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HUNT'S
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APRIL, 1846.

Art. I.—SKETCHES OF VENETIAN HISTORY AND COMMERCE.*

IN the year 452, Attila, king of the Huns, emerging from the forests of Germany with a vast horde of Scythian soldiers, spread them like a pestilence over the rich and fertile plains of northern Italy; and the fearful threat of the barbarian conqueror, that "the grass never grew where his horse once trod," was fulfilled upon the devoted heads of almost the entire population of the country; and as he passed onwards at the head of his fierce Goths, cities, towns, and villages, upon which the morning sun had shone in peace and security, were left at its going down heaps of smoking ruins. Infancy and old age, and the weakness of woman, herself, met alike the same death with the strong-armed soldier, who opposed in vain that resistless band which had never met a reverse, and which, after depopulating the east, seemed to grow more blood-thirsty as they approached the imperial city. The inhabitants of many towns yet unreached by the conqueror, not daring to face the approaching tempest, and seeking only peace and security, abandoned their houses and country to the victors, and fled to the numerous islands situated along the northern shores of the Adriatic Gulf. These islands promised them refuge from pursuit, and security for their property. An invader, like Attila, who sought for spoil and plunder, could find little to attract him amidst these desolate and barren islands, which, though numerous, offered no inducement to an enemy in search of glory, wealth, or conquest. About the mouths of the many rivers which discharge themselves into this gulf, these islands are situated, and are partly protected from the sea by long intervening slips of land, which serve as so many natural breakwaters, and partly by deposits of sand and sea-weed, which, neither sea nor land, extend at the present day thirty miles from the shore. This whole expanse is called the Lagoon,

* Anniversary address, delivered before the Young Mens' Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati, April 16, 1844, by John W. Ellis, now first published in this Magazine by the request of that association.

and is navigable for large vessels only under the charge of experienced pilots. The inner harbors are safe and commodious, and are well adapted to the extensive commerce of which they afterwards became the centre.

These wretched fugitives from the wrath of Attila, after becoming established in their new homes, subsisted by fishing, and the manufacture of salt, and the very scanty vegetation which the sandy soil of the island produced. Each principal island was governed by a tribune, until the year 697, when, in consequence of new disorders in Italy, a considerable number of fresh refugees seeking an asylum in these islands, the necessity was felt of adopting a system of government better suited to the exigencies of the rising state, than the indefinite system which had till then been acted upon; and it was wisely determined to confide into a single hand the power which had been heretofore divided among the various tribunes. The new officer was called Doge. His patronage and prerogatives were almost unlimited, and he was elected for life.

Two centuries and a half rolled around, and the scanty returns from the laborious occupations of these hardy colonists began to produce their fruits, and gradually the inhabitants grew in wealth, power, and importance. The whole bosom of the Northern Adriatic was a hive of industrious islanders, who found there that security of which the rest of Italy was deprived. The sixty islands that clustered around Rialto, were connected with it and each other by bridges; a new capital arose within their circuit, a cathedral and a ducal palace were founded on the spot which they still occupy, and the name of the province on terra firma, Venezia, from which the citizens derived their origin, was given to the metropolis which they were creating. Such, in the year 809, was the birth of Venice.

In our own country, we behold, without surprise, the creation in half a century of a rich city, and an extended commerce; but in those days of slothful progress, men were influenced less by a spirit of enterprise, than the predictions of astrology or pretended prophecy; and how great would have been the incredulity, had the wisest of their devotees foreseen that from the little band of refugees gathered together on these desolate islands, so small and narrow that the rising tides almost hid them beneath their waves, there would, within two or three centuries, spring up a nation so powerful, a city so wealthy, a community so intelligent and sagacious, and a government so eminently "wise in their generation," that every nation in Europe should ask their aid, and seek their counsel;—could they have foreseen that from this little band of refugees, a republic should spring, upon whose consent depended the very existence of those vast projects which engaged the attention of all Christendom—the armament of the Crusaders;—could they have foreseen that from this source a republic should spring, whose army was to overthrow and subjugate the empire of the Constantines;—could they have foreseen that from the fishing vessels of the Lagoon, should spring that mighty commercial navy which was destined to gather into one great mart the untold wealth of Europe, Asia and Africa. How great would have been their incredulity, could the poor salt-makers of the Rialto have been foretold, that from their scattered habitations, should spring the most magnificent and wealthy city of the middle ages! The progress of our own country, in its vast development of wealth and resources, with all the advantages of modern science and civilization, was far surpassed by that of Venice, if, in the comparison, we duly estimate the various circumstances under which the two re-

publics attained their greatness. This surprising progress was made amidst a surrounding barbarism, so great that even the genius of an Alfred, or a Charlemagne, could scarce redeem the history of their time from almost an entire blank. The elements of this prosperity are to be found in the vigor, strength, and energy of a young and growing nation, ambitious of wealth and distinction, freed from the deadening weight of feudal law and exactions, encouraged by a firm and jealous government, ever alive to the pecuniary advantages of its citizens, and its own political supremacy; a government which, with all its advantages, has been a mystery and a riddle to the rest of mankind.

In the year 827, eighteen years after the founding of the city, the captains of ten Venetian vessels trading in the harbor of Alexandria, (a fact showing the extent of their commerce at that early day,) resolved to carry off by force or stratagem the body of St. Mark, which was said to be reposing in a church in that city. The wondrous miracles which had been wrought at his shrine, had strongly attached the Egyptian populace to his memory. The Venetian captains, by bribing the priests, succeeded in obtaining the body of the holy saint, but got it on board with great difficulty. During the voyage home, the fleet was in great danger from a violent storm, and all would have been lost, but for the timely appearance of the saint on deck, who, taking command of the vessels, ordered the bewildered crews to furl their sails. The joy of the Venetians knew no bounds on the arrival of this precious cargo. The city was solemnly consigned to his care, and the saint himself, or his lion, was blazoned on her standards, or impressed on her coinage—and the shouts of the populace, whether on occasions of sedition or joy, and the gathering cry of the armies of the republic in battle, was henceforth "*Viva San Marco!*"

Until the end of the tenth century, no great political events transpired in her history. Her largely extended commerce, by increasing her internal wealth and resources, had breathed into her government a desire for foreign conquest. The two centuries over which we have passed, had raised the small community of Venetians into a rich, powerful, and independent nation, and it had already become the commercial mart of Greece, and all the countries bordering on the Adriatic. In the year 991, the Doge concluded a treaty with the Greek emperor, and with the sultans of Syria and Egypt, acquiring exclusive and important privileges to the Venetians in the Levant. Pisa, Genoa, and Amalfi, subsequently her chief maritime competitors, were at that time hardly known. A few years afterwards the Doge conquered and took possession of the entire eastern coast of the Adriatic, as far as the Morea; and, with the consent of the Greek emperor, assumed the title of the Duke of Dalmatia.

During the next hundred years, Venice became greatly distinguished as a naval and military power. Her success in her wars with the king of Hungary, and the Patriarch of Aquilea, gave her citizens that confidence in their own strength and resources, which enabled her government to maintain a firm security amidst the convulsions of the surrounding nations. But it was the part borne by Venice in the wars of the Crusades, that rendered her most illustrious, and the results were greater than her most sanguine citizens dared look for. We cannot now look into the causes which summoned the whole Christian population of the west to the rescue of the Holy Land—we cannot say whether they were impelled by a widespread religious enthusiasm, more than a desire for conquest and wealth,

or to a love of romantic and perilous adventure. There can be no question that the prominent part which Venice bore in these expeditions must be attributed to reasons of commercial policy. However much she might wish to see the infidels expelled from the holy places of the east, and from the enjoyment of the vast wealth of Syria, her own interest demanded that she should not allow the other nations of Europe to become her rivals in the monopoly of the rich trade of the Levant, and she took part in these expeditions, even with the certainty of breaking her valuable connection with the Eastern empire. The brilliant results of the third Crusade amply rewarded the Venetians for their share in the enterprise. They distinguished themselves above all their allies for their single-hearted devotion and bravery at the siege of Tyre. The walls of this devoted city had been garrisoned by the joint forces of the sultans of Damascus and Egypt, and nineteen miles of ramparts bristled with armed defenders. The sea encompassed it on all sides, save where a channel, in its narrowest part more than half a mile in breadth, was crossed by the mole constructed by Alexander, 1400 years before, and which, if it bore witness that in the end Tyre might be won, proved at the same time the gigantic efforts demanded for its reduction. The conqueror of the world had almost abandoned this city in despair, nor was it till seven months of unparalleled toil, and the loss of more blood than all Persia cost him, that he entered its breach by storm. The most prodigious efforts of the first Crusaders had been vainly levelled against its walls; and for five months, amidst blood and carnage, the arms of the third Crusaders were now directed against it before it fell.

About the middle of the twelfth century, the Venetians were humbled by defeat, and disgraced by disasters, in their wars with the Eastern empire; but during all her national reverses, and she suffered many, which in future years brought her to the brink of destruction, the patriotism of her citizens was unbounded; and even when her people were suffering under the tyranny of her government and nobility, they yet fought and died under the banner of St. Mark, with a devotion rarely equalled.

Up to this time her government had been that of the simplest republicanism, and afterwards an elective despotism. The excessive power conferred on the Doge, at his election for life, was often abused, and this gave rise to numerous revolts and factions, which impaired the power of the state. No other authority appears to have existed except that of the Council of Forty, of whose origin and duties little is known, only that they acted as a check upon the power of the Doge, and they may be considered as the representatives of the most powerful families of the state, and were gradually acquiring the privilege of a strong hereditary nobility. To avoid the inconvenience of general assemblies of the people for the election of Doge, a Council of 480 was selected from the mass, to be renewed annually. From this body, still unwieldy, a Committee of Sixty was appointed to advise with the Doge on affairs of state. Another more private Council of Six was at the same time appointed, and were called Counsellors of the Red Robe, and were elected by the six different sections of the republic. The Doge, the Committee of Sixty, and the Council of Six, composed what may be called the Signory. Of these three divisions of government the Council of Forty may be considered as possessing the sovereignty, the Grand Council of 480 as forming the deliberative body,

and the Council of Six, acting through the Doge, as the executive department.

The strong jealousy of the members of the 480 produced another change, and in the year 1249 they renounced the election of Doge, and entrusted it to a commission drawn from their own body. This commission named another, which, reduced by lot to one-fourth, named a third, and by these alternate operations of lot and election, at length formed the last commission of forty-one members, who could elect the Doge only by a majority of twenty-five suffrages. This labyrinth of form preserved for several hundred years an entire purity in the election of the first officer of the republic, even amidst the wildest corruption and profligacy of its future days. But with all this care for the purity of his election, each succeeding year diminished the small remnant of power which he was still permitted to retain by a nobility which was rapidly acquiring the whole power of the state; and henceforward the Doge must be considered as little else than a state puppet, tricked out with a title and crown for purposes of pageantry, surrounded with pomp, but with little real power. As the nobility strengthened themselves, the people became weaker, and were soon a mere cipher. In the year 1297 the membership of the Grand Council was legally made hereditary in the aristocratic families of the city. And thus was founded that famous Venetian nobility, which was, in the language of Sismondi, "so prudent, so jealous, so ambitious—which Europe regarded with astonishment; immoveable in principle; unshaken in power; uniting some of the most odious practices of despotism with the name of liberty; suspicious and perfidious in politics; sanguinary in revenge; indulgent to the subject; sumptuous in the public service; economical in the administration of the finances; equitable and impartial in the public service; knowing well how to give prosperity to the arts, agriculture and commerce; beloved by the people who obeyed it, whilst it made the nobles, who partook its power, terrible." In 1315 a register was opened called the Golden Book, in which were inscribed the names of all those who had sat in the Great Council of 480. A few years afterward, all limitation of number was abolished, and the simple fact of being a descendant of one of its members, was a sufficient claim to entitle its possessor to a seat in the Grand Council. The government of the republic was completed by the establishment, in 1325, of the Council of Ten, a body possessed of the most extraordinary and unlimited power over the lives and property of every citizen of the state, from the Doge to the lowest fisherman of the Lido. Their proceedings were governed by what they called reasons of state. The public eye never penetrated the mystery of their proceedings. The dungeon and the rack produced all the evidence they required. The trial, the condemnation, and the death, were alike undivulged; and this odious tribunal, an object of terror and detestation to every class of citizens, maintained an unlimited sway to the very last days of the republic. At first instituted for the discovery and punishment of crimes against the state, it gained such power that it annulled at pleasure the decrees of the Grand Council, and degraded its members. The proceedings and the very existence of this tribunal have been a stumbling-block in the way of the Italian historians, and some have even affirmed that the long stability of Venice was chiefly owing to the most remarkable, the most formidable, and the most execrable part of her government—the Council of Ten.

For twenty years the whole of Christian Europe had been convulsed by the quarrels between the rival claimants for the vacant Papal throne, Victor IV., and Alexander III., the former backed by the powerful aid of the emperor, Frederick Barbarossa. Driven from Rome, Alexander passed many years in poverty and exile, depending for aid, and even a bare subsistence, upon the generosity of the neighboring princes. But all his disappointments and years of suffering could not break down that unconquerable spirit, which was destined, before his death, to place firmly under his spiritual dominion the king of England, as well as the proud Barbarossa. After years of pursuit and persecution from the German emperor, he at last, in the year 1177, threw himself on the generosity of the Venetian government, which at once took up the quarrel, and boldly carried it through to a successful issue. The Venetian and German fleets, the former commanded by the Doge in person, and bearing the pontifical blessing, met in the Adriatic; and, after a desperate battle of many hours, in which one hundred vessels were engaged, the Venetians came off completely victorious. Alexander hastened to meet the Doge, and a solemn ceremony, which continued to be celebrated as long as the republic existed, dates its origin from his gratitude. As soon as Ziani, the Doge, touched the land, the holy father presented him with a ring of gold. "Take," he said, "this ring, and with it take, on my authority, the sea as your subject. Every year, on the return of this happy day, you and your successors shall make known to all posterity that the right of conquest has subjugated the Adriatic to Venice as a spouse to her husband."

Of the many ceremonies to which the Venetians were so much attached, the marriage of the Adriatic appears to have been cherished by them with the greatest pride; and, during the long course of six hundred years, every return of the anniversary witnessed the repetition of her figurative nuptials. The Doge and officers of state having heard mass in the chapel of St. Mark, embarked on board the *Bucentaur*, a state galley, blazing with gold, and enriched with costly ornaments. Gliding through the canals amid festive shouts and triumphal music, this superb pageant arrived at the shore of the Lido, near the mouth of the harbor; and there the princely bridegroom, dropping a golden ring into the bosom of his betrothed, espoused her with this brief but significant greeting: "We wed thee with this ring in token of our true and perpetual sovereignty."

The defeat of the German emperor was followed by his deep personal humiliation, and on the restoration of Alexander, he asked an interview with him at Venice. The scene which followed, though familiar to all, is one of the most remarkable in history. Alexander, clothed in his pontifical robes, with the triple crown upon his brow, attended by the Doge, and surrounded by a brilliant throng of cardinals, prelates and ambassadors, removed from the arrogant Frederick his sentence of excommunication, and permitted him to approach. As the emperor drew near, he cast aside his princely vestments, prostrated himself at the holy father's throne, and crept onward that he might kiss his feet. With a feeling of pride and indignation, and the remembrance of a life of wrong and insult, the holy father, planting his foot on the neck of the prostrate emperor, repeated the words of David: "Thou shalt go upon the lion and the adder, the young lion and the dragon shalt thou tread under thy feet." The prince

remonstrated against the indignity, and Alexander placed his foot the second time more firmly upon the neck of his former enemy—

———“ thus at last consoled
For flight, disguise, and many an aguish shake,
On his stone pillow.”

The conduct of Alexander, in this scene, has been severely questioned by some historians, who regard it as the result of a petty feeling of revenge little consistent with his character as the representative of the meekness of the Saviour; others defend him upon these general grounds—that he was the true head of the church, and the vicar of the Saviour upon earth, and that what he had suffered in his own person, that church and that Saviour suffered also. Alexander's conduct during his twenty years of exile and persecution, proves that this was his own sincere belief.

No names of great personal distinction had yet shone in the annals of Venice; we now approach the history of her heroes and statesmen. Enrico Dandolo was elected the forty-second Doge in the year 1192, enfeebled by the burden of eighty-four winters, and deprived of sight. His long life of activity was crowned by an extreme old age, crowded with incidents of heroism and glory performed during the wars of the fourth Crusade, before the walls of Constantinople. When Fulk, a priest of Neuilly, near Paris, with the consent of Innocent III., had again aroused the dormant energies of Christendom, and the nations of the west of Europe were the fourth time confederated for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre, ambassadors were again despatched to the Venetians for their consent and assistance, for without their ships and sailors the expedition could not be transported to the east. They joined the armies of the west, but only after such negotiations as assured them of a continued mercantile supremacy, and immense pecuniary advantages. It was on the 9th of October, 1202, that the fleet, bearing the armies of the fourth Crusade, unmoored from the harbors of Venice. A nobler armament had never sailed from port. Five hundred Venetian vessels stemmed the Adriatic. Of these, fifty were ships of war; one of giant size, the *Mondo*, being of two thousand tons burden. The army was composed of forty thousand Christian soldiers, amply supplied with stores, provisions, and artillery, and commanded by the Marquis of Montferrat. Circumstances which we cannot here relate, changed entirely the destination of the expedition; and instead of proceeding to Palestine, the Crusaders passed through the Dardanelles, and laid siege to Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern empire, and at that time the richest city in the world. For the events of this Crusade, the destruction of Constantinople, and the overthrow of the Greek empire, although closely connected with the history of Venice, I must refer you to the 40th chapter of Gibbon, whose glowing pictures display the brilliant power and ability of the great historian. During the long siege, the Venetians at sea, led on by old Dandolo, in his 97th year, and the French on land, vied with each other in deeds of heroism. The city was finally taken, and abandoned to the pillage of the soldiery, and never was a conquered city more completely ravaged by a horde of merciless barbarians. Her magnificent churches, and their contents of art, books, the entire literature of the time, pictures, statues, and the countless treasures which the luxury, and pride and wealth of nine centuries had collected, perished indiscriminately beneath the fury of the Christian army. The booty col-

lected was of immense value, amounting to about twelve millions of dollars, about twenty times the then annual revenue of Great Britain. The share of the Venetians was nearly five millions of dollars, and amongst other acquisitions, they removed to Venice the four famous horses of gilt bronze, which to the present day adorn the porch of St. Mark. These horses were brought originally from Alexandria by Augustus, and successively crowned the arches of Nero, Domitian, Trajan and Constantine. They were taken to Paris, by Bonaparte, but were restored to Venice in 1815. Dandolo and his army acquired a large extent of territory in Greece and the *Ægean* Sea, and he was permitted to annex to his title of Doge of Venice, those of Despot of Romania, and Lord of three-eighths of the Roman empire.

One of the most interesting, yet obscure passages in Venetian history, is that of the conspiracy and death of Marino Faliero, the 47th Doge. Distinguished by a long life of patriotic devotion to his country, and of distinguished public services, his extreme old age, like that of Dandolo and many others of his predecessors, was crowned by the acquisition of the ducal bonnet. History gives us few of the details of the conspiracy which resulted in the death of the first officer of the state, but whatever they were, the fearful ubiquity of the Council of Ten penetrated the mystery, and with their accustomed celerity, brought every conspirator to instant death. The head of the old Doge rolled down the Giant's Staircase, the entrance to his own palace, and the spot where he had taken the oath at his coronation. In the Hall of the Great Council are ranged to this day, in chronological order, the portraits of every Doge of Venice, save one. A black veil covers the frame left vacant for that of Marino Faliero.

It is not necessary to repeat here any of the details of those bloody intestine wars and feuds between the rival princes of the different governments which divided the whole of Italy. They continued for more than two hundred years previous to the fifteenth century, and greatly retarded that civilization and advancement, in which Italy, notwithstanding these drawbacks, far surpassed every other country.

If Venice was the Ocean Queen of the middle ages, she had now a competitor who bid fair to rival her in commercial wealth, grandeur and prosperity. Genoa, controlled by the firm hand of the Dorias, whose sagacious policy had extended her establishments in Spain, Syria and Greece, was rapidly acquiring that weight and influence in Italian politics of which Venice was the acknowledged head. "If Genoa had less wealth, she had equal enterprise, an equal thirst for gain, and equal ambition." Such commercial rivalry, encouraged by every element of discord, soon ended in general open hostilities between the two republics. This war was the most remarkable of all those which desolated Italy, and is familiar to the readers of her history, as the War of Chiozza. An enemy had never yet set foot in the streets of Venice, nor even nearly approached it—her very existence was now threatened by the Genoese, who took one of the outworks of the capital, and the Venetians sued for peace, upon any terms guaranteeing alone the independence of the city. They were refused, and becoming desperate in such an extremity, again attacked the enemy with success, and the Genoese had soon to lament the total loss of two fleets and a fine army. We may here observe that all these conquests were achieved by foreign generals—for the republic

never entrusted her own subjects with the command of armies—and that some of them, when success once forsook them, were cruelly and perfidiously put to death by the suspicious Council of Ten. These exploits gave a brilliant lustre to the reigns of Foscari, Gradenigo, Contarini and Loredano—names distinguished above all others among the statesmen of Venice—increased as they were by the great naval and military talents of such men as Pisani, Cermagnuola, and above all of Carlo Zeno, who may be considered the great naval hero of the middle ages. A Venetian by birth, he had passed a turbulent and reckless youth—grown to manhood, he was bold and daring in his nature; and filled with a love of wild adventure, he had cruised with his fleet, under the commission of his country, throughout the Mediterranean, acquiring immense wealth by the plunder of Genoese commerce. We cannot call him a pirate, but must regard him as we do those bold adventurers of the sixteenth century, Cavendish, Drake, Dampier and Raleigh, possessing the prominent traits of the hero, buccaneer and pirate. Now assisting the king of Cyprus in his wars, and again endeavoring to restore a deposed emperor to the throne of the east, he had been long absent from his country. But forsaking his pirate objects when his country was in danger, he flew to her rescue, and saved her from destruction.

Venice was forced to take part in the famous Italian wars of Charles VIII. and Francis I., the result of the league of Cambray, a combination of several of the most powerful of the European states, formed in 1508, and especially directed against her increasing power and influence. She came out honorably from the contest, though with the loss of all her possessions on the main land. Not the least interesting feature in the relation of these wars, are the achievements of those brave French knights, Bayard, and Gaston De Foix, renowned alike in history, song and story.

The end of the fifteenth century has been styled by modern writers the transition period of society; when the nations of Europe, enlightened by the art of printing, and enriched by the wealth of maritime discovery, were emerging from the barbarism of the feudal ages, to the progressive civilization of a later day. The same period we may consider the turning point of Venetian greatness—the epoch of her loftiest elevation. Some knowledge of her strength at this time may be learned from the fact, that the league of Cambray, cemented for her destruction, was composed of nearly all the leading powers of Europe, either of which possessed ten times the extent of her immediate territory. This league weakened, but did not destroy her.

It was at this period that her colonial possessions extended over the Adriatic, the *Ægean* Sea, and the Levant, embracing Dalmatia, Istria, and the Morea, the rich islands of Candia, Cyprus, and the Negropont; it was at this period that her busy commerce extended from the banks of the Po, to the British islands, and to the farthest confines of the Euxine, pouring into her coffers the riches of the “exhaustless east;” when her sailors and citizens were gorged with its wealth; when her nobles walked the streets in purple, and her merchants dwelt in palaces more splendid than those of a Henry or a Francis, and her gigantic might was felt to be oppressive by all Europe. It was then that her vast arsenals were full to overflowing, her cathedrals the most numerous and beautiful in Italy; her schools of literature, navigation, and the fine arts, frequented by the curious and the learned of every nation. Though the dust of Laura’s lover

now rests in Arqua, yet his residence, and that of Erasmus, in Venice, have given her a reputation for the cultivation of letters inferior only to that of Florence under the Medici; and modern literature is indebted to her for the solid encouragement which she gave, in the persons of the Aldi and Jansen, to that art, which, above all others, has most beneficially affected the permanent welfare of mankind. To mention the name of Titian, and the Venetian school of painting, is an ample tribute to her promotion of the fine arts. Such were some of the many sources of wealth from which were derived the riches of the descendants of the fishermen of the Rialto, and such were the objects on which they were expended.

But alas! the picture changes, and it is the melancholy duty of the historian to mark the downward steps of that nation, whose onward course he has traced for a thousand years. The three last centuries of her existence show a gradual, at last a total decline from her early glories—a shadow of her former self, dragging out a weak and decrepid old age. An oligarchy ruled the state—incipient signs of decay appeared—the strength of her youthful constitution was gone—her wealth itself accelerated that ruin, commenced by her loss of that commerce, which was diverted into other channels by the discoveries of the Spanish and Portuguese navigators; and the manners of her people had become vile, profligate, and corrupt. Abandoning all hope of future conquest, she was content if she could preserve herself unharmed; and for the last hundred years of her independence, sought distinction as a general mart for pleasure, and endeavored to find in luxury a reward for her surrender of ambition.

But there are yet a few bright, glowing pictures in the histories of her wars against the Turks; when the valor and fortitude of her distant armies surpassed even the expectations of a government grown too effeminate to resist the encroachments of her continental neighbors. Early in the sixteenth century, the Mahomedans began to push their conquests towards the west of Europe. What new barrier had Christianity to oppose to the establishment of the despotism of the Ottomans, perhaps of the imposture of the prophet? Why, by the swords of this ferocious infidel soldiery, urged on less by a love of conquest than the courage of religious enthusiasm, should not the Koran usurp the place of the Bible? Why should not the fair plains of France and Italy, exhibit the daily religious spectacles of Jerusalem and Damascus? and why should not the sturdy Saxons of England have sent up their morning orisons to the Arab prophet? All this might have been, but for the valor of John Sobieski before the walls of Vienna, or the fortitude of the Venetians at the siege of Famagosta, the conquest of Candia, and the battle of Lepanto. Venice, in the language of Byron, was

“Europe’s bulwark ’gainst the Ottomite.”

And can we not, from this far distant land and age, look back and think we may owe our religious independence, in part, at least, to their heroic endurance? We do not now sufficiently appreciate the tremendous power which they opposed. So numerous were the Turkish army in Cyprus, that its commander boasted, after the siege of Famagosta, where he had lost 50,000 men, that if each of his remaining soldiers would throw but one slipper into the ditch, he might construct a level path to its battlements. The siege of Candia was sustained by the Venetians for twenty-four years, against a Turkish army so numerous that the place was only reduced after a loss of 150,000 of that vast army.

Much of the singularity of Venetian history and society, so different from the rest of Europe, a few hundred years ago, was the result of some prominent characteristics in her people and government. The chief of these was, the entire absence of the old feudal law and privileges, and the consequent progress in intelligence and civilization of those classes, which, in other states, were kept in ignorant servitude; a class which must always constitute at least the physical support of every nation; and though its populace were always overawed by her nobility, they yet had a feeling of stern independence unknown to the serf of the continent, united with a love and reverence for their own rulers, despotic as they were, for the quiet tranquillity which they invariably secured to every citizen during the wildest national commotions. These feelings were increased by those broad and liberal sentiments infused by her extensive foreign commercial intercourse, producing marked effect in the political and social condition of her population; an intercourse which has gone hand in hand with political liberty, personal rights, and intellectual cultivation, in the history of every modern nation; and the annals of every Italian state show a decline of these prerogatives, consummate with the destruction of their foreign commerce.*

Their great maritime pre-eminence was the result of many causes; chiefly to their position at the head of the Adriatic, as the natural depot for the trade between Europe and Asia; to their success in the manufacture of articles of silk, wool, linen, glass, salt and leather, and the unceasing encouragement which their government gave to everything like mercantile enterprise.

The results of their first adventures at sea, gave them an advantage over their competitors, which was never regained, and fed that avidity for wealth which characterized them at an early day. Every new colony added its share to her maritime, as well as her political strength; and her laws regulating her distant settlements, partook of that far-reaching and wise, yet selfish spirit, which so eminently marks the present English colonial system.

It is a remarkable fact in the history of Venice, and one that is unparalleled in that of any other nation, that her women have never, in a single instance, exerted the slightest political influence. They seldom appear as actors in the stirring scenes with which its annals are filled.†

It is not alone her wonderful rise and fall, her wealth and commerce, her mysterious government and proud nobility, with all their gilded despotism, the stories of her dungeons, her Lion's Mouth, and her Bridge of Sighs, the feuds of a Foscari and a Loredano, so beautifully told by Rogers, that fill the mind of the reader with a romantic interest; but here is the spot whereon were acted the realities of *Otway* and *Radcliffe*, and *Schiller*, and here are the scenes made immortal by the ideal creations of *Shylock* and *Othello*.

* If we adopt the views of Protestant historians, no better illustration of the free spirit of the Venetians can be given, than the stern pertinacity with which they resisted the efforts of the Popes to establish in their dominions what they conceived to be an ecclesiastical despotism, in an age when the edicts of Rome were powerful; and in no place where the Inquisition was established, did it as slightly promote the views of its founders. But in this resistance, it may be that the despotic Council of Ten dreaded a participation in its authority.

† The romantic stories of the Queen of Cyprus and Bianca Capello, alone relieve this blank in her history.

On a morning of summer, in the year 1498, a poor Portuguese pilgrim, clothed in rags, and who had wandered on foot from his native hills, appeared in the streets of Venice, and announced to its citizens that one of those daring navigators sent out by his king, had doubled the Cape of Storms, and discovered a new route to India. He was surrounded, and eagerly questioned by a throng of princes, merchants, and artisans. His answers struck terror in every heart. They saw at once that the partition wall of their monopoly was broken down; they saw the lucrative trade of the east transferred from the Lagoon to Lisbon and the Tagus; they saw that the rich merchandise which they gathered and dispersed throughout Europe, was destined to pass through other hands; they saw their ships rotting in their docks, and their sailors wandering idly about the streets; they heard the last motion of those looms which had produced the choice silken and woollen fabrics which had clothed the nobles of Europe; in a word, they rightly fancied they saw the destruction of that commerce whence came all their wealth, their luxury, and their pride; that commerce which had sent forth with the third army of the Crusaders two hundred ships, and with the fourth five hundred; that commerce whose mighty pulsations had been felt at the farthest extremities of the earth.

Here we have the remote, but the chief cause of the fall of Venice; the fall of a city, which, for one thousand years, never admitted an enemy within her wave-built walls; the fall of a nation, which, emerging from the ruins of the empire of the Cæsars, sunk into that of Napoleon; a nation whose existence connected the ancient with the modern world, the past with the present; a nation, which, for thirteen centuries, looked upon the wide stage on which the generations of men met and struggled.

In lingering over the splendid historic details of the nations of the earth, the greatest battles which have been fought, seem to be pointed out to us as the landmarks in the progress of the world's history, and the physical efforts concentrated in these encounters, are more dwelt upon than a thousand minor wars, incidents and influences, whose moral effects, scarce visible at the moment, are felt in the remotest ages of history. It is in this moral effect, that the name of Tell shall re-echo through the mountains of Switzerland, when that of Napoleon may be lost; that tradition shall speak of Bannockburn, when history has forgotten Waterloo; that the memory of the skirmish of a few thousand undisciplined volunteers on Bunker's Hill, shall be dear to all republicans, though future chronicles may forget to tell that a hundred thousand human skeletons were left to bleach at Eylau and Austerlitz. It is in this moral effect, that the commercial influence of the Italian cities, acting upon other nations, produced the discovery of America, and consequently all its vast results. It was this silent influence of the Italian maritime states, and subsequently that of the Hanse Towns, which stamps the present age with its distinctive future—that of commercial grandeur.

If the saying that "history is philosophy teaching by example," be true, can we, as members of a republican confederacy, aiming at perfection in government, have a more striking model for our contemplation, than the records of Venetian existence present, through so great a period of time? Her long list of errors, points out clearly this one lesson of wisdom—that the perpetuity of republican institutions demands from the body of the people a high degree of intelligence, and a strong patriotic faith. As lovers of such institutions, and believers in the principle of self-government, the

young men of our own country are bound to cultivate and practise these national virtues, and with them we must seek that general intelligence and mental improvement which is essential to our personal success and happiness. We are urged in this course by every consideration which can most strongly influence the actions of our lives; by a love of country, and our fellow men; by our faith in the democratic spirit of American institutions, by our pride of calling, and, if no higher motive can be offered, by that selfishness which aims alone at personal success. Let us persevere, then, in our efforts for the attainment of this political virtue, this patriotic faith, this general intelligence, until each of us can call understanding our kinswoman, and say unto wisdom, "Thou art my sister."

Art. II.—THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE ON LONGEVITY:

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LIFE INSURANCE.*

To determine the influence of climate on longevity, requires a collection of statistics extending over a wider surface of the earth, and a longer series of years, than any which has yet been furnished to the world.

Uniformity in the institutions, pursuits, and condition of the nations compared, will be a necessary element of the data, even after a sufficient basis of statistics shall have been collected; for Villermé, Quetelet, and Edwards, have shown, that even in the same climate, the length of life is materially affected by the occupation, and the mode of living of its inhabitants.

At the present time, therefore, all that we can do towards the elucidation of the "influence of climate on longevity," is, to form an approximate answer by an analysis of such facts as we can obtain.

Climate is well defined by Forry, "to constitute the aggregate of all the external physical circumstances appertaining to each locality in its relation to organic nature." The circumstances to which especial attention will be paid in this dissertation, are temperature, geological position, and, incidentally, weight of the atmosphere, and prevalence of winds.

* This article, now first published, is an essay by James M'Cune Smith, M. D., of New York, which was offered to the consideration of the Boylston Medical Committee of Harvard University, on the occasion (April, 1845,) when the prize was awarded to Edward Jarvis, M. D. It had, for its motto—

"Ta makra d'éxenepein
Erukei me tethmos
Horai t'épeigomenai."

Pind. Nem. Car. IV., 53.

and is one of the three concerning which the committee, in a published resolve, hoped "their authors may be induced to give the public an opportunity of reading these valuable and interesting essays." It is requisite to state that, by a standing published vote, the committee "do not consider themselves as approving the doctrines contained in any of the dissertations to which the premiums may be adjudged"—a vote which, of course, applies to an unsuccessful one.

The points in which this essay differs from the very able articles from the pen of Dr. Spare, which appeared in the 78th and 79th numbers of this Magazine, are the following:—

1st. The present article endeavors to fix a standard of longevity based upon the age of a living population.

2d. The tables are differently constructed, and with reference to the said standard.

3d. The data constituting the climate of localities, are given in connection with the longevity of the localities.

Longevity is not so readily described. In 1797, Dr. Odier, in the *Bibliothèque Britannique de Geneve*, drew the conclusion "that the high ratio of centenarians does not imply an equally great probability of life, but the contrary." Mr. Rickman, of England, has also asserted "that the proportion of existing centenarians is no valid indication of national health and longevity. (New York Journal of Med., vol. 2, p. 319.) If 100 years, then, should be taken as the standard of longevity, the general longevity of any given people would be in the inverse ratio of the proportion who should attain the standard."

The scientific men of Geneva observed, "that if 90 years were to be taken as the extreme old age, the proportion of individuals of this age to the number of births, would be the standard of longevity." (Quetelet on Man; Edinburgh Translation, p. 3.)

How far a register of births is to be depended on, may be gathered from the following, which is copied from Alison on the Principles of Population, vol. 1, p. 135. "Humboldt observes that the difference between the population which should have existed from the register of births and deaths, and that actually shown by the returns in Great Britain, from 1801 to 1821, is a million of souls." The reason given by Humboldt for this discrepancy is, the immigration of 50,000 Irish per year. This, however, is not the fact, as the vast majority of the Irish who go into England and Scotland every year, only remain during the harvest, which they help gather, and then go back home to their families.

But even if the register of births could be depended upon, there are not a sufficient number of such registers extending back 90 years.

Neither would there be sufficient accuracy in an approximation of the number of births, measured by the increase of the population. The late Dr. Forry made the attempt in the following passage: "The whole colored population of the United States, which, in 1840, numbered 2,873,458, consisted in 1790 of but 693,632; and if we reduce it in the same proportion for fifty years more, when the centenarians of 1840 were born, and then divide the total colored population of 1740 with the centenarians of 1840, it will be seen that about 1 in every 85 colored individuals born, became a centenarian!" (N. Y. Journal of Med., vol. 1, p. 317.)

When we recollect that the slave-trade, for eighteen years after 1790, made constant additions to the colored population—additions of middle-aged and elderly, as well as of young persons; and further remember the horrible decimation by which this trade, both before and since 1790, cut off principally the young and feeble in the *middle passage*; and still further, that nearly all the subjects of this traffic had passed the dangerous period of infancy, before they were brought to the United States, it is clear that the basis of births which produced the centenarians of 1840, must be extended greatly beyond 85 to every centenarian.

There is a more general reason against making the registration of births during any given year, the basis from which to calculate the longevity of any people. The prevalence or absence of an epidemic fatal to children, the abundance or scarcity of bread,* might confer on the selected year a proportion of mortality, or health, or fecundity, above or below the

* Quetelet has shown that the mortality of the old and young are especially influenced by the price of bread, in Belgium.

average of the selected climate;* or the same of the above causes, existing in different intensity,† in the selected year, in the different countries compared, might produce a difference in longevity, the result of these causes, not of a difference of climate.

The proportion of the mortality of a given population, is another basis by which some authors have endeavored to compute the longevity of a population. Dr. Prichard takes this view: he says "in some instances, according to the calculations of Mr. Moreau de Jonnés, the rate of mortality, and inversely the duration of life, differ by nearly one-half from the proportions discovered in other examples. The following is a brief extract from a table presented by this celebrated calculator to the institute. The table comprehends returns belonging to different periods, illustrative of the effect produced by political changes and improvements in the state of society on the duration of human life. I have omitted this part, and have only abstracted that which illustrates the influence of climate."

TABLE EXHIBITING THE ANNUAL MORTALITY IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES IN EUROPE.

In Sweden,	from 1821 to 1825,.....	1 death in 45.
Denmark,	from 1819 to 1825,.....	1 death in 45.
Germany,	from 1825 to 1825,.....	1 death in 45.
Prussia,	from 1824 to 1824,.....	1 death in 39.
Aus.emp.,	from 1825 to 1830,.....	1 death in 43.
Holland,	from 1824 to 1830,.....	1 death in 40.
England,	from 1821 to 1830,.....	1 death in 51.
Great Britain,	from 1800 to 1804,.....	1 death in 47.
France,	from 1825 to 1827,.....	1 death in 39.
Canton de Vaud,	from 1824 to 1827,.....	1 death in 47.
Lombardy,	from 1827 to 1828,.....	1 death in 31.
Roman States,	from 1828 to 1829,.....	1 death in 28.
Scotland,	from 1821 to 1828,.....	1 death in 50.

"In approaching the equator," continues Prichard, "we find the mortality increase, and the average duration of life consequently diminish. The following calculation, obtained by the same writer, (Jonnés,) will sufficiently illustrate this remark."*

Latitude.	Places.	1 death in 26 inhabitants.	
6° 10'	Batavia,.....	"	27
10° 10'	Trinidad,.....	"	27
13° 54'	Sainte Lucie, .	"	28
14° 44'	Martinique,...	"	27
15° 59'	Guadaloupe,...	"	20
18° 36'	Bombay,.....	"	33
23° 11'	Havana,.....	"	33

"In some localities," continues Prichard, "the mortality belongs in great part to strangers, principally Europeans, who, coming from a different climate, suffer in great numbers. The separate division from which the collective numbers above given are deduced, will sufficiently indicate these circumstances."

* "On remarqué en Belgique que les années où le pain était le plus ou le moins cher, ont coïncidé avec les années où l'on comptait le plus ou le moins de décès, et le moins ou le plus de naissances." (Quetelet Recherches sur la Reproduction et la Mortalité de l'homme, p. 81.)

† In England, according to the 5th Report of Register General, p. 375, Second Edition, the number of deaths from scarlatina was as follows:—In 1838, 5,082; 1839, 10,320; 1840, 19,816; 1841, 14,161.

‡ Notice sur la population des états de l'Europe, par M. Moreau de Jonnés.

In Batavia, 1805,	Europeans died,.....	1 in 11.
“ “	Slaves “	1 in 13.
“ “	Chinese “	1 in 29.
“ “	Javanese, viz: <i>Natives</i> ,.....	1 in 40.
In Bombay, 1815,	Europeans died,.....	1 in 18.5.
“ “	Mussulmans “	1 in 17.5.
“ “	Parsees, viz: <i>Natives</i> ,.....	1 in 40.
In Guadeloupe, 1811 to 1824,	whites died,.....	1 in 22.5.
“ “	“ free men of color died,.....	1 in 35.
In Martinique, 1825,	whites died,.....	1 in 24.
“ “	“ free men of color died,.....	1 in 23.
In Grenada, 1815,	slaves died,.....	1 in 22.
In St. Lucie, 1802,	slaves died,.....	1 in 20.

(Researches into the Physical History of Mankind, by J. C. Prichard ; vol. 1, p. 116-118. London, 1836.)

It is scarcely necessary to observe that these tables do not confirm Dr. Prichard's views. The last table entirely overthrows the inference he draws from the second. The measure of the mortality of the climate, when deduced partially from the deaths of the Europeans in Batavia or Bombay, is necessarily a false measure ; it shows the influence of a change of climate on the mortality of the Europeans, and should be carefully separated from the mortality of the natives ; this latter, which averages about 1 in 40, is the true measure of the mortality of the almost equatorial climates of Bombay and Batavia. And this proportion, 1 in 40, is so near the average proportion of the European countries cited, that if the proportion of mortality be, in fact, a measure conversely of the proportion of longevity, the question of the influence of climate on longevity would be nearly decided.

But the proportion of mortality is not a measure in any way of the proportion of longevity.* Mr. Chadwick has shown that “in the returns of the St. George's Hanover Square district, in 1839, the proportion of deaths was 1 to 50 of population ; but the average number of years which 1,325 individuals who died in that year had lived, was 31 years.” (N. Y. Journal of Medicine, vol. 3, p. 213.)

The following is a table of the population and mortality of the city of Philadelphia, which has been carefully calculated by the writer, allowing an increase of 20 per cent for the 10 years.

Years.	White Population.	Deaths.†	Proportion.
1831,.....	193,999	4,464	1 in 43.45
1832,.....	198,453	5,933	1 in 33.45
1833,.....	203,064	3,962	1 in 51.02
1834,.....	208,394	4,554	1 in 45.76
1835,.....	212,585	5,098	1 in 41.68
1836,.....	218,440	4,616	1 in 47.32
1837,.....	222,457	4,634	1 in 48.00
1838,.....	227,682	4,813	1 in 47.30
1839,.....	232,831	4,529	1 in 51.40
1840,.....	238,206	4,442	1 in 53.62

* The reason why the proportion of mortality is not a measure of longevity, is the following: The proportion of mortality is a statement of how many persons die in a population ; this, of course, does not state the age at which those persons die. If one in 45 die in Sweden, and 1 in 22 in Grenada, the ages of the dead might be alike in both countries ; here the greater mortality would actually accompany the greater longevity.

† Copied from the reports of the Board of Health of the city and county of Philadelphia

Leaving out the year 1832, when cholera prevailed, the mortality in Philadelphia, among its white population, has fluctuated from 1 in 43.45 to 1 in 53.62. Now, it is not possible that the longevity of Philadelphia has fluctuated to the same extent in the same time. Further, the deaths in Philadelphia in 1840 were, as above, 1 in 53.62; the deaths in the city and county of New York, in the same year, were 1 in 40.5.*

By the census of 1840, there were in New York, above 90 years of age, 76 persons, or 1 to 2,107 of population; in Philadelphia, in the same year, there were 133 persons above 90, or 1 to 3,898 of population; in other words, the mortality being as 4.0 to 5.6, the longevity (assuming 90 years as the standard) is 2.1 to 3.9; the mortality in Philadelphia being one-fifth less, whilst the longevity is nearly one-half greater, than that of New York!

The mortality in Belgium, from 1825 to 1829, was 1 in 43.1. (Quetelet on Man, ut supr., p. 26.) The mortality in Massachusetts, in 1844, was, according to Dr. Chickering, 1 in 70. (This statement is copied from the newspapers, as the writer has not had the good fortune to see the report, &c.) M. Quetelet has reduced the population of Belgium to the basis of 10,000—by performing the same process for the population of Massachusetts, I find that there are—

	Above 90 years.	Above 70 years.
In Belgium,.....	5 in 10,000	350 in 10,000
Massachusetts,.....	8 in 10,000	290 in 10,000

The proportion of mortality in Massachusetts as 70 to 43 in Belgium, yet the longevity at 90 as 8 to 5; and at 70 years of age, (which we will in the sequel adopt as the standard,) the longevity of Belgium actually greater than that of Massachusetts, in the proportion of 3.5 to 2.9!

If the proportion of mortality fails to measure the longevity of a population, how shall we form a standard of longevity?

Presuming the longevity of a people to mean the actual age of that people, the measure of their longevity is the simple statement of their actual age, or the age of the *living* population. Strictly speaking, this actual age of a given population could only be estimated by multiplying each individual by his age, adding all the products together, and then dividing this sum by the number of the individuals. As no census has yet given the separate age of each individual, this process cannot now be performed; but we can get an approximate result sufficiently accurate for our purpose. By an inspection of the table of the census of the United States, which is hereafter given, it will be seen that the proportion of individuals of different ages is a function depending upon the proportion of individuals under 5, and above 70 years of age—therefore, a function of two variables. It will further be seen that these two variables—the proportion under 5, and above 70 years of age—are either of them dependent on and determined by the other; and consequently, if the proportion under 5 years be greater, the proportion above 70 will be less, and *vice versa*.

Hence, it is clear that we may adopt either the proportion of population under 5 years of age, or above 70 years of age, as a standard value for the actual age; that is, the *longevity* of a given population.

We shall adopt the proportion of living persons who have passed 70 years of age as our *standard of longevity*, in any given population.

* Annual Report of the City Inspector of the city of New York, Doc. 47, p. 638.

Having endeavored to fix the meaning of our terms, the next question is, how to form an estimate of the influence of different *climates* on *longevity*.

If a portion of the earth could be found, covered by a moderately dense and evenly spread *acclimated* population—this population living under the same political institutions, engaged in nearly the same proportion in the same pursuits—and yet, in consequence of the extent of their country, this population should be exposed to widely different climates—such a people would furnish data which could decide the question before us.

The United States of North America present the nearest approach to this desirable combination of circumstances. Extending over a surface, the mean annual temperature of which varies from 41° 21' F. in Maine, to 76° 9' in Florida; the range of temperature extending from 25° F. in Maine, to 105° F. in East Florida; the mean annual range being 35°, and the extreme 130°; diversified with every variety of geological formation; assaulted with winds from every quarter—the United States present the desirable diversