Leisler—drawn by enemies at home, and foes abroad. Whatever may have been his errors, they now sprung from dilemmas it was impossible for him to escape, with the fearful opposition against him; yet, everywhere, like a silver thread, guiding his steps, we detect a nice adherence to the principles by which he professed to be governed—fidelity to the people, and loyalty to the protestant succession to the crown of England.

At length, the new governor made his appearance; and, notwithstanding the assumptive and insolent manner of this poor degraded official, that might have provoked outrage from a man less true to principle than Leisler, we find him, after a proper and dignified assertion of the requisite preliminaries, resigning his authority into his hands. However the malignity of his enemies may have prompted them to apply abusive epithets upon the man, the straight-forward candor, and open manliness of his language, in the documents possessed at this time, are the best possible refutation.

But all his integrity, and honest public service, were of no avail. The next day beheld him a prisoner, and nine others, charged with high treason.

Would that a veil could be drawn over the closing scene of blood and outrage! What though a tardy prince at length acknowledged the loyal services of his devoted subject, his faithfulness had been already sealed with his blood? Though a parliament subsequently reversed the act of attainder, the injustice had been done, the true heart blighted, and a stain affixed to his memory, which time nor grief cannot wash away. What though public honors were awarded the friend of the people when he was no more, and his lifeless ashes were taken from their dishonored grave, and, amid civil and military honors, carried in triumph through the city he had loved, and amidst the people he had served; yet, what were these things when the noble heart had been wronged and outraged, and the honored head swept to the earth? Alas, for human greatness! if it were not that things like these become the seal affixed by blood to high and holy principle, it were a mockery indeed!

We must give the last scene in the vivid language of Mr. Hoffman. After detailing the means by which the death-warrant was secured, the writer continues:—

"The carouse went on; a cold storm of sleet and rain, such as often makes a May day miserable in our climate, raged without. But though those charged with the fatal missive had slipped away from the revel as quietly as possible, and conveyed it to the sheriff; yet the soldiers of Ingoldsby, who were drawn up to overawe the populace, gave note to them of the dreadful act about to be consummated. They thronged around the place of execution, which, I may remark, was at the lower end of what has since been called the Park, where the spray of the fountain has succeeded the blood-stain of the martyr.

"Leisler and Milburne stood there upon the scaffold together; and there, too, within hearing of their voices, stood more than one of those who had brought them to this pass. The high spirit of Milburn could

hardly brook the presence of men to whom he owed this fate of ignominy; and, turning to one gentleman whom he deemed personally hostile to himself, he exclaimed: 'Robert Livingston, I will implead thee at the bar of heaven for this deed.'

"Leisler, however, seems to have been more moved by the untimely fate of his son-in-law than his own, while utterly indifferent to the gaze of those who stood there as if to triumph over his dying moments. 'Why must you die?' said he to Milburn; 'you have been but as a servant doing my will; and, as a dying man, I declare before God that what I have done was for King William and Queen Mary, the defence of the Protestant religion, and the good of the country.'

"He then submits and prostrates himself in hope before his Redeemer. He doubts not that he has committed errors; some through ignorance; some through jealous fear, that disaffected persons would act against the government; some through misinformation, and misconstruction of people's intentions; and some through rashness of passion. For every offence he asks pardon, first of God, and next of all persons offended. He prays that all malice may be buried in his grave, and forgives the most inveterate of his enemies. He repeats, 'Father, forgive them; they know not what they do;' and, as his last words declares that as to the matter for which he is condemned, his purpose was for the good of his fellow-creatures, according to the best of his understanding and ability which God had given him."

A prayer for the good of the province, and one "for the family to which he *did* belong," concluded the dying devotions of Leisler; and, turning to the sheriff, he exclaimed, "I am ready—I am ready!" At that moment the tempest, which had for a while suspended its fury, burst upon the multitude in redoubled wrath. The sky grew dark, as if scowling upon the expiring agonies of a martyr. Witnesses of the scene, whose written details we are now quoting, tell of the torrents of rain that instantly descended, as if to wash away the blood of the sacrifice. "The faintings and screams of the women," says one writer, "were seen and heard in every direction." "The shrieks of the people were dreadful," says another. "Some were carried away lifeless; and some, rushing forwards, almost ere the life of their beloved ruler was extinct, cut off pieces of his garments, as precious relics; and his hair was divided, out of great veneration, as for a martyr."

And thus perished Jacob Leisler, the most renowned of the early New York merchants; in fact, the earliest founder of its maritime wealth. After public demonstrations of respect and approval, his remains were deposited in the old South Dutch Church. Subsequent to the great fire, in 1835, this burial-ground was broken up, and it would now be impossible to identify his grave; and not so much as a tablet exists, to testify to the virtue and public service of Jacob Leisler.*

* We are indebted to an eloquent and discriminating biography of Jacob Leisler, from the pen of Charles F. Hoffman, for the above abstract of his life; from which work, also, we have largely quoted. (See Sparks's American Biography, 2d series, Vol. 3. Boston: Little & Brown. 1844.)

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

POLICY OF INSURANCE—OWNERS AND UNDERWRITERS.

[We give below an accurate report of the case of *Peters and al., vs. the United States Insurance office*, decided in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, December, 1844. The charge of the Chief Justice, which embraces points of great importance to owners and underwriters, is given at length by G. W. DEHON, Esq.]

John Peters and al., vs. United States Insurance Company. This cause has been submitted to three successive juries who have been unable to agree upon a verdict, and was submitted to a fourth jury on Saturday last, who brought in a verdict for the defendants.

The cause occupied a week in the trial, and has excited great interest, from the extraordinary conflict of evidence which it exhibited, and from its having been so frequently before the Court, and it involved some questions of insurance law of great importance to ship owners and insurers.

The action was brought on the 28th May, 1840, on a policy of insurance made in December, 1833, by which the defendants insured \$8,000 on the bark *Olive*, to Sumatra, from thence to port or ports in Europe, and thence to the United States.

The plaintiffs proved that the barque was newly coppered in November, 1833, with the best of English copper, and went a voyage to the coast of Sumatra, for pepper, and returned in November, 1833. That on her return, the copper was examined as far down as she was left by the tide, at the end of the Arch wharf, in Boston, and her copper appeared to be in good order and condition, and she appeared to need no repairs. That she sailed for Sumatra, on the voyage insured, in December, 1833, and arrived on the coast of Sumatra some time in April, 1834. That during the passage out, and while on the coast, she experienced some very severe weather, but none that occasioned any particular damage. That while on the coast where she lay about four months, she began to leak badly, and that the leak gradually increased. That she left the coast of Sumatra in September, 1834, and sailed for St. Helena, where she remained three or four days; and left there for Gibraltar, where she arrived in January, 1835. That during the voyage to St. Helena, and thence to Gibraltar, she leaked so badly as to keep the crew at the pumps night and day. That on her arrival at Gibraltar, the crew refused to go further until she was repaired. That a survey was then had which reported that her copper was off in several places on her bottom; that it was off both sides of her bow and stern, and that it was worn all along the water line. That the fore foot was broken and wormeaten, the false keel much wormeaten, and damaged in several places, and the stern-post shaken. That the planks at the bows where the copper was off, were much wormeaten, and that the leak appeared to be principally where the planks were eaten by worms; and recommended re-coppering, and other repairs, to the amount of \$6,000, to recover which this action was brought.

Some six years after the surveys were made, the depositions of one of the surveyors and of the consul were taken, and they testified that the damage to the vessel appeared to have been owing to the united effects of hard service and severe weather; and the consul added, striking on the rocks; and the others that she appeared to have been aground, and the surveyor also testified that the copper did not appear to have been originally of the best quality. The captain, in a deposition given about six years after his return, testified that he examined the bottom of the vessel at Gibraltar, and that it looked as if she had been aground; but that no such fact had ever been reported to him, nor had he ever heard that she had struck during the voyage.

The plaintiffs also produced two of the crew who were in the *Olive* on the voyage insured, and also on the previous voyage; who testified that on the first voyage, while on the coast of Sumatra, in a gale of wind, the *Olive* lost her three cables and anchors, but sustained no other damage. That on the second voyage, after laying on the coast about two months, the cables were slipped by order of the second mate, then in command, the master being ashore, to run for safe anchorage in a gale of wind; that soon after the cables were slipped, the vessel struck a reef or sand bar twice, once at the bow, and once at the stern, so as to make her tremble, and shake them from their feet. That the copper on the vessel's bows was in good condition on the coast, and they saw and heard of no defect in it. That she began to leak afterwards, one stating it to be about eight days after, and the other about the last of her being on the coast. That she leaked so badly, the crew at St. Helena refused to do duty, unless the master would obtain extra hands

there, which he consented to do; and that again at Gibraltar they refused to go to sea in the barque, till repaired. On cross-examination, they testified that they had never mentioned to the captain or any other person the circumstances that she struck, until they told Mr. John Peters of it in 1842, and had never been asked concerning it, till he asked them in 1842, if she struck on the voyage.

The plaintiffs also put in an affidavit of Mr. Peters, made in 1842, that the log-book was lost; and further proved that it was usual to send a vessel to the East Indies and Sumatra, two voyages, on the same copper.

The defendants proved by General Tyler, that on the return of the vessel, 6th July, 1834, the protest, surveys, bills of expenses, and log-book, were placed in his hands by the plaintiffs to adjust the loss; that he made a written report that the loss appeared to have arisen from worms, and from the wearing out of the copper; and that there was no evidence of the vessel ever having struck the bottom, in any of the documents submitted, and that in his opinion the insurers were not liable. That this opinion was communicated to both parties, and that it was not then asserted by any one that the vessel had struck anywhere during the voyage. That this opinion was apparently acquiesced in by the plaintiffs; and he heard no more of the claim till the writ was brought, 28th May, 1840. The defendants then produced the second mate, and one of the crew of the barque Olive, on the voyage insured, who testified that the mate was in command of the barque when she slipped her cable on the coast; that they recollected the occasion perfectly, and that they were positive the vessel did not strike a reef or bar, at that, or any other time during the voyage; and that they never heard any intimation of her having struck, till they heard about two years since that two of the crew had so testified. That they knew shortly before the arrival of the barque on the coast, that her copper was off in places on the bows, and that they had seen it when they were out on the bowsprit; and the mate testified he had told the captain of it, and that it was common deck talk that she was running off her copper. The mate also testified that he had charge of the log-book at the time the vessel was said to have struck, but that no such entry had been made therein; and the seamen testified that he had stated these facts before he knew what the other members of the crew had stated to any one. The defendant also proved by several ship-masters and others expert in such matters, that though the ordinary duration of copper was from two to three years, it not unfrequently wore out in from twelve to twenty months; and would then be found in places extremely thin, in other places honey-combed, and in others good. That it generally wore first at the bows and along the water line, but was often found off at the stern when it appeared good amidships. That there was no test by which to discover the quality of copper but by its wear; and that frequently copper from the same lot, and on the same vessel, wore very differently. That they knew of no difference in the wear of American, English, and other foreign copper. That in their opinion the facts set forth in the surveys and captain's deposition, indicated the copper was worn out. The defendants further proved that the false keel and the lower part of the fore-foot which are never coppered, are always wormeaten after a voyage to the coast of Sumatra; and that in that condition, if the vessel when loaded, rested on any hard substance, she would very likely damage her false keel, and the lower part of the fore-foot. And that it was not uncommon to see those parts bruised and broken, where they were wormeaten. Defendants proved further that this vessel brought in a load of pepper to Arch wharf in November, 1833, from her first voyage, and there drew from 15 to 16 feet of water; that when unloaded she drew 12 feet; and that the depth of water, at Arch wharf, at low water, was only 10 to 11 feet, and that the bottom is what is called a "hard bottom."

Chief Justice Shaw charged the jury that the case before them was one of great interest, that there had been several trials at great expense to parties, and it was of great importance that a verdict should be obtained. That the contract on which the claim was made, was one extremely beneficial, if not essential, to the commercial world.

That it was important that the law should be administered in reference to it, in accordance with well settled rules.

That the insurers were not bound for all losses, and to make good all repairs; otherwise, sooner or later, they must pay for every vessel; and in consequence, either the business of insurance would be destroyed, or the premium would be so enhanced, that merchants could not avail themselves of insurance.

That the insurers undertake to insure only against dangers out of the common and ordinary course; not for such as occur by ordinary wear and tear, or which can be foreseen and provided against. That the owner was bound to have his ship sea-worthy; equipped in all respects suitably for the voyage, before the insurers became liable at all under their policy. That this obligation on the part of owners extended to the whole voyage; so that the vessel must be fitted at the outset, in a manner to endure the service of the entire voyage, proportioned to its length, and the nature of the maritime enterprise on which the

vessel is employed. That if a ship is to be sent into a sea which worms are known to infest, she must be not only apparently, but actually protected against them, in a manner to preserve her from their ravages during the whole time she is exposed to them; and that if she be not so protected, whether the owner knew it or not, insurers are not liable if loss ensues in consequence. That a loss occasioned by worms ordinarily is not a peril of the sea, within the meaning of the policy, but is an ordinary, common, foreseen and certain danger, against which the owner is bound to provide, and is in the nature of wear and tear.

That the protection against worms by copper or other means, is a condition to be performed by the owner; and if he does not perform it, then the contract of the insurer is void; just as if such a condition had been inserted in terms in the policy; and the premium, if paid, may be recovered back by the owner.

That a vessel might be seaworthy for a short summer voyage with less equipment than for a long and wintry voyage; that it therefore depended much on the duration and nature of the maritime enterprise, whether a vessel was seaworthy.

The question in this case is whether the examination and repairs at Gibraltar were rendered necessary by an extraordinary peril incurred on the voyage insured. Both parties admit that the great cause of the leak was worms, and that independently of that there would not have been occasion for the examination and repairs at Gibraltar. But plaintiffs say that though the cause of the leak was worms, yet that the copper came off in consequence of her striking, and thereby the worms gained access. Now, in regard to this, if the jury are of opinion that the copper was removed by striking on this voyage, and the worms got in before the loss of copper could be discovered and repaired, then the striking would be the actual and immediate cause of the loss, and the insurers would be liable.

But if the jury are of opinion that the striking did not occur on this voyage, or if it did, that the copper was not removed thereby, but that it came off from decay, and the worms thereby got in, then the insurers are not liable; for the worms would be the proximate cause of the loss, and for losses by worms, in such case, the insurers are not liable.

The presumption of law is that if on examination at the outset of the voyage, the vessel appears in good condition as to copper and otherwise, she was seaworthy. This presumption, however, is slight, and may be rebutted by any evidence, to show she was not in such condition.

If a vessel sail apparently in good order, and is never heard from, the circumstance is so out of the common course of things, that she is presumed to have perished by peril of the sea. But if she be lost and the crew be saved, then no such presumption arises, because the captain and crew must be able to state facts enough to enable a jury to determine whether the ships were lost by peril of the sea or in consequence of want of seaworthiness. And in this case the rule claimed by the plaintiffs, and usually applied to a missing vessel, does not apply; they are bound to satisfy you reasonably that the loss of copper and leak were caused by a sea peril incurred on the voyage insured; and if defendants have put in evidence tending to show that there was no such peril incurred, adequate to cause the loss, then it is for the jury to say on the whole evidence whether the loss did arise from a peril insured against and on this voyage or not.

The great questions then are—1st, whether the copper was sufficient for the second voyage; or 2d, whether the vessel struck, and if so, in a manner to remove the copper in season to let in the worms, so as to produce the leak testified to.

As to the first question, the jury have the testimony of persons of skill and experience in the manufacture, use, and wear of copper, who have given much valuable information on this subject.

Copper is proved to be of very uncertain duration, and portions from the same lot sometimes wear very differently. It is proved generally to wear first at the bows and along the water line; that on the stern is less exposed to wear, but is not necessarily found on there, if off at the bows, as the witnesses state that it is put on thinner there to equalize the wear. Defendant's evidence, on this matter, could come only from experts, and they have produced experienced and skilful persons, entitled to confidence from their knowledge and experience on these subjects—and it is for the jury to weigh this evidence. If the copper was off in several places on the bottom and on the water line, and the stern and bow, the natural presumption would seem to be that it came off by wear and decay; and so if it came off early in the second voyage.

In this connection, the time the leak commenced is important, because the copper in part must have come off before the worms could get in; they must have some time to work to make her leak badly.

The evidence on this point is conflicting. Two witnesses swear the copper was off the bows shortly before she reached the coast, and that they told of it; and two, that they never saw or heard of it. The jury will judge which of the four are to be believed. The

jury will consider their manner of testifying, and which best conforms to the other facts proved, the previous wear of the copper and its appearance and condition at Gibraltar ; and decide upon the whole evidence in reference to the copper.

The other question is whether she struck ; and if so, whether in such a manner, and at such time as to remove the copper in season for worms to get in. Two witnesses swear she did strike, and two that she did not, with apparently equal opportunity for observation.

The captain says he did not know it, and that he never heard of it, and it is alleged to have occurred in his absence. The log is not produced, but defendants produce the mate, who kept it, and he says no such thing occurred or was recorded. The protest is usually made up from the log, and no such fact is mentioned in the protest at Gibraltar, or in the surveys. Here, too, the jury will compare the witnesses. The time of the leak, if it could be fixed, might go far in effect to settle the question.

The witnesses differ. The captain fixes the leak about two months after being on the coast, and so does another of plaintiffs' witnesses. The third fixes it at the last part of the time. The defendants' witnesses say it was about three weeks before leaving the coast of Sumatra, and tell to what places the vessel subsequently went.

If this fact of the time of the leak is fixed by any other circumstances, you will then be able to judge whether they confirm or contradict the witnesses of defendants or the plaintiffs, and which of them coincide with the general tenor of the testimony in the cause. And you can then judge what caused the removal of the copper, and whether the worms got in, in consequence of its being taken off by striking or wearing out.

The burthen of proof on the whole evidence is on the plaintiffs to prove the copper was removed by peril of the sea, and if not reasonably satisfied on the weight of the evidence that it was so removed, you must find in that particular a verdict for defendants.

If the vessel leaked considerably shortly before leaving the coast, and it takes any time for worms to eat in so as to make a vessel leak badly, then the striking, if it occurred, would not account for the leak ; and if she struck so as to injure only the fore-foot and false keel, without causing the removal of the copper elsewhere, as some witnesses say it would not, so as to let in the worms, then it would not account for the leak.

Some of the witnesses say the bottom looked as if she had struck ; others that it looked as if she had touched or been aground ; and defendants do not deny she had been aground, but contend it was when loaded at the end of Arch wharf, which they say would break and damage a false keel and the lower part of the fore-foot, when wormeaten, as it is testified these must have been on the first voyage, those parts never being copped.

The question for the jury is, whether the appearances she presented, would be caused by striking a reef or bar, or by settling down on a bottom. Shortly before sailing on this second voyage, she drew 14 to 16 feet of water, and the depth of water was 11 to 12 where she lay loaded, so that she might ground on the bottom. The jury are to judge whether this would produce the appearances exhibited at Gibraltar, or whether, taking all the evidence together, they conclude it must have been caused by striking.

The questions are peculiarly questions of fact for the jury, and they are to judge upon the whole evidence, recollecting that the plaintiffs are bound to prove to the reasonable satisfaction of the jury, that the injury was the direct consequence of perils incurred on the voyage insured. And all material facts on which the plaintiffs rely, and from which inferences are to be drawn to make out their case, must be proved to the reasonable satisfaction of the jury.

PROMISSORY NOTES—INSOLVENT LAW OF MASSACHUSETTS.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, an action brought by Inglis & Scott, merchants of New York, *vs.* Baker, of Boston, to recover the amount of three promissory notes. The defence was a discharge under the insolvent law of Massachusetts. The plaintiffs contended as matter of law, that these notes were not released by that discharge, on the ground that such a discharge cannot affect contracts made with the residents of other states ; and evidence was offered to show, that the firm of Inglis & Scott, of New York, was composed of William Inglis and D. G. Scott, neither of whom ever resided in Massachusetts. The defendant then offered evidence to show, that the goods for which these notes were given, were purchased of a house in Boston, doing business under the style of Inglis & Scott, and that John Inglis, then of Boston, was a member of the firm, and carried on the business. The legal point was reserved. The only question left the jury was, whether John Inglis was a member of the Boston firm of Inglis & Scott, or whether that firm was a branch of the New York firm of the same name, and carried on by John Inglis as the agent of the New York house. The jury were instructed that if they believed that John Inglis was a member of the Boston firm, and resided here, then the notes being given to that firm for goods purchased of them, the verdict ought to be for the defendant. The jury returned a verdict for the defendant.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

MONEY AND OTHER MARKETS—EXPORT OF COTTON GOODS FROM GREAT BRITAIN, AND AVERAGE PRICE OF CLOTH, YARN, AND COTTON WOOL—LOANS AND SPECIE OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS—DEBTS OF THE STATES, THEIR REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, ETC., 1844—PUBLIC DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA—FINANCES OF ILLINOIS, INDIANA, ETC.—PRICES OF STOCKS IN NEW YORK, 1844.

The markets have presented very little actual change during the month, although there is every appearance that the stringency which the money market has evinced for some months, will now be relaxed, and the rate of discount become less. The operation of the government funds, in being withdrawn from the market, has ceased to affect the discounts of the banks unfavorably; and the state of affairs in Europe, by the last advices, is such as to warrant the belief that prices of the raw materials, especially cotton, are once more in the ascendant; and that, while the imports into this country are likely to be less, the enhanced value of our exports will probably exceed that of last year. The price of cotton, in England, has undoubtedly seen its lowest point; and, at our latest dates, had already considerably advanced in prices. During the past six months of the cotton year, it has been undoubtedly true that cotton has ruled at rates so low, as to yield no profit to the planters. This fact, alone, (so important an item in our general trade, internal and external, is cotton,) is sufficient to produce that derangement which the present state of business presents, and which will be remedied by the progressive advance of cotton. The export cotton trade of England is larger and more profitable than it has been for years previously—that is to say, greater money-values have been exported in former years, but the quantity of cotton now worked up is greater than ever before, and at a larger margin of profit to the manufacturers, notwithstanding that the money-value of goods is less than in some former years. This arises from the fact that the raw material, and cost of production, is lower than ever; while the price of goods has advanced from the low point of depression to which they reached last summer. The following shows the value of cotton goods exported from Great Britain, with the average price of cloth, yarn, and upland fair cotton, in each year:—

EXPORT COTTON GOODS, AND PRICE OF 40 IN POWER LOOM CLOTH, WATER TWIST, AND UPLAND FAIR COTTON, IN LIVERPOOL.

Years.	Cotton Goods. £	Yarn. £	Total. £	L'm cl'ths, 40 Water		Cotton. d.
				66 reed. s. d.	Twist. d.	
1836.....	18,511,692	6,120,366	24,632,058	16 9	16½	10¾
1837.....	13,640,188	6,955,942	20,596,140	14 0	12½	6½
1838.....	16,715,857	7,431,869	24,147,726	13 6	11¾	6½
1839.....	17,692,182	6,858,193	24,561,375	12 10	12	8
1840.....	17,567,310	7,101,308	24,668,618	11 8	10¾	5½
1841.....	16,232,510	7,266,968	23,499,478	10 3	10¾	6¼
1842.....	13,910,084	7,752,670	21,662,754	9 1	9½	5¾
1843.....	16,248,759	7,191,870	23,440,629	8 10½	8½	4¾
1844, 10 mo.,	15,930,072	6,157,439	22,087,511	9 5½	9	4¾

It will be observed that the exports of 1843 were of a higher value, while the price of goods was less than in the previous year; showing a large excess in the quantities exported. During the past ten months, the exports are still larger, at improved prices. It is also observable that the price of the raw material bears a less proportion to the price of the goods and yarn, than in former years. The year 1838 was one of the most prosperous to manufacturers, because of the low price of cotton, as compared to cloths. During the past year, the same proportionate prices have existed, while a great reduction in the cost of production has been effected. The home trade of England is also rapidly improving, on similar terms. At the same time, the low prices of the raw material having, on

this side, been productive of great derangement, has resulted in efforts to reduce the supply, which cannot but have a beneficial effect upon the prices, even although no positive diminution in the crop should be effected. The mere checking of the increase will be sufficient to advance the rates in the present promising state of the markets.

In the meantime, from causes alluded to in former numbers, the money market of New York is undergoing considerable pressure, consequent upon the difficulty of making collections in the interior, on sales of goods made on credit last year. The import of goods, and the duties, during the past year, have been, monthly, as follows, with the duty:—

MONTHLY IMPORT OF GOODS, AND DUTIES COLLECTED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Dut. Goods.	Free Goods.	Specie.	Total.	Duties.
January,.....	\$6,194,657	\$415,993	\$73,204	\$6,683,854	\$1,852,577
February,.....	6,023,768	548,326	55,417	6,627,511	2,131,926
March,.....	4,641,334	537,883	53,008	5,237,225	1,641,140
April,.....	5,638,873	1,754,237	70,573	7,463,683	1,805,706
May,.....	4,667,950	1,913,774	243,424	6,825,148	1,793,824
June,.....	5,229,941	529,042	64,297	5,823,280	1,882,984
July,.....	7,182,196	666,595	157,121	8,005,912	2,189,428
August,.....	9,970,572	1,187,836	100,388	11,258,796	3,085,352
September,.....	7,227,664	817,108	62,945	8,107,715	2,432,751
October,.....	3,846,889	711,240	55,079	4,613,208	1,260,203
November,.....	1,640,150	345,827	40,300	2,026,277	557,490
December,.....	2,657,274	288,729	130,608	3,076,011	834,445
Total, 1844,.	\$64,921,268	\$9,715,590	\$1,106,364	\$76,748,620	\$21,467,826
Jan., 1845,...	5,581,544	728,618	37,011	6,347,173	1,687,024

These values are, of course, the foreign cost; and the market value is constituted of the cost and charges, and duty added. These are as follows:—

Dutiable goods, cost,.....	\$64,921,268
Free ".....	9,716,588
Total foreign cost,.....	\$74,637,876
Expenses and charges, 10 per cent,.....	7,463,787
Total cost,.....	\$82,101,663
" duties,.....	21,457,830
Total market value of imports,.....	\$103,559,493

A very large portion of this has been cash, paid out of the New York capital employed in commerce—the duties are so, altogether. This large amount could not be sold for cash. On the other hand, full \$30,000,000 has been sold on long credits; and to collect which, great difficulty has been experienced—leaving a greatly reduced amount of capital in the city, and consequently an enhanced demand for discounts, and an improvement in the rate of money. This has been enhanced by the movement of the government deposits, proceeding from the customs. The deposit banks, in the fore part of the year, were enabled to extend their loans to a considerable degree, involving a corresponding contraction when those deposits were withdrawn. The specie in the vaults, and the loans of the New York city banks, have been as follows:—

	SPECIE.			LOANS.		
	Gov. banks.	18 oth. bks.	Tot., 22 bks.	Gov. banks.	18 other bks.	Total.
Jan'y, 1843,	\$2,927,891	\$4,116,114	\$7,044,005	\$9,285,973	\$19,061,758	\$28,347,731
August, "	5,845,515	6,753,666	12,599,181	12,630,123	21,460,076	34,090,219
Nov'r, "	3,563,936	6,580,085	10,144,021	12,313,222	22,041,273	33,454,495
Feb'y, 1844,	3,445,286	5,781,987	9,227,373	13,345,519	25,518,939	38,864,458
May, "	3,335,045	4,923,586	8,258,631	15,018,793	25,020,142	40,038,935
August, "	4,337,634	4,650,858	8,988,492	15,747,228	25,929,123	41,676,351
Nov'r, "	3,493,323	4,383,606	7,876,929	14,863,298	25,156,399	40,019,697
Feb'y, 1845,	1,927,175	3,844,169	5,771,344	11,869,515	25,006,616	36,875,131

During the year ending February, 1845, the eighteen banks have varied their line of discounts to a very small extent, only—the difference is within one million—while the government banks increased their loans \$2,400,000 in the six months ending in August, and contracted them nearly \$4,000,000 in the last six months; adding much to the pressure at a time when, from causes above indicated, private capital had become absorbed to a considerable extent, in selling goods on credit. The low point of the contraction is now, in all probability, reached; and any movement on their part will probably be one of expansion, more especially as restored credit, consequent upon the resumption of their dividends by some of the delinquent states, will probably be followed by increased investment of British capital on this side of the water. The current rate of money, here, being 7 per cent, against 2 per cent in London, money will, like every other commodity, seek the point where it is most valuable.

The month of February, 1845, has been marked by the resumption of her dividends by the great state of Pennsylvania, whose debt is the largest of any of the states of the Union, but whose means of paying are ample. Her failure was owing neither to a want of ability, nor to a want of means to pay. It grew entirely out of a bad financial system, which induced the contraction of large loans for the construction of public works, depending entirely upon the success of those works for the means of paying the interest and principal of the debt. The only safe rule, in making public loans, is to provide means, by taxation, for the payment of the interest, and discharge of the principal, at the time the loan is made. There is then no danger of failure. On the other hand, it has been the case that this necessary rule was always neglected by the delinquent states. They borrowed money to enter into speculations; and, at the moment of distress and chagrin consequent upon the failure of their speculations, they were called upon to submit to taxes for the repayment of money they knew to have been squandered, and from which but little good is to be derived. We believe there is no nation on the earth, except our own, which would have voluntarily paid taxes for such a purpose, under such circumstances. When public works are projected, and money is to be spent, and sanguine hopes are generally entertained that the enterprise will be successful, is the fitting moment to levy the taxes. It has, however, proved to be the case, that, notwithstanding all the blunders and false steps of the several legislatures, the people have at last consented to be taxed, and have paid enough to redeem the honor of Pennsylvania. This movement will be followed by the resumption of several others of the delinquent states. The following is a table of the debts of the states in January, 1845, according to official reports made to the legislatures of this session:—

DEBTS OF THE STATES, WITH THEIR REVENUE, AND EXPENDITURE FOR ORDINARY PURPOSES, FOR 1844.

States.	Direct debt.	Indirect debt.	Total.	Revenue.	Expend.
Louisiana,*.....	\$1,600,000	\$15,350,000	\$16,850,000	\$972,177	\$616,684
Alabama,.....	9,232,555	4,200,000	13,432,555	243,650	120,098
Arkansas,*.....	3,500,000	3,500,000	288,415	163,005
Tennessee,.....	3,260,416	3,260,416	271,823	261,416
Kentucky,.....	4,269,000	150,000	4,419,000	392,422	366,379
Georgia,.....	1,725,138	1,725,138	307,917	295,999
South Carolina,.	3,182,992	3,182,992	306,831	347,704
Missouri,.....	922,261	922,261	217,654	193,307
Illinois,*.....	11,454,669	3,179,200	14,633,869	145,645	190,000
Indiana, *.....	12,218,000	2,227,500	14,445,500	41,000	98,037
Ohio,.....	17,028,683	2,248,069	19,276,751	277,157	194,374
Maryland,*.....	15,094,334	92,401	15,186,785	272,119	490,000
Maine,.....	1,590,921	141,166	1,732,097	368,090	289,087
Massachusetts,...	1,022,339	6,250,000	7,272,339	447,736	462,844
New York,.....	26,348,412	1,920,000	28,268,412	795,051	1,003,753
Pennsylvania,*...	36,250,493	4,453,373	40,703,866	1,167,440	858,315

DEBTS OF THE STATES, WITH THEIR REVENUES, etc.—Continued.

States.	Direct debt.	Indirect debt.	Total.	Revenue.	Expend.
Michigan,.....	\$3,171,392	\$905,785	\$4,077,177	\$405,824	\$455,189
Virginia,.....	5,968,047	1,392,884	7,360,932	810,366	884,293
Mississippi,*.....	2,500,000	6,000,000	7,600,000	150,000	140,000
Florida,*.....	3,900,000	950,000	4,850,000	95,000	100,000
Total,.....	\$164,239,652	\$49,460,378	\$212,700,090	\$7,979,317	\$7,530,484
U. S. Govern't,	19,076,188	19,076,188	30,381,700	32,958,827

This gives the whole present debts of the several states; of which eight, with the territory of Florida making nine, (marked *) have failed, and Pennsylvania has again resumed. The debt of Pennsylvania is composed as follows:—

PUBLIC DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

	Funded.	Relief loan.	Total.
6 per cent stocks,.....	\$4,370,916 21	\$1,175,000 00	\$5,545,916 21
5 “ “	34,721,534 46	171,636 00	34,893,170 46
4½ “ “	200,000 00	91,542 00
	\$39,292,450 67	\$1,438,178 00	\$40,439,086 67
Due domestic creditors,.....		104,384 00	104,384 93
Total debt,.....			\$40,543,471 60
Annual interest payable Bank of Pennsylvania,.....			1,747,030 12
Due in February,.....		\$873,515 06	
“ August,.....		873,515 06	
			1,747,030 12
Interest upon interest certificates,.....			195,761 68
Total annual interest,.....			\$1,942,791 80

In order to show the progress of taxation more particularly, we take the amount levied and collected in each year, the tolls of public works, and the money expended for purposes of education:—

Years.	Levy.	Collected.	Tolls.	Total taxes and tolls.	Education expense.
1841,.....	\$416,794	\$33,292	\$1,079,896	\$1,113,188	\$365,766
1842,.....	659,512	486,635	920,499	1,407,134	315,372
1843,.....	945,000	553,911	1,019,401	1,573,312	408,694
1844,.....	945,000	751,210	1,164,325	1,915,535	290,917

The two mill levy of last year yielded this year 40 per cent more money, under present regulation. Now, by the above table, it appears that the means of the state, applicable to interest, have increased \$615,629 over last year, without any additional taxation.

The late treasurer estimated the means for 1845 as follows:—

Receipts for the year ending Nov. 30, 1845,.....	\$3,005,100 00
Balance Nov. 30, 1844,.....	663,851 88
“ in canal treasury,.....	39,497 00
Total,.....	\$3,708,448 88
Expenditures, including interest,.....	3,061,013 56
Balance, Nov., 1845,.....	\$647,435 32

These means depend upon the vigor with which the taxes are collected under the new law, and no doubt is entertained but that they will be ample—the more so, that the credit of a new administration is now involved in maintaining the payments. The state of Michigan will be the next to resume her payments upon her *acknowledged debt*. This will take place in January, 1846, on the interest accruing for six months, from July, 1845. The acknowledged debt is small, as indicated in the foregoing table; the interest falling

due January, 1846, amounting to \$50,000, but may be raised to \$90,000, including the interest due on the bonds issued to the late United States Bank. To meet these payments, the law of 1843 pledged so much of the proceeds of the Central and Southern railroads, after paying for the iron of the former to Marshall, and of the latter to Hillsdale, as would be necessary. Hence, there is but little doubt but that the payments will be made, the railroad receipts being already sufficient for that purpose.

The affairs of Illinois next present themselves in a favorable train. We have, in former numbers, alluded to the position of the canal law, authorizing the borrowing of \$1,600,000, to complete the great canal, on pledge of that work, and the lands belonging to it. After a long period of delay, the bondholders here, and in Europe, have finally subscribed the whole amount, on condition that the state pays, by a small tax, part of the interest on the whole debt. Simultaneously with this agreement, a bill has been introduced into the Illinois legislature, levying a tax for the payment of 1 per cent on the whole debt, with the exception of the bonds known as the "M'Alister and Stebbins bonds;" the first payment to take place on the 1st July, 1846, and to be continued thereafter. This law is that which is required to perfect the arrangement with the bondholders; and as soon as it is approved, the board of trustees will be appointed—one by the "Boston committee," on behalf of the London creditors; one by the New York creditors, and one by the governor. The prosecution of the canal will then progress. The cost of that magnificent work, when finished, will be as follows:—

Sum actually disbursed,.....	\$5,039,248
Liabilities of the canal,.....	1,063,945
Cost of the canal at this time,.....	\$6,103,193
Sum required to complete it,.....	1,600,000
Cost when complete, under the new law,.....	\$7,703,193

The present debt of the canal is composed as follows:—

Scrip and interest to Dec. 1st, 1844,.....	\$411,046 57
Debt not bearing interest,.....	301,678 70
Ninety day checks,.....	316 00
Due contractors,.....	86,692 37
Damages on private property,.....	23,587 96
Scrip issued by Gov. Ford, in payment of damages to contractors,.....	226,353 72
Interest due upon the same to Nov. 1st, 1844,.....	14,000 00
Total,.....	\$1,063,675 32

The completion of this work will add to the resources of the people of Illinois, while the sale of the lands along its border will more than discharge the debt incurred for its completion, and leave the nett revenues of the noble avenue to discharge the improvement debt, and ultimately relieve the people from taxation.

Indiana, during the past session, has done nothing towards paying her debts. The state is dreadfully embarrassed by the circulation of an unconstitutional state paper, which circulates as money. The quantity of this stuff is as follows:—

	Issued.	Redeemed.	Outstanding Nov. 1, 1844.
Scrip,.....	\$669,980	\$164,530	\$535,450
Treasury notes, 6 per cent.,	1,500,000	872,665	633,755
Bank scrip,.....	722,640	210,730	511,910
Total,.....	\$2,892,620	\$1,247,925	\$1,681,115

While this depreciated paper fills the channels of circulation, and forms the medium in which taxes are paid, no effectual movement can be made towards the payment of the state interest. The creditors have, however, intimated that they would be glad to receive

a payment of even a small part now, as an earnest of paying the whole by and by. This intimation was misrepresented, by a designing agent, to signify that the creditors would consent to take a payment of 3 per cent, in full of 5 per cent due them. The disappointment attending the discovery of this trick, prevented any *bona fide* movement at the present session. There is but little doubt, however, but that, at the next session, a small tax will be laid to commence the payments, and the deficit be funded, bearing interest, up to some future year, when the whole will be resumed. This is the more likely, that there is every probability of a grant of land from Congress, sufficient to complete the White Water canal connection with the Wabash and Erie, forming a noble work, that must, sooner or later, yield a large revenue towards the state expenses.

In Maryland, no effective steps have been taken towards redeeming her honor; but there is every hope that something may be done. In Louisiana, Arkansas, and Florida, the money for which the governments are responsible was borrowed for the purpose of being constituted the capital of banking institutions. These banks were what are called property banks, from the mode of their organization. The bonds of the state were issued to the banks, and the stockholders were required to deposit mortgages of their plantations to double the amount. The bonds were then endorsed by the banks, and sold mostly in London. The proceeds were divided among the stockholders, *pro rata*, as loans, on pledge of the mortgages. The banks then issued circulating bills, and received deposits to make regular discounts. All these institutions failed, of course, and the state governments have done nothing towards the payment of the bonds; which must depend, in a great measure, upon what can be realized from the property held by the banks.

It is, however, very apparent that the period for a return of all these states to their payments is rapidly approaching; and that time will be hastened by the great desire apparent among European capitalists to renew their confidence and investments, whenever they can receive any encouragement to do so. The loan made to the state of Illinois is a remarkable evidence of this, and evinces a great change in public opinion from the fall of 1841, when an agent of the United States federal government in vain sought to borrow a few millions in Europe. That loan was afterwards made at home, and has since been paid, principal and interest. It was not, however, from any supposition that the United States was not good for the loan; but from the idea that the mortification attending such a loss of credit would operate upon the states, and induce payments. It has now become pretty well understood that the want of ability, and of a proper organization of the state finances, is a greater obstacle than any supposed want of will to the payments.

PRICES AND VALUES OF LEADING STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

Annexed, are very accurate tables, in relation to the prices and actual values of the leading stocks sold upon the New York stock exchange. They are compiled and calculated for the Merchants' Magazine, by J. F. Entz, Esq., a gentleman whose statistical works have frequently been before the public, and reflect great credit on his skill and accuracy. His management of the complicated accounts of the New York Life and Trust, since its disasters, has contributed greatly to its rapid recovery, and the resumption of its dividends. The tables embrace the United States, and New York state and city stocks; showing their present value to command 5 per cent interest per annum, and their monthly market prices during the past year. Also, the leading railroad, the bank, and insurance stocks; showing the rate of dividends declared by those companies, and the months in which they are paid.

UNITED STATES, STATE, AND CITY STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks offered at the New York Stock Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

Stocks.	Present value, to realize 5 per cent.	Jan'y.	Feb'y.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	Oct'ber.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
United States Loan, 6, 1862,.....	112.25	*113 $\frac{1}{2}$	115 $\frac{1}{2}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	116 $\frac{1}{2}$	113	*115	115	116	119	116	113 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ “ 5, 1853,.....	100.	*102 $\frac{3}{4}$	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{3}{4}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	*103 $\frac{1}{2}$	103 $\frac{1}{4}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	106	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	103 $\frac{1}{2}$
New York “ 7, 1848,.....	107.47	*107 $\frac{1}{4}$	108	106	*106	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	*108 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	*108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	106
“ “ 7, 1849,.....	109.95	*107 $\frac{1}{4}$	108	106	*107	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	*108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	*109	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$
“ “ 6, 1854,.....	108.40	*105	107	106 $\frac{1}{2}$	*104 $\frac{1}{4}$	109	108	*108 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	*
“ “ 6, 1860,.....	111.86	*106	110	108	*107	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	*109	110	*112	112
“ “ 6, 1862,.....	112.81	*108	119	107	*106 $\frac{1}{2}$	110	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	*110	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	*112 $\frac{1}{2}$	105	101
“ “ 5 $\frac{1}{2}$, 1860,.....	106.14	*103	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	*102 $\frac{1}{2}$	104	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	*.....	*105 $\frac{1}{2}$	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	104
“ “ 5 $\frac{1}{2}$, 1861,.....	106.40	*103 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	*102 $\frac{1}{2}$	104	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	*.....	*106	106	104
“ “ 5 $\frac{1}{2}$, 1865,.....	107.27	*103	104	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	*102 $\frac{1}{2}$	103	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	*.....	*.....
“ “ 5, 1845,.....	100.04	* 99	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	99 $\frac{1}{2}$	* 99 $\frac{1}{4}$	100	100	*101	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	101	*101 $\frac{3}{8}$	102	100
“ “ 5, 1848,.....	100.13	*100	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	*100	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	*.....	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*.....	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	101
“ “ 5, 1850,.....	100.20	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	101	100	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	100	*.....	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*102 $\frac{1}{2}$	104	101
“ “ 5, 1855,.....	100.33	*101 $\frac{1}{4}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	*103	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	*106	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	103
“ “ 5, 1858,.....	100.39	*101 $\frac{1}{4}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	*103	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*105 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	103 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ “ 5, 1860,.....	100.43	*101	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	*101	102	101	*.....	*.....	97 $\frac{1}{2}$	103
“ “ 4 $\frac{1}{2}$, 1849,.....	97.92	*.....	97 $\frac{1}{2}$	* 92	*.....	96	95	*.....	90	98
“ “ 4 $\frac{1}{2}$, 1864,.....	93.91	*.....	*.....	*.....	95	95	*.....	*.....	90
N. Y. City “ 7, 1847,.....	105.71	*102	101	100	*103	103	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	103	*.....
“ “ 7, 1852,.....	113.76	*110	107	108	*109	109	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	*109	108	*109	110.
“ “ 7, 1857,.....	120.15	110	*114 $\frac{1}{2}$	113	110	*112 $\frac{1}{2}$	110	113	*113	114	110	*115
“ Wat. “ 5, 1858,.....	100.39	100	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	98 $\frac{1}{2}$	*100	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*100	101	102	*102	102 $\frac{1}{2}$
“ “ 5, 1860,.....	100.43	99 $\frac{3}{4}$	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	98 $\frac{1}{2}$	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*100 $\frac{3}{4}$	101	101	*101 $\frac{1}{2}$	102
“ “ 5, 1870,.....	100.56	99	*100 $\frac{1}{2}$	99 $\frac{3}{4}$	97 $\frac{1}{2}$	*100	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*100	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*101 $\frac{1}{2}$	102
“ Fire “ 5, 1868,.....	100.54	*100	100	100	*.....	100	*.....	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	*.....

Prices of United States, State, and City Stocks.

N. B.—The first column gives the value of the stock, so as to yield an interest of 5 per cent, accumulated every 6 months. The asterisk shows in which month the interest or dividend is paid.

RAILROADS, &c.—STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks, &c., at the New York Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

RAILROADS.	January.	Feb'y.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	October.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
New York and Erie Railroad, .	15½	23	15	10	27½	19	22	24	24	32¾	30½	27½
Mohawk,.....	51½	57	56¾	71	74	60	63	60	62	66	54½	58½
Harlem,.....	43¼	51	62¾	76¼	83	72¾	72½	68	73½	72¼	64	64
Utica and Schenectady,.....	119	121½	121½	124	128	129	126½	127½	129	130	130
Utica and Syracuse,.....	114	113¾	116	117	120	116	119¾	116
Auburn and Syracuse,.....	110	112½	117	111	110	111	112
Auburn and Rochester,.....	99¼	104½	103½	105	107½	107	106¾	107	108½	110¼	107	107½
Brooklyn and Jamaica,.....	75	75	75	75	82½	75	80	85	90	90
Long Island,.....	72	74	71¾	74	87	80	78¼	81¾	83	82½	74½	75
New Jersey,.....	93	94½	93½	94¼	96	94½	92½	93	95	93½	93½
Paterson,.....	72¼	81¼	79	81¼	87	80	82	80	85	84½	78	78½
Providence and Stonington,....	33½	36½	36	47	52½	43	43½	43	45¼	51¼	40¾	39
Norwich and Worcester,.....	34¼	36½	36	57¼	68	53½	57¼	62	72¼	83½	69¾	66¼
New Haven and Hartford,.....	...	70	70	77	87	83	89	86	86	89	85	57
Reading,.....	47¼	49	43½	45	56	50	49½	49½	52	54	41½	43¼
Western,.....	...	59	59	66	75	72¼	78¼	85	87	89¾	...	90
Ohio, 6 per cent, 1856,.....	* 96	97¾	93¼	99½	95¼	*97	97¼	99	102½	98½	96
“ 7 “ domestic,.....	*104½	105	103	104	104¾	102	*104	104	105½	104½	102½	103
Kentucky, 6 per cent, 1841,....	*101½	103¼	100¼	102½	105¼	101	*102¼	101¾	102¼	104¾	102¾	103¼
“ 5 p. c., pay. in N. Y.,	* 85	90	90	86	* 87	85	88	92½	87½
Illinois bds., 6 per cent, special,	40¾	43¼	39¾	43½	51¾	49	49	45¼	43½	45	36¾	36
Indiana bds., doll., 5 per cent, .	37	39½	35¼	40	46¾	44¾	44¾	44	43	44¾	35	34½
Pennsylvania, 5 per cent,.....	65	*70	62½	73¼	79¼	74½	*71¾	71¼	73¾	67¾	73¼
Alabama, 5 “	80	84½	82	84	*79	80	80	81	*75	72½
Tennessee, 6 “	*100	105	100	102	103¼	102	*103	102	105	104	100

N. B.—The * shows in which month interest or dividend is paid. The dividends of the Railroad Co.'s are not given, not being obtained in time.

BANK STOCKS:

Prices of Stocks offered at the New York Stock Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

BANKS.	Dividends, p. c.		Jan'y.	Feb'y.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	Oct'r.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
Bank of New York,.....	4	4	117	118	120½	115	*	118¼	118	120¼	123	*118	117
Manhattan bank,.....	.	.	80	85	88½	88½	93½	91	92½	94¼	93	94	91	90
Merchants',.....	3½	3½	105	105	105	106¾	109	*106½	107	106	109	100¾	106	*106½
Mechanics',.....	3½	3½	105	106½	107	104	*105	105½	107	107	109¾	106	*106	105
Union,.....	4	4	113	115	114	113	*114	114	114½	117½	118½	114	*114¾	114½
Bank of America,.....	3	3	*96	99	96	97	100	97	*97	97½	98½	100¼	100	97
City,.....	3½	3	103	105	104	103½	*	107½	105½	108	108	106	*105	105
Phoenix,.....	3	3	*90½	92	90	89	96¾	95	*91½	91½	92½	95	90	89
North River,.....	3½	3½	*100	104	104	102	105	106	*103	104	104	106	105
Tradesman's,.....	5	5	*117	117½	117	113	117	*117	117	117	112	117	120
Fulton,.....	5	5	112	112½	105	107	*111	112	112	116	110	110	*111½	112
Del. and Hudson Canal Co.,.....	4	4	109	111	112	112	124	*117¾	117	117	117	122	123	*118
Dry Dock,.....	.	.	45	65	25	72	70	65	40
Butchers' and Drovers',.....	3½	4	107¼	*104	104	104	108	100	106	*106	110	108	110
Mechanics' and Traders',.....	3½	3½	102	102	103	102	*100	100	103¼	100	100	*100
National,.....	3	3	100	100¼	101½	*93	97	95	98½	*100	99	99
Merchants' Exchange,.....	3½	3½	*106½	104	105	104	107	108	*103	103½	104½	106¼	106½	107
Leather Manufacturers',.....	3½	3½	106	*104½	105	103	106	106½	106¼	*	104	103	103
Seventh Ward,.....	2½	2½	*1	76	87½	85	91¼	*90	90	90	91	90
State Bank of N. Y.,.....	2½	2½	86	89½	85	86	*87	84	85¼	84½	85	86	*83¼	83
Bank of Commerce, full,.....	3	3	*96½	97	97	98	101½	98	*98½	97¾	98	99	99¾	99½
“ “ scrip,.....	.	.	97½	98½	97	98	100	99	98	97¾	98	99¼	99	98½
Mech. Bank. Association,.....	3½	3½	91	96	93	*94	97¼	97¼	97¼	99¾	*96
American Exchange,.....	2½	3	83½	85	83¼	85	*88	84	85½	84¼	86¼	84	*81	81¾
New York Gas Light Co.,.....	4½	4½	116½	114	115	115	*117	113	118	115	114	*114	116
Manhattan “.....	3	3	91	*88	85	84	91	89	90	*88	90	90	89	87½

N. B.—The asterisk shows in which month the dividend is paid.

Prices of Bank Stocks.

INSURANCE STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks offered at the New York Stock Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

COMPANIES.	Dividends, p. c.		Jan'y.	Feb'y.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	Oct'r.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
Ætna,.....	5	4	105	104	104	*106	103	104	106	105	*
City,.....	10	10	113	*111	112	111	112½	116	*115	117	118
Eagle,.....	5	5	107	108½	108	*103	104	103	104	105½	107	*100	101	96
East River,.....	3½	3½	71	80	70	79	*	83	80	75
Equitable,.....	6	6	*99	100	102	102½	105	104	*	104	105½	106	106½	102
Firemen's,.....	4	3	106	108	106	*100	102½	102	103	104½	100	*97½	97½	96
Greenwich,.....	5	5	*102	102	103	103	104½	97½	*104	105	105½	106	103
Howard,.....	8	8	107	112	109	112½	*110	110	115	117	*
Jefferson,.....	10	10	126	*119	120	118	130	130	*120	120	128	125	110
Manhattan,.....	10	3	106	109	110	108½	*108	115	114	117	100	*
Merchants' Fire,.....	4	5	*	93	92	100	*	97	100	100	100
Mutual Fire,.....	5	4	105	105	*98	101½	100	103	*95
New York Bowery,.....	10	10	130	131	133	136	138	*130	130	133	138	140	130	*130
“ Contributionship,...	10	3½	99	101	97	*100	103	105½	104	*90
“ Fire,.....	10	4	97½	*	97	102½	95	*90	90	94	90
“ Guardian,.....	5	5	100	*100½	100	104	104	106	107½	*106½
North American,.....	5	5	92	94	96	100	*94	98½	98	*90
North River,.....	6	5	112	*108½	110	110	110	114	113½	*110	107½
Trust Fire,.....	3½	3½	63	*	72	76	75	76	*
United States,.....	6	8	*100	105	106	105	109	104	*	105	105
Williamsburg,.....	5	5	65	70	71	72	80	*85	90	89	*
N. Y. Life In. and Trust Co.,	.	3½	109½	109	106	111	110	111	110	*112	120	115	117
Farmers' Loan and Trust Co.,	.	.	31½	39	38½	42	52½	38½	40½	39	42½	44½	36½	35½
Ohio Life Ins. and Trust Co.,	3½	3½	*94½	96	90	96	99½	97	*95½	95½	96½	99½	97½	98
Merchants' Exchange Co.,.....	.	.	10	12	10½	19	31	22	24	23	24½	25	20½	20½
Canton Co.,.....	.	.	29½	34½	32½	45	64	34½	37½	37½	45½	48	44½	43½

N. B.—The asterisk shows in which month the dividend is paid.

Prices of Insurance Stocks.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY COMPANY OF PHILADELPHIA.

We have received the twenty-second annual report of the directors of the Mercantile Library Company of Philadelphia, presented at a meeting of the stockholders, January 14th, 1845. It exhibits the affairs of the company in a prosperous condition. Its thronged rooms, (says the report,) during the whole of the past year, while they attest the great interest which the mercantile young men of the city feel in its welfare, indicates also the extent to which its usefulness has attained. The mental feast which it spreads nightly before its visitors, has not been proffered in vain; and the cause of sound morals has been promoted, refinement augmented, and intelligence visibly increased, by the wide range of action which is now embraced by the institution—results highly gratifying to the Christian, patriot, and the statesman. In the treasurer's report, the income of the present year is estimated at \$1,920, and the current expenses, for the same period, at \$1,650; showing a surplus of \$270. It is further stated, in the report, that the society had suffered greatly, from its commencement, for the want of appropriate apartments. For many years past, the board kept before the members and the public the necessity for better accommodations; and in last year's report they made an earnest appeal for the necessary funds to enable them to erect an edifice which should be creditable alike to the association and the community. Their call, it seems, has been promptly responded to; and a sum was subscribed, in a few days, by the members and the public, amounting to \$14,000; enabling the board (with the building fund which had already accrued) to close the purchase of a lot of ground, and to undertake, successfully, the erection of a chaste edifice, which has arisen, an honor and an ornament to the city of Philadelphia. The building, which is spoken of as eliciting universal admiration for its beautiful proportions, and the ample accommodations it affords, has cost about \$18,000. The library of the association has been increased 221 volumes during the past year, and 10,938 volumes have been taken out for home perusal. The number of active members, at present, is 814; being an increase over last year of 117. It has been computed that there are at present on its shelves more works of a desirable character for every young man to peruse, than each could read, in the hours not necessarily devoted to business, in an entire century. With our hearty good wishes for the continued prosperity of this valuable institution, and a single extract from the report, we close our brief summary of its condition:—

“This valuable collection is constantly augmented by the purchase of such new works as the rapid press throws off from day to day. With such attractions, it is no less natural than gratifying, that its quiet rooms should win and retain large numbers of the knowledge-seeking young men of our city. And well may they be presumed to know the value of intellectual power. To the merchant, it is, next to probity and virtue, his most essential capital. In the counting-room, its superiority is greatly manifested; and in the intercourse of trader with trader, whether by personal, or through the medium of epistolary communion, its value is beyond all praise. When the duties of the day are thrown aside, it charms the domestic and social circle by its refining influence; but, above all, when the period for retirement from active business pursuits has arrived, it enables the merchant, in his now comparative solitude, to find dear friends in the enlivening companionship of books which he had learned to love in his youth. Without possessing a taste for reading, let no one delude himself with the hope of a happy old age. When the soul looks dimly on the outward world, if no radiant light shine inward, in vain, alas! are wealth and its appliances to produce consolation and contentment. And if our institution serve the double purpose of tending to preserve the young from those pursuits in which honor and happiness are forever wrecked, and of brightening their manhood and old age with intelligence, virtue, and contentment, then does it eminently merit universal favor and protection.”

THE UPRIGHT BUSINESS MAN.

An eloquent writer somewhere says:—"There is no being in the world for whom I feel a higher moral respect and admiration, than for the upright man of business. No—not for the philanthropist, the missionary, or the martyr. I feel that I could more easily be a martyr, than a man of that lofty moral uprightness. And let me say, yet more distinctly, that it is not for the generous man I feel that kind of respect. Generosity seems to me a low quality—a mere impulse—compared with the lofty virtue I speak of. It is not for the man who distributes extensive charities—who bestows magnificent donations. That may all be very well. I speak not to disparage it. I wish there were more of it; and yet it may all exist with a want of the true, lofty, unbending uprightness. That is not the man, then, of whom I speak; but it is he who stands, amidst all the exigencies of trade, firm, calm, disinterested, and upright. It is the man who can see another man's distress, as well as his own. It is the man whose mind his own advantage does not blind nor cloud for an instant; who could sit as judge upon a question between himself and his neighbor, just as safely as the purest magistrate upon the bench of justice. Ah! how much richer than ermine—how far nobler than the train of magisterial authority, how more awful than the guarded pomp of majestic truth! Yes, it is the man who is true—true to himself, his neighbor, and his God; true to his right, true to his conscience, and who feels that the slightest suggestion of that conscience is more to him than the chance of acquiring a hundred estates.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TREATY OF WANG-HEYA, BETWEEN CHINA AND THE U. STATES.

THE following is the official abstract of the "Treaty of Wang-Heya," between the United States and China. Articles 21st and 25th are given at length.

The preamble sets forth that the United States of America, and the Ta Tsing empire, desiring to establish firm, lasting, and sincere friendship between the two nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear and positive, by means of a treaty, or general convention of peace, amity, and commerce, the rules which shall in future be mutually observed in the intercourse of their respective countries; for which desirable object, the President of the United States has conferred full powers on their Commissioner, Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China, and the August Sovereign of the Ta Tsing empire on his Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary, Tsiyeng, of the Imperial House, a Vice-Guardian to the Heir-Apparent, Governor General of the Two Kwangs, and Superintendent General of the Trade and Foreign Intercourse of the Five Ports.

Art. 1. Provides that there shall be a perfect and universal peace, and a sincere and cordial amity, between the United States of America and the Ta Tsing empire.

Art. 2. Provides that citizens of the United States resorting to China for the purposes of commerce, will pay the duties of import and export prescribed in the tariff annexed to the treaty, and no other duties or charges whatever; and that the United States shall participate in any future concession granted to other nations by China.

Art. 3. Provides for the admission of citizens of the United States at the five ports of Kwang-chow, Hiya-men, Fa-chow, Ning-po, and Shang-hai.

Art. 4. Provides for citizens of the United States to import and sell, or buy and export, all manner of merchandise at the five ports.

Art. 6. Limits the tonnage duty on American ships to 5 mace per ton, if over 150 tons registered burden, and 1 mace per ton, if of 150 tons, or less. Also, provides that such vessel, having paid tonnage at one of the five ports, shall not be subject to pay a second tonnage duty at any other of said five ports.

Art. 7. Boats for the conveyance of passengers, &c., exempts, &c., from the payment of tonnage duty.

Art. 8. Provides for authorizing citizens of the United States in China to employ pilots, servants, linguists, laborers, seamen, and packers, for whatever necessary service.

Art. 9. Provides for the employment and duties of custom-house guards for merchant vessels of the United States in China.

Art. 10. Provides that securities of vessels shall deposit their ships' papers with the consul, and make a report, &c., within forty-eight hours after the arrival in port; forbids the discharge of goods without a permit; and authorizes the vessel to discharge the whole or a part only of the cargo, at discretion, or to depart without breaking bulk.

Art. 11. Prescribes the mode of examining goods, in order to the estimation of the duty chargeable thereon.

Art. 12. Provides for regularity and uniformity of weights and measures at the five ports.

Art. 13. Provides for the time and mode of paying duties; tonnage duties being payable on the admittance of the vessel to entry; and

Art. 14. Forbids the transshipment of goods from vessel to vessel in port, without a permit for the same.

Art. 15. Abolishes the hong, and other monopolies and restrictions on trade in China.

Art. 16. Provides for the collection of debts due from Chinese to Americans, or from Americans to Chinese, through the tribunals of the respective countries.

Art. 17. Provides for the residence of citizens of the United States; the construction by them of dwellings, store-houses, churches, cemeteries, and hospitals, and regulates the limits of residence, — and trade permitted to citizens of the United States at the five ports, and the — appertaining thereto.

Art. 18. Empowers citizens of the United States freely to employ teachers, and other literary assistants, and to purchase books in China.

Art. 19. Provides for the means of assuring the personal security of citizens of the United States in China.

Art. 20. Provides that citizens of the United States, having paid duties on goods at either of the said ports, may at pleasure export the same to any other of the five ports, without paying duty on the same a second time.

Art. 21. Subjects of China, who may be guilty of any criminal act towards citizens of the United States, shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities according to the laws of China; and citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the consul, or other public functionary of the United States thereto authorized, according to the laws of the United States. And, in order to the prevention of all controversy and disaffection, justice shall be equitably and impartially administered on both sides.

Art. 22. Provides that the merchant vessels may freely carry between the five ports, and any country with which China may happen to be at war.

Art. 23. Provides for reports to be made, by consuls of the United States, of the commerce of their country in China.

Art. 24. Provides for the mode in which complaints or petitions may be made by citizens of the United States to the Chinese government, and by subjects of China to the officers of the United States, and controversies between them adjusted.

Art. 25. All questions in regard to the rights, whether of property or persons, arising between citizens of the United States in China, shall be subject to the jurisdiction, and regulated by the authorities of their own government. And all controversies occurring in China, between citizens of the United States and the subjects of any other government, shall be regulated by the treaties existing between the United States and such governments respectively, without interference on the part of China.

Art. 26. Provides for the police and security of merchant vessels of the United States in the waters of China, and the pursuit of and punishment of piracies on the same, by subjects of China.

Art. 27. Provides for the safety and protection of vessels or citizens of the United States wrecked on the coast, or driven by stress of weather, or otherwise, into any of the ports of China.

Art. 28. Provides that citizens of the United States, their vessels and property, shall not be subject to any embargo, detention, or other molestation in China.

Art. 29. Provides for the apprehension in China of mutineers or deserters from the vessels of the United States; the delivering up of Chinese criminals taking refuge in the houses or vessels of the Americans; and the mutual prevention of acts of disorder and violence; and that the merchants, seamen, and other citizens of the United States in China, shall be under the superintendence of the appropriate officers of their own government.

Art. 30. Prescribes the mode and style of correspondence between the officers and private individuals, respectively, of the two nations.

Art. 31. Provides for the transmission of communications from the government of the United States to the imperial court.

Art. 32. Provides that ships of war of the United States, and the officers of the same, shall be hospitably received and entertained at each of the five ports.

Art. 33. Provides that citizens of the United States engaged in contraband trade, or trading clandestinely with such of the ports of China as are not open to foreign commerce, shall not be countenanced or protected by their government.

Art. 34. Provides that the treaty shall be in force for twelve years, or longer, at the option of the two governments; and that the ratifications shall be exchanged within eighteen months from the date of the signatures thereof.

The treaty purports to be signed and sealed by the respective plenipotentiaries at Wang Heya, the 3d of July, 1844, and is signed—
C. CUSHING.

TSIYENG, (in Manchu.)

RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

STEAMBOATS BUILT IN CINCINNATI, IN 1843-44.

The Cincinnati Gazette furnishes a complete list of the steamboats built and fitted out at that port during the year 1844, with a statement of the cost and tonnage of each. The whole number, it will be seen, is 38. The number built in 1843, was 36. In the statement of either year, the boats built at other points within the Cincinnati district, are not included. The lists embrace only those built at Cincinnati.

1844.	Name.	Tonn'ge.	Cost.	1844.	Name.	Tonn'ge.	Cost.
January.	Louis Philippe,...	296	\$19,000	Sept'r.	Pearl River,.....	71	3,000
"	Olive,.....	58	3,000	October.	Batesville,.....	178	12,500
"	Rodolph,.....	213	15,000	"	Enterprise,.....	106	7,500
February.	Swiftsure, No. 3,	199	15,000	"	Meteor,.....	165	12,000
March.	Maria,.....	692	44,000	"	Albatross,.....	298	22,000
"	Irene,.....	76	4,000	Nov'mb'r.	Pike, No. 7,.....	481	30,000
"	Lynx,.....	125	10,000	"	Arkansas, No. 4,	281	22,500
"	Mendota,.....	158	10,000	"	Warrior,.....	224	15,000
April.	Laurel,.....	113	6,500	"	Isaac Shelby,....	159	11,000
May.	Superb,.....	536	28,000	"	Fort Wayne,....	244	20,000
June.	Daniel Boone,...	170	10,000	"	Lady Madison,...	148	11,500
"	B. Fr'nklin, No. 7,	239	21,000	"	Luda,.....	286	20,000
July.	Simon Kenton,...	190	12,000	"	Panola,.....	120	10,000
"	Princess,.....	388	30,000	Dec'mb'r.	Corinne,.....	183	13,000
"	Blue Ridge,.....	128	8,000	"	Yorktown,.....	337	30,000
August.	Mail,.....	211	14,000	"	St. Mary,.....	183	13,000
"	Paul Pry,.....	136	7,000	"	Levant,.....	225	15,000
Sept'r.	M. B. Hamer,...	198	15,000				
"	Carolina,.....	272	18,000	Aggregate tonnage,.....		8,248	
"	Gazelle,.....	82	4,000	Whole cost,.....		\$568,000	
"	Lama,.....	79	4,500	Total number of boats,.....		38	

The aggregate tonnage of these thirty-eight boats, (custom-house measurement,) is 8,248 tons, and the aggregate cost \$568,000. Of the thirty-six boats built in 1843, the aggregate custom-house measurement was 8,415 tons, and the aggregate cost \$605,250. Of the boats built in Cincinnati in 1844, the average size is 219 tons, and the average cost \$14,947. Of those built there in 1843, the average size was 236 tons, and the average cost \$16,812. The cost per ton of the boats built in Cincinnati in 1844, was \$68 87½; the cost per ton of those built there in 1843, was \$71 94. These are interesting facts; and, for the purpose of presenting them more directly to the eye at a glance, we construct the following table:—

Years.	Tonnage.	Cost.	Av. size.	Av. cost.	Cost per ton.
843,.....	8,415	\$605,250	236 tons.	\$16,812	\$71 94
844,.....	8,248	568,000	217 "	14,947	68 87½

Although, as this table shows, the average size of the steamboats built in Cincinnati the last year was smaller than that of those built there in 1843, yet several of those built in 1844 were considerably larger than any built the previous year. The five largest built in each of the two years, were as follows:—

1843.		1844.	
Harry of the West,.....tons	490	Maria,.....tons	692
Concordia,.....	470	Superb,.....	536
Congress,.....	334	Pike, No. 7,.....	481
Queen of the West,.....	328	Princess,.....	388
Champion,.....	321	Yorktown,.....	337
Total,.....	1,943	Total,.....	2,434

The boats generally built in Cincinnati the past year, have been remarkable for their strength, their exterior beauty, and the taste and comfort of their interior finish and fitting up.

BOSTON AND LOWELL RAILROAD.

The directors of the Boston and Lowell railroad have made the fourteenth annual report of their receipts, expenditures, &c., under their act of incorporation. The distance from Boston to Lowell, by this road, is 26 miles. The total amount of capital paid in, is \$1,800,000. The amount of profits divided during the year 1844, was \$144,000, in two dividends, of 4 per cent each, on a capital of \$1,800,000. The amount of freight during the year has been much greater than in any preceding period, amounting to 151,731 tons. The freight and passenger tariff has been reduced since the last annual report. It was formerly \$1 for passengers, in first-class cars; it is now, in first-class cars, for passengers, from Boston to Lowell, 75 cents; and 50 cents in second-class cars. Merchandise, generally, at \$1.50 per ton—if in cargoes, landed on the railroad wharves at \$1.25 per ton, without any charge for wharfage. 45,420 tons were carried over this road for the factories, during the past year; and the company have a special bargain with the Lowell factories. They are charged \$1.25 for all cotton, wool, and goods made of those articles, and \$1 per ton for all other articles. The stockholders of the Western Branch railroad, incorporated in 1843, have transferred their rights and privileges to the Boston and Lowell company. This road begins 7 miles from the depot of the Lowell and Boston, out of the latter city. The road has a single track, with a heavy T rail, of 56 pounds to the yard, upon chestnut sleepers, 7 feet long, and 6 inches in depth, 2 feet 7 inches apart, resting upon a bed of clear gravel, 2 feet deep. The rails are in lengths of 18 feet, and the joints are secured by a clasp chain of 20 pounds weight.

The whole cost of the Boston and Lowell railroad, with its depots, cars, engines, and appurtenances, and about 58 miles of single track, amounts to \$1,902,555 67; of which—

Land for tracks and land damages,.....	\$73,909 48
Depot lands and buildings,.....	276,079 48
Engines and cars,.....	127,238 43
Iron rails, bolts and chairs,.....	282,833 95
Bridges (66 in number) and culverts,.....	196,831 58
Road, excavation and embankment, trench walls, stone blocks and sleepers, laying rails, branch tracks at Lowell, superintendence, engineering, &c.,.....	910,222 06
Woburn branch railroad,.....	35,440 68
Total,.....	\$1,902,555 67

We give below, from the directors' report, a tabular statement, showing the capital, income, and expenses of the road, from its opening, on the 24th of June, 1835, to November 30th, 1844; by which it appears that the surplus on hand on the 30th of November,

Railroad and Steamboat Statistics.

1844, after paying the dividends of that year, amounts to \$18,433 36, which is the whole surplus remaining undivided, after nine or ten years operations. The amount on hand in the year 1841, when it was largest, more than half of which was derived from withholding the winter dividend of 1836, (in which year only 2 per cent was divided,) has been absorbed by the necessary expense of taking up and relaying the first track, on which too light a rail had originally been laid, as has been more fully stated in former reports. The cost of this work was \$121,558 84, and is spread over the three years 1841-42-43.

CAPITAL ACCOUNT, FROM 1835 TO 1844.

Statement of capital paid in at date, charged and credited to construction, and whole cost of construction at the end of each year, from 1835 to 1844, inclusive.

Nov. 30, of the years	Cap. paid in at that date.	Charged to con- struction in that year.	Credited to con- struction in that year.	Whole cost of construc. at the end of the year.
1835,.....	\$1,200,000	\$1,312,239 54
1836,.....	1,440,000	\$193,405 69	1,505,645 33
1837,.....	1,500,000	2,749 52	1,508,394 75
1838,.....	1,500,000	67,268 75	1,575,663 50
1839,.....	1,650,000	32,812 71	1,698,476 21
1840,.....	1,800,000	120,796 38	1,729,242 59
1841,.....	1,800,000	105,650 48	1,834,893 07
1842,.....	1,800,000	143,393 02	1,978,286 09
1843,.....	1,800,000	10,743 10	\$31,638 24* 20,886 07† 72,758 72‡	1,863,746 16
1844,.....	1,800,000	68,809 51	30,000 00	1,902,555 67

INCOME AND EXPENSE ACCOUNT, FROM 1835 TO 1844.

Statement of the Receipts, Expenses, Dividends, Profits, Surplus, &c., in each year, from 1835 to 1844.

Years.	Gross rec. fin. all sources. Dollars.	Expenses. Dollars.	Nett profits. Dollars.	Div. of that yr. Dollars.	Rate pr. ct.	Surplus of the yr. Dollars.	Defic. the year. Dollars.
1835,	64,654 39	19,125 36	45,529 03	45,000	3½	529 03
1836,	165,124 30	75,326 11	87,798 19	30,000	2	59,798 19
1837,	180,770 04	78,508 17	102,261 87	105,000	7	2,738 13
1838,	191,778 57 241,219 94	75,597 94	116,180 63	105,000	7	11,180 63
1839,	69,160 63 231,575 27	92,151 44	158,229 13	132,000	8	26,229 13
1840,	614,132 51	91,400 17	154,307 61	138,000	8	16,307 61
1841,	267,541 34	119,469 32	148,072 02	144,000	8	4,072 02
1842,	278,310 68	165,174 79 ‡20,886 07	113,135 89	144,000	8	30,864 11
1843,	277,315 06	109,366 88 ‡72,758 72	74,303 29	144,000	8	69,696 71
1844,	316,909 58	139,293 88	147,615 70	144,000	8	3,615 70
	2,238,492 31	1,059,058 95	1,149,433 36	1,131,000

The cost of a share on the 30th November, 1835, when the first annual settlement of accounts was made, after the opening of the road, including interest, at 6 per cent on the assessments from the time when they were laid, and deducting the dividend paid for the fraction of that year, amounted to \$540 75, or almost exactly 8 per cent on the par value. Since then, in the nine years which have followed, the dividends have averaged 7 1-9 per cent on the par value of the shares.

* Cash received for old rail iron sold.

† Balance of interest account charged to expenses.

‡ Cost of rail iron for repairs, originally charged with rail iron for construction, and now transferred to its proper head.

|| Depreciation in value of engines and cars.

§ Advance on 600 shares new stock sold at auction, for account of the corporation.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN RAILWAYS.

The American Railroad Journal is now issued weekly, by D. K. Minor, in an improved form. This work has been published since 1831. It was then, and continues to be, the only Railroad Journal in this country, and was in advance of any in Europe. Now, there are four Journals published in London, alone, dedicated entirely to the railway and mining interests, with ample support. The two principal, Herapath and the Railway Times, have a large circulation. In this country, we have already upwards of \$125,000,000 invested in railways, that yield a very inadequate support to one, although containing much valuable information. We avail ourselves of the published tables of 84 American, and 43 English railways, to present the following interesting summary, in part prepared to our hands.

Five of the principal railways in England, extending over 563 miles, cost 20,456,302*l.* sterling, equal to \$102,281,510. These roads, compared with eight of our principal and most profitable works, in length 540 miles, it would appear, have cost \$15,353,220, and produce the following results:—

ENGLISH RAILWAYS.

Name.	Miles.	Cost.	Share.	Val.
Grand Junction,.....	104	£2,453,169	100	210
Great Western, and branches,.....	222	7,272,539	75	138
Liverpool and Manchester,.....	32	1,739,835	100	203
London and Birmingham,.....	112	6,393,463	100	218
London and Southwestern,.....	93	2,596,291	41	73
Total,.....	563	£20,455,302

The annual dividends of these roads, for a number of years, varies from 7 to 10 per cent, principally the latter rate. This is about 2 per cent greater than the average of the following American railways, arising from the dense population of England, and the fact that the stockholders in the above-named roads have been enabled to borrow from one-third to one-fourth the cost of their roads, at from 3½ to 4½ per cent; these investments being now considered among the best in the country.

AMERICAN RAILWAYS.

Name.	Miles.	Cost.	Share.	Val.
Boston and Worcester,.....	48	\$2,885,200	100	119
Boston and Lowell,.....	28	1,863,746	100	117
Boston and Providence,.....	41	1,900,000	100	109
Boston and Maine,.....	109	1,384,050	100	110
Eastern,.....	105	2,388,631	100	108
Utica and Schenectady,.....	78	2,124,013	100	131
Syracuse and Utica,.....	53	1,080,219	100	119
Auburn and Rochester,.....	78	1,727,361	100	110
Total,.....	540	\$15,353,220

The average cost, per mile, of these eight roads, is..... \$28,000
 " " " the five English railways, is..... 181,670

We find in the list two railways—the London and Blackwall, and the London and Greenwich, each 3½ miles in length, which have cost £2,356,570, equal to \$11,782,850, or \$1,533,270 per mile.

The cost of 1,784 miles of railways in Great Britain, has been..... £62,287,900
 There are 2,000 miles projected, and in the course of construction,
 estimated to cost..... 50,000,000

Total,..... \$561,439,500 = £112,287,900

The tables show that, taking 1,774 miles in New England, New York, New Jersey; the Philadelphia and Baltimore, the Baltimore and Washington, and the Georgia Central railways, the aggregate cost is \$54,416,335, or about \$30,500 per mile; being one-third

less in this country than in England. This arises principally from land damages, the extravagant parliamentary expenses to obtain charters, &c., &c. These, on the Great Western railroad, were—\$8,500 per mile, for procuring charter; engineering, \$6,500 per mile; land drainage, \$35,500 per mile; grading, \$159,600; superstructure, \$47,500; motive power, \$25,500; incidental, \$3,300. Total, \$284,000 per mile. The table of American railways is still incomplete, there being several blanks to fill up. The table already exceeds 4,200 miles, and the cost above \$110,000,000. The aggregate number of miles of railways in use in this country is 5,000, and the cost \$125,000,000, or \$25,000 per mile. In proportion to territory, these American roads do not equal the English, although we greatly exceed them in proportion to population. The great facilities presented by the English web of railways to the government, is the true secret of R. Hill's success in introducing his "penny system," and at a rate per mile, per annum, at an average of three times the prices paid by our government; who, with others, are loud in their denunciation of these "monopolies" as "extortionate," &c., &c. They do not take into consideration that the average actual cost of running a train in this country, with one locomotive, and two or three cars, is full 75 cents per train per mile. This would give, for 365 days, \$273 75 per mile, per annum; a rate about double the average allowed by the postmaster-general—to wit: \$143. On the principal railways in Great Britain, the government allows from \$400 to \$800 per mile per annum, to carry her mails.

Unless railways are fairly tested, and patronized by the government at rates that will aid them to pay off the debt with which they are generally encumbered, their necessities, and the necessities of some of the states in which they are located, may induce them to farm out the cars to private enterprise. Already the governor of New Jersey boasts that "the railway pays \$60,000 per annum into the state treasury, a sum equal to the expenses of the state," for the privilege of passing through New Jersey. Pennsylvania, with her \$40,000,000 of debt, may tax the government for the transit of the mails east and west, over her Columbia and Portage railways; while Maryland may also find it convenient to follow the example of New Jersey, and collect a bonus for the use of her railways, by an indirect tax, and thus induce her state incorporations to exact extravagant terms of the United States government. Cheap postage, the people will and *must have*. It can only be accomplished by railways, liberally aided by the general government, to complete the *main seaboard line*, with the several *cross* or branch railways, over the Alleghany ridge, to the valley of the Ohio, that are now languishing in the states of New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, although so important to the post-office department, and for general defence.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF HAVANA, FOR THE LAST TWELVE YEARS.

Comparative Statement of the Exports of Sugar, Coffee, Tobacco, Honey, Beeswax, and Spirits, from Havana, in each year, from 1833 to 1844, a period of twelve years.

	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Sugar,.....boxes	269,277	292,207	300,218	313,978	321,657	344,493
Coffee,.....arrobas	1,857,125	915,601	793,302	839,956	1,409,789	864,490
Tobacco, man,....millares	117,450	116,442	64,733	94,564	143,705	171,413
" raw,.....lbs.	401,376	540,357	660,915	1,293,803	1,119,185	1,528,125
Honey, Purga,.....jars	39,696	39,283	42,355	44,778	43,278	56,451
" tcs.	984	1,444	1,403	1,340	1,399	1,173
Beeswax,.....arrobas	24,516	22,271	23,303	20,489	35,414	20,251
Spirits,.....pipes	2,073	2,479	3,583	3,009	2,497	3,976

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Sugar,.....boxes	330,624	447,578	346,890	427,947	461,307½	534,582½
Coffee,.....arobas	1,174,996	1,272,822	742,570	1,081,468½	773,043	579,248
Tobacco, man,....mill.	153,370	137,067	159,450	130,727	152,009½	149,583½
“ raw,.....lbs.	359,029	1,025,262	1,452,989	1,018,990½	2,138,802½	1,286,242½
Honey, Purga,....jars	51,902	47,006	42,909	37,459½	35,711	33,812½
“tes.	1,526	2,113	1,974	2,643	2,198	1,963½
Beeswax,.....arobas	29,535	24,447	28,315	29,351	37,048½	31,759½
Spirits,.....pipes	6,670	8,472	8,753	6,785	6,223	4,066

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION OF HAVANA.

Statement of the number of vessels entered into and sailed from the Port of Havana, during the years 1843 and 1844.

Months.	1843.		Months.	1844.	
	Entered.	S'led.		Entered.	S'l'd.
January,.....	135	116	January,.....	138	120
February,.....	120	116	February,.....	177	120
March,.....	165	160	March,.....	188	181
April,.....	172	184	April,.....	183	217
May,.....	165	200	May,.....	188	196
June,.....	137	11	June,.....	120	153
July,.....	82	140	July,.....	87	124
August,.....	95	79	August,.....	93	96
September,.....	71	70	September,.....	72	71
October,.....	92	97	October,.....	122	68
November,.....	108	100	November,.....	141	144
December,.....	113	87	December,.....	169	148
Total,.....	1,455	1,459	Total,.....	1,678	1,638

IMPORTS OF NEW YORK, IN 1844.

The following is a quarterly statement of the imports and duties received at the port of New York, from January 1st to December 31st, 1844, distinguishing merchandise dutiable, free of duty, and specie and bullion:—

	Dutiable Mdze.	Free Mer- chandise.	Specie and bullion.	Total.	Duties.
January,.....	\$6,194,657	\$415,993	\$73,204	\$6,683,354	\$1,852,577 19
February,.....	6,023,763	548,326	55,417	6,627,511	2,131,926 99
March,.....	4,641,334	537,883	58,008	5,237,225	1,641,140 24
1st qr., 1844, ..	\$16,859,754	\$1,502,202	\$186,629	\$18,548,090	\$5,625,644 42
April,.....	\$5,638,873	\$1,754,237	\$70,573	\$7,463,683	\$1,805,706 06
May,.....	4,667,950	1,913,774	243,424	6,825,148	1,793,824 77
June,.....	5,229,941	529,042	64,297	5,823,280	1,882,984 24
2d qr., 1844, ..	\$15,536,764	\$4,197,053	\$378,294	\$20,112,111	\$5,482,515 07
July,.....	\$7,182,196	\$666,595	\$157,121	\$8,005,912	\$2,189,428 77
August,.....	9,970,572	1,187,836	100,388	11,258,796	3,085,352 27
September,....	7,227,664	817,106	62,945	8,107,715	2,422,751 06
3d qr., 1844, ..	\$24,380,432	\$2,671,537	\$320,454	\$27,372,423	\$7,697,532 10
October,.....	\$3,846,889	\$711,240	\$55,079	\$4,613,208	\$1,260,203 01
November,....	1,640,150	345,827	40,300	2,026,277	557,490 30
December,....	2,657,274	288,729	130,608	3,076,611	834,445 84
4th qr., 1844, ..	\$8,144,313	\$1,345,796	\$225,987	\$9,716,096	\$2,652,139 15
Total,...	\$64,921,263	\$9,716,588	\$1,111,364	\$75,748,720	\$21,457,830 74

COMMERCE, DEBT, AND RESOURCES OF TEXAS.

We are indebted partly to T. P. KETTEL, Esq., the able commercial and financial editor of the "Morning News," for the following statement of the commerce, debt, and resources of Texas. Everything relating to the Texian Republic is, at the present time, a matter of great interest. The following is an official table, made public in 1841, of the amount of the original debt then in existence; since which time, no new stock has been issued—the credit of the country having been, fortunately, too dilapidated to admit of loans:—

PUBLIC DEBT OF TEXAS.

Funded act of 1837,.....	1841	\$750,000	\$335,000	\$1,085,000
“ 1840,.....	5 ys.	800,000	240,000	1,040,000
Bonds pledged,.....	20 ys.	500,000	170,000	670,000
Issued for navy,.....	1842	690,000	302,000	992,000
Bonds at 8 per cent,.....	5 ys.	100,000	32,000	132,000
Treasury notes,.....	2,250,000	2,250,000
Land receipts,.....	1,500,000	1,500,000
Floating debt,.....	500,000	500,000
Total debt,.....		\$7,090,000	\$1,079,000	\$8,169,000

This is, no doubt, very near the actual amount of the liabilities of Texas. General Hamilton, a few years since, visited Europe, for the purpose of obtaining a loan on pledge of Texas land, but was unsuccessful. According to a congressional report of 1839, the quantity of government land was as follows:—

	Acres.
Extent of the Texian Republic,.....	203,420,000
Granted by Mexico, and confirmed by Texas,.....	53,311,267
Texas grants, since her independence,.....	5,597,356
Military bounty lands,.....	4,393,074
Land scrip issues,.....	1,500,000
	<hr/> 64,801,797
Unappropriated balance, acres,.....	138,618,203

The imports and exports of the U. States, to and from Texas, have been as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS TO AND FROM TEXAS.

Years.	Exports to Texas.			Imports.
	Dom. Goods.	For. Goods.	Total.	
1837,.....	\$797,312	\$210,616	\$1,007,928	\$163,384
1838,.....	1,028,818	219,062	1,247,880	165,718
1839,.....	1,379,016	308,017	1,687,082	318,116
1840,.....	937,073	281,199	1,218,271	303,847
1841,.....	516,255	292,041	808,296	395,026
1842,.....	278,978	127,951	406,929	480,892
1843,.....	705,240	37,713	142,753	445,399

The largest exports to Texas were in 1839, and consisted mostly of clothing, furniture, lumber, and dry-goods, of which over \$250,000 was domestic cottons. A large portion of their exports consisted, undoubtedly, of the property of emigrants; but they seem now to supply themselves from other quarters, the United States having lost the trade. In the meantime, the exports of Texas, consisting of cotton almost altogether, have rapidly increased. The quantity and value brought into the United States, in each year, has been as follows:—

IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM TEXAS.

Years.	Pounds.	Value.	Years.	Pounds.	Value.
1836,.....	1,473,133	\$232,336	1840,.....	2,669,655	\$223,182
1837,.....	1,082,466	144,587	1841,.....	3,128,776	276,315
1838,.....	1,491,293	156,242	1842,.....	5,255,142	406,943
1839,.....	1,890,052	240,130	1843,.....	7,593,107	379,750

This evinces a regular and steady increase of business, apparently largely in favor of Texas. The imports and duties of the port of Galveston, for the year ending November 1, are as follows:—

	1842.	1844.	
Imports,.....	\$368,532	\$510,399	\$161,867
Duties,.....	89,042	158,815	69,773

This increasing trade, and the economical manner in which the government has been administered, is evinced in the late message of President Houston, who states that, during the three years he has been in office, the revenue and expenditure have been as follows:—

Revenue,.....	\$466,158
Expenses,.....	460,209
Excess revenue,.....	\$5,949

The country is now rapidly filling with emigrants, who arrive from Europe, direct, in large numbers, and immediately occupy the prolific soil.

Since the above was prepared, we have received an abstract of the "Annual Report of the Treasury Department, to the ninth Congress of the Republic of Texas," dated "Washington, December 1st, 1844," and signed "J. B. Miller, Secretary of the Treasury;" which enables us to give a summary account of the commerce of Texas, for the year ending on the 31st July, 1844, as follows:—

130 vessels were entered from foreign ports, or with cargoes subject to duty.	
Amount of merchandise imported,.....	\$686,503 03
Total gross amounts of revenue,.....	\$201,413 30
Expenses of collection,.....	23,551 45
Nett amount of revenue,.....	\$177,861 85

The sum of the merchandise imported was introduced in the amounts below, from the following countries:—From the United States of America, \$593,525 14; Great Britain and Ireland, \$51,059 89; British West Indies, \$3,624 10; Spanish West Indies, \$148 87; France, \$5,584 58; Hanse Towns, \$27,494 54; the Austrian Adriatic dominions, \$1,185 86; Yucatan, \$663 57. Total, \$686,503 03.

The rate of per centage which the gross amount of impost duties bears to the total amount of merchandise imported, is a minute fraction over 26 9-16 per cent. As, however, nearly six-sevenths of the merchandise was imported in foreign vessels, of the class whose cargoes are subject to the 5 per cent augmentation, 5 per cent on six-sevenths of the merchandise may be deducted from the total of duties, to show what the average impost rate would have been, had all the effects been imported in Texian, British, French, Dutch, or American vessels.

COMMERCE OF GALVESTON.

We also annex an official statement of revenue collected at the custom-house, port of Galveston, for the year commencing Nov. 1, 1843, and ending Oct. 31, 1844:—

Imports.

Total amount subject to specific duty,.....	\$130,847 88
“ “ ad valorem duty,.....	378,225 95
Free duties,.....	1,325 54
Total imports,.....	\$510,399 37
Total amount of duties on the above,.....	\$142,672 98
Tonnage,.....	13,399 99
Permits, blank and vessel fees,.....	1,793 63
Storage on goods,.....	452 63
Fines and forfeitures,.....	296 24
Total revenues,.....	\$158,615 47
The above amount paid thus:—	
\$83,345 36 exchequer bills, at different rates,.....	\$74,027 89
Amount paid in par funds,.....	84,587 58
Total,.....	\$158,615 47

The following are the expenses at the custom-house, Galveston, from 31st October, 1843, to 31st October, 1844, inclusive:—

	Salaries of officers.	Conting'nt expenses.
Quarter ending 31st January, 1844,.....	\$3,301 75	\$934 57
“ 30th April, 1844,.....	2,252 16	486 32
“ 31st July, 1844,.....	2,250 50	542 28
“ 31st October, 1844,.....	2,256 00	224 88
	<u>\$9,060 41</u>	<u>\$2,188 05</u>
Add salaries of officers,.....		9,060 41
		<u>\$11,248 46</u>
From which deduct amount charged for services of officers disconnected with their respective offices, to wit:—		
For permits,.....	\$469 60	
For blanks,.....	798 83	
For vessel's fees,.....	524 70	
		<u>1,793 13</u>
Total expenses,.....		<u>\$9,455 33</u>

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF MOBILE, IN 1844.

The Mobile Register has made the following abstract from the returns of the custom-house at Mobile, for the respective quarters of the year 1844:—

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE FROM FOREIGN PORTS, INTO THE PORT OF MOBILE.

1st quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,.....	\$84,075 00	
By American “	60,277 00=	\$144,352 00
2d quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,.....	2,524 00	
By American “	27,107 00=	29,631 00
3d quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,.....	39 00	
By American “	8,329 00=	8,368 00
4th quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,.....	13,448 00	
By American “	46,544 00=	59,992 00
Value of imports paying duty,.....		\$242,343 00
“ free of duty,.....		156,938 00
Total foreign imports for 1844,.....		<u>\$399,281 00</u>
Amount of merchandise paying specific duties,.....		\$173,060 00
“ “ “ ad valorem duties,.....		69,283 00
“ “ free of duty,.....		156,938 00
Total,.....		<u>\$399,281 00</u>

AMOUNT OF DUTIES RECEIVED IN 1844.

1st quarter—By Foreign vessels,.....	\$36,622 42	
By American “	24,314 94=	\$60,937 36
2d quarter—By Foreign vessels,.....	1,743 04	
By American “	11,681 27=	13,424 41
3d quarter—By Foreign vessels,.....	8 05	
By American “	2,630 23=	2,638 33
4th quarter—By Foreign vessels,.....	6,374 26	
By American “	17,081 17=	23,455 43
Total amount of duties for 1844,.....		<u>\$100,455 53</u>
Amount of specific duties,.....		\$81,894 43
“ ad valorem duties,.....		18,561 10
Total,.....		<u>\$100,455 52</u>

EXPORT OF TEA FROM CHINA TO GREAT BRITAIN,

BETWEEN 1ST JULY, 1843, AND 30TH JUNE, 1844, IN 96 SHIPS.

The Friend of China, and Hong-Kong Gazette, furnishes us with the following tabular statement of the exports of every description of tea, in each month, from July 1, 1843, to June 30, 1844, in 96 ships:—

Date.	Bohea.	Congou.	Caper.	Souchong and Campoi.	Blk. lf. Pe- koe and H. Muey.	Flow'ry Pekos.	Orange Pekoe.
July,.....	1,409,868	1,610	44,402	34,100	42,550
August,....	367,106	8,018
Sept'r,....	755,020	6,200
October,...	3,935,545	18,387	94,929	5,079	182,291	118,189
Nov'r,....	5,968,774	29,531	260,253	64,112	80,429	275,841
Dec'r,.....	4,725,895	80,842	172,224	20,082	41,188	232,849
January,...	5,234,968	46,311	124,311	64,985	17,686	84,552
February,...	4,155,958	127,900	299,252	33,762	19,145	232,244
March,....	9,540	3,207,845	104,667	114,294	3,866	23,599	36,884
April,.....	1,653	2,929,938	19,074	104,235	9,749	40,586	5,693
May,.....	4,059,905	62,715	334,308	67,192	14,253	9,500
June,.....	1,565,996	7,028	8,195	57,750
Total,...	11,193	38,316,818	498,065	1,562,603	273,827	453,277	1,104,070

EXPORTS OF TEA—Continued.

Date.	Sort.	Black.	Hyson.	Y. Hyson.	H. Skim.
July,.....	1,532,530	39,555	222,655	12,336
August,....	375,124	6,115
September,....	761,220
October,.....	453	4,354,873	50,951	236,296	20,232
November,....	5,195	6,684,135	29,793	307,771
December,....	5,273,080	45,882	151,483	16,582
January,.....	8,208	5,581,021	107,408	70,039	96,948
February,....	2,216	4,875,477	392,790	176,764	102,823
March,.....	21,783	3,522,478	208,974	155,741	199,147
April,.....	4,208	3,115,136	346,754	51,551	51,145
May,.....	13,565	4,561,438	26,252	33,220	23,537
June,.....	1,100	1,640,069	19,442	23,734	31,520
Total,.....	56,728	42,276,581	1,267,807	1,429,254	560,385

EXPORTS OF TEA—Continued.

Date.	Twankay.	Imperial.	Gunpowder.	Green.	Total.
July,.....	410,430	41,365	61,884	788,225	2,320,755
August,....	6,115	381,239
September,....	761,220
October,.....	294,745	48,764	106,121	757,109	5,111,982
November,....	113,748	19,097	62,436	532,845	7,216,980
December,....	134,823	63,227	141,407	553,404	5,826,484
January,.....	280,042	109,554	275,171	939,162	6,520,183
February,....	1,064,887	170,677	298,634	2,206,575	7,082,002
March,.....	521,480	45,209	93,690	1,224,241	4,746,719
April,.....	470,273	23,012	95,905	1,038,640	4,153,770
May,.....	340,631	37,314	96,501	557,455	5,118,893
June,.....	391,323	34,318	63,138	563,481	2,203,544
Total,.....	4,022,382	592,537	1,294,887	9,167,252	51,443,833

MANUFACTURING DIVIDENDS IN NEW ENGLAND.

The following table, interesting to all purchasers and dealers in stocks on both sides of the Atlantic, is from Willis & Company's Bank Note List for October, 1844. We are indebted to the treasurers of the respective corporations, who politely gave us every information required, for the accuracy of the following table, which first appeared

in the Boston Morning Post of October last, it is believed. [The table, notwithstanding, has, through more exact inquiry, been rectified in several particulars since its original appearance.]

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	Total.	
Lowell Corporations.	Merrimack,.....	11	9	12	8	16	20	76
	Hamilton,.....	†	5	8	8	6	7	26
	Appleton,.....	5	5	6	0	6	6	28
	Lowell,.....	5 ^a	0	11	4 ^c	.	7	27
	Suffolk,.....	11	8	11	3	6	16	55
	Middlesex, ^b	10	9	4 ^d	10	33
	Tremont,.....	11	7	8	2	6	16	50
	Lawrence,.....	10	3	7	2	7	15	44
	Boot,.....	11	4	11	3	5	11	45
	Massachusetts,...	†	3	4	14	21
Other Co.'s in Mass., N. H., Me.	Cabot,.....	6	3	9	5	11	10	44
	Chickop,.....	9	.	3	3	15
	Dwight, ^e	3	11	8	22
	Perkins,.....	5	5	6	.	9	10	35
	Thornd,.....	.	.	11	3	5	14	33
	Palmer,.....	20	8	10	6	9	16	69
	Otis,.....	10	10	20
	Amosk,.....	9	.	6	4	7	9	35
	York,.....	16	12	9	7	6	17	} 77
	Nashua,.....	10	0	8	3	6	10	
	Total,.....	139	69	146	65	159	237	...

MACKEREL FISHERY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

We give, below, the annual return of the number of barrels of mackerel inspected in Massachusetts, from January 1st, 1844, to December 31st, 1844; including barrels, halves, quarters, and eighths of barrels. Annexed, will be found the total number of barrels inspected in each year, from 1831 to 1843, which shows the falling off in this branch of commercial industry.

INSPECTION OF 1844.

Towns.	Bbls. No. 1.	Bbls. No. 2.	Bbls. No. 3.	The quantity inspected in Massachusetts for thirteen years, was as follows:—	Years.	Barrels.
Yarmouth,.....	832 $\frac{3}{4}$	545	1,333	1843,.....	64,451	
Wellfleet,.....	2,458 $\frac{3}{4}$	3,088 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,223	1842,.....	75,543	
Truro,.....	1,707 $\frac{1}{2}$	904 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,042	1841,.....	55,537	
Scituate,.....	140 $\frac{1}{2}$	228 $\frac{1}{2}$	283	1840,.....	50,992	
Rockport,.....	831 $\frac{1}{2}$	491 $\frac{3}{4}$	599 $\frac{1}{2}$	1839,.....	73,018	
Provincetown,.....	1,077 $\frac{3}{8}$	955 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,841	1838,.....	108,538	
Newburyport,.....	2,842 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,329 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,837	1837,.....	138,157	
Hingham,.....	2,629 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,798	4,943 $\frac{1}{2}$	1836,.....	176,931	
Gloucester,.....	6,675 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,727 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,053 $\frac{1}{2}$	1835,.....	194,454	
Dennis,.....	816 $\frac{3}{8}$	889 $\frac{3}{8}$	1,804 $\frac{1}{2}$	1834,.....	252,884	
Chatham,.....	138	109	151 $\frac{1}{2}$	1833,.....	212,946	
Cohasset,.....	1,775 $\frac{3}{8}$	1,817 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,266	1832,.....	212,452	
Beverly,.....	2	12	7	1831,.....	383,559	
Barnstable,.....	657 $\frac{1}{2}$	531 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,090			
Boston,.....	2,564 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,858 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,032 $\frac{3}{4}$			
English, re-inspected,	4,678	2,857 $\frac{1}{8}$	574			
Total,.....	29,828 $\frac{3}{4}$	22,142 $\frac{3}{4}$	35,081 $\frac{1}{2}$			

† Dividend in new shares.

‡ Not in full operation.

^a Further dividend in new shares.

^b Not in operation as a distinct corporation till 1841.

^c The cotton-mill stopped from July, 1842, to July, 1843.

^d Extra dividend of 25 per cent of accumulated profits on manufacturing, sales of land, and rents to increase the capital from \$600,000 to \$750,000.

^e Not in operation till 1842.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Correspondence of Mr. Ralph Izard, of South Carolina, from 1774 to 1804. With a short Memoir.* Vol. 1. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

The correspondence in the present volume embraces a period of four years—1774-77—an eventful and an important epoch in the history of this country. From the brief memoir, introductory to the correspondence, prepared by the compiler, Ann Izard Deas, a daughter of Mr. Izard, we learn that his ancestors were English—came to America in the reign of Queen Anne, and settled in South Carolina. He was educated in England, but returned to America, and passed the winters in Carolina, and the summers in New York. He was married in 1767; and a few years after, (1771,) went to England, and settled in London. His high and independent spirit was evinced, as appears from the memoir and correspondence, long before the revolutionary war took place; as it seems, while in England, he declined the honor of being presented at Court, as it would have been necessary for him to bow the knee, which he said he never would do to mortal man. Several important trusts were reposed in him by the colonial government; and, after the establishment of Congress, he represented South Carolina in the Senate of the United States. The work is mainly valuable as a contribution to the revolutionary history of the country, and discovers facts and circumstances which will, no doubt, surprise many.

- 2.—*Flowers for Children.* By L. MARIA CHILD, author of "The Mother's Book," "New York Letters," etc. Vol. 2. For Children six years old.
- 3.—*Kate and Lizzie; or, Six Months Out of School.* By ANNE W. ABBOTT, author of "Willie Rogers," etc.
- 4.—*The Robins; or, Domestic Life among the Birds. With Anecdotes of other Animals.* By Mrs. TRIMMER.
- 5.—*Turns of Fortune, and other Tales.* By Mrs. S. C. HALL. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

These four volumes form part of a series, for young people of all ages, by some of the most popular writers for children, uniformly bound, now in course of publication by Francis & Co., names familiar to all readers of juvenile literature. They are little books; but will, we predict, fill a large place in the reading of that large portion of the community whom we call children; some of whom may be pretty old, if we can judge from the pleasure we ourselves have taken in looking over these volumes. Their authors are well known; and that alone has found, or will find for them, a reception in most families. They deserve it of all families. Besides, we think them deserving of a great deal more attention than many more pretending volumes. They are written with larger sympathies, a great deal more spirit, freshness, and talent. We are sick of the solemn trash with which our press continually teems, under the general class of popular and practical books—full of feeble common-place and solemn dullness—bringing down the most important subjects into shallow compends, which give only the most superficial knowledge—serving as a substitute for all thinking on the part of readers, and ministering none of that quickening impulse and culture to the fancy, the imagination, and the heart, without which, mere knowledge in the head, even if thorough, is sapless and lifeless; but, being shallow, is full of cold-hearted, self-complacent conceit.

- 6.—*Whimsicalities; a Periodical Gathering.* By THOMAS HOOD, author of the "Comic Annual," "Whims and Oddities," etc. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

A collection of the humorous papers that were published, from time to time, in the London Magazine; which, although mainly designed to amuse, or excite the humor of the cranium, are not devoid of the *morale*. Those who have read and admired (and who has not?) Hood's "Song of the Shirt," and other articles of like tendency, from the same pen, will, we are sure, avail themselves of these inklings of harmless, if not beneficent recreation.

7.—*Cobb's New North American Reader; or, Fifth Reading Book.* By LYMAN COBB, A. M. New York: Caleb Bartlett.

This reading book, in some respects, at least, it seems to us, is superior to any other book of reading lessons for the highest classes in schools, that has fallen under our observation. The selections are chiefly from approved American writers; whereas the book which, we are told, is most generally used in the schools of our country, does not contain a single piece or paragraph from the pen of an American citizen. This is a manifest mistake, which Mr. Cobb has sought, in the present compilation, to remedy. Certainly, as he truly remarks in the preface, pride for the literary reputation of our country, if not patriotism and good policy, should dictate the propriety of giving in our school books specimens of our own literature. We have civil and political institutions of our own; and how can they be sustained unless the children and youth of our country are early made to understand them? In the course of an introductory chapter, the author gives a series of just rules and observations on the principles of good reading; and at the head of each reading lesson is a series of definitions, in which every new word in the reading lesson is spelled, pronounced, accented, and defined; and the part of speech noted. As he proceeds, new words are presented, such as he has not seen before; and his progress through the book is a series of triumphs over difficulties for which he is duly prepared. We might refer to various other improvements, but enough has been said to call the attention of parents and teachers to the work; which has, within a few days, been adopted, together with Mr. Cobb's whole series of school books, by the Board of Control of the Public Schools in Philadelphia.

8.—*The Sacred Flora; or, Flowers from the Grave of a Child.* By HENRY BACON. Boston: A. Tompkins.

9.—*Hours of Communion.* By EDWIN H. CHAPIN. Boston: A. Tompkins.

Two pretty miniature volumes, the productions of congenial minds and kindred spirits. The author of the first, says, that he selected the name of "Sacred Flora," because the sentiments which he wished to express, springing as they did around the grave of a precious child, seemed to him well symbolized by such memorial flowers as those to which allusion has been made in the volume. Thus gathered, they will be found truly the flowers of Christian thought and sentiment. "*Hours of Communion*" consists of several fragmentary pieces, enforcing, with love and gentleness, "that spiritual culture, that growth in individual goodness, which is the great end of all reading, and the chief result of all religion." Both works are unsectarian, and eminently practical; and, as such, may be commended to the good and true of all sects.

10.—*Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation.* By Sir JONAH BARRINGTON, LL. D., K. C., Member of the late Irish Parliament, for the cities of Fream and Clogher. New York: D. & J. Sadlier.

The misgovernment and oppression of England towards as brave, cheerful, witty, warm-hearted, and hospitable a race of men as ever inhabited our globe, are portrayed in this volume with the characteristic power and eloquence of one of Ireland's ablest and most patriotic statesmen. The work was first published in Paris, in 1833; and its reproduction, now that the repeal movement is agitating not only the Irish nation, but the friends of civil and religious liberty everywhere, is well-timed, and will prove a most acceptable offering to the sons of Erin, scattered over Christendom. The volume is handsomely printed and bound, and is illustrated with numerous portraits of eminent Irish patriots, statesmen, noblemen, etc.

11.—*Fanny Herbert, and Other Tales. A Holiday Gift.* By MRS. MARY N. M'DONALD. New York: Henry M. Onderdonk.

The exterior of this volume is handsome enough for a "holiday gift," and it possesses interior qualities that impart to it a perennial value. One who can write so well, should write more.

- 12.—*A Chronological Introduction to the History of the Church; being a New Inquiry into the True Dates of the Birth and Death of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, and containing an Original Harmony of the Four Gospels, now first arranged in the order of the Time.* By Rev. SAMUEL FARMER JARVIS, D. D., LL. D., Historiographer of the Church. 8vo., pp. 618. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is the first volume of a series, to which the learned author has been appointed as historiographer to prepare, under the sanction of the Bishops of the Episcopal Church in the United States. It has been examined by a committee of the House of Bishops, consisting of Bishops Doane, Hopkins, and Whittingham, and pronounced by them to be a thorough and comprehensive analysis of all the evidence extant, whether sacred or profane, upon the most difficult and important points in ecclesiastical chronology, in regard to the birth and death of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. Dr. Jarvis enjoys a high reputation for deep and accurate learning, and this volume exhibits "extraordinary research and exact fidelity;" and is hailed as a production calculated to reflect honor upon himself, and the clergy to which he belongs. It is, moreover, a highly creditable specimen of American typography.

- 13.—*Essays on our Lord's Discourse at Capernaum, recorded in the Sixth Chapter of St. John.* By SAMUEL TURNER, D. D., &c., &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is an attempt to confute the Roman Catholic doctrine of the "Real Presence," as advocated by Dr. Wiseman, a learned divine of that church. It of course presents the Protestant view of the subject, with all the skill, clearness, and learning, for which the author is distinguished. The arguments adduced will, of course, be as perfectly satisfactory to the Protestant, as they will be unsatisfactory to the Catholic. Who shall decide, when learned Doctors disagree?

- 14.—*Proverbs, arranged in Alphabetical Order. In Two Parts. Adapted to all ages and classes of People, but more especially designed for the Young, and the use of Schools.* By WILLIAM H. PORTER. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The wise sayings, comprehensive sentences, proverbs, or maxims, the common-sense inspiration of different ages and nations, here collected, and commented upon or concisely explained, are "worthy of particular notice, of being treasured up in the mind, and may be of great practical use." The author says the work cost him considerable attention and labor, and is expressly written, and peculiarly adapted to afford useful instruction, to refresh the memory, to store the mind, and to qualify persons of all classes to be more entertaining and agreeable companions, or members of society. "Next to a good friend, is a good book," is the initiatory proverb of the collection; and the highest compliment that we can bestow upon the author is our opinion that he has succeeded in giving a practical illustration of the last words of that proverb.

- 15.—*Letters from a Landscape Painter.* By the author of "Essays for Summer Hours." Boston: James Munroe & Co.

Mr. Charles Lanman, the author of these pleasant and agreeable miscellanies, is a professional landscape painter, and of course views nature through the medium of a painter's eye. He has rambled through various portions of our wide domain, in search of the picturesque, and "jotted down" his impressions, not only of rural scenes, but of men and things in general; and, to quote his own language, we find him "at one moment scrambling through a mountain gorge, and the next on the margin of the boundless sea," or in communion with kindred spirits. The volume furnishes a fine specimen of Boston book-making.

- 16.—*Mrs. Leicester's School; or, The History of several Young Ladies, related by themselves.* By CHARLES LAMB and SISTER. New York: Henry M. Onderdonk.

The publisher of this admirable selection, from the works of Charles Lamb, has done good service to society, in thus reproducing here a real gem of English literature. It should be in the hands of every young lady, whether commencing or "finishing" her education, either at a boarding-school or at home.

17.—*Rome, as seen by a New Yorker, in 1843-44.* New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Mr. Gillespie, who is understood to be the writer of these pleasant, and, we should think, faithful sketches, informs us, in the preface, that he has selected from his notes such subjects, scenes, and incidents, as have seemed to him best adapted to convey to an American the most vivid and correct notions of Rome, and presented them to the mental eye of the reader in the precise order, and with the characteristic peculiarities, which would strike his mental vision if the realities were substituted for descriptions, and were seen by the reader, as by the writer, with the ideas, prepossessions, and prejudices of an American and a New Yorker.

18.—*A Course of English Reading, adapted to every Taste and Capacity; with Anecdotes of Men of Genius.* By the Rev. JAMES PYCROFT, B. A., Trinity College, Oxford. With Additions. By G. COGGSWELL. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

We concur with the American editor of this admirable treatise, that the title of a "Plan," instead of a "Course of Reading," would have designated its purpose more definitely. Such, in fact, it is; and a better one could not easily be devised. It appears to be just such a work as should be put into the hands of every one, young or old, who desire to pursue a course of reading, in order to derive the greatest advantage in the attainment of a thorough knowledge of any of the various subjects of human investigation. Dr. Coggs-well has made such additions to the work, particularly in regard to American history, as it seemed to require.

19.—*The Works of Charlotte Elizabeth. Falsehood and Truth—Passing Thoughts—Conformity.* New York: John S. Taylor.

This little volume is deeply imbued with the Protestant spirit, and opposed to what its author considers the "insidious poison of Popery." Controversy, she considers an indispensable branch of a Christian education in our time; and hence, whether in the form of an essay, tale, or poem, she gives utterance to her vigorous mind, a blow is aimed at the Roman Catholic faith, in all its forms and phases.

20.—*The Reformers before the Reformation. The Fifteenth Century, John Huss, and the Council of Constance.* By ÉMILE DE BONNECHOSE, Librarian to the King of France, author of "Histoire de France," "Histoire Sacree," etc. Translated from the French. By CAMPBELL MACKENZIE, B. A., Trinity College, Dublin. Complete in one volume. 8vo., pp. 199. New York: Harper & Brothers. [The tract of time embraced in this volume is one of the most interesting and important in the annals of ecclesiastical history, the period just before the Reformation. We have, moreover, in this volume, a particular account of the connection of John Huss with the Church of Rome, resulting in his ultimate martyrdom. The author, in his preface, says—"No creed will be presented here as the only creed; no particular formula will be advanced, as the sole real expression of the truth, out of which there is nothing but error and falsehood; for we believe that it is, before all things, important to serve the Universal Church—and there is one religion in our eyes higher than all particular forms of worship—above Roman Catholicism as above Protestantism—and that religion is Christianity."]

21.—*Flowers of Fable; embracing Original Translations and Selections from La Fontaine, Crozall, Gay, Cowper, Pope, Moore, Merrick, Denis, Herder, Lessing, Pignotti, and others.* Intended for Youth. Illustrated with one hundred engravings. New York: Wilson & Co. [An excellent collection of fables, selected from a great variety of sources, and free from objectionable expressions.]

22.—*Dunigan's Illustrated Edition of the Holy Bible, according to the Douay and Rheinish Versions.* New York: Edward Dunigan. [We have received the twenty-second part of this beautiful edition of the Catholic Bible. Two parts more make the work complete.]

23.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 45. The Regent's Daughter.* Translated from the French of ALEXANDER DUMAS. By CHARLES TOWN. New York: Harper & Brothers.

24.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 46. The Maid of Honor; or, The Massacre of St. Bartholomew. A Tale of the Sixteenth Century.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

25.—*Laurie Todd; or, The Settlers in the Woods.* By JOHN GALT, Esq. Revised and corrected, with a new Introduction, Notes, &c., by the author. With an original Preface, by GRANT THORBURN. New York: Farmer & Dagers.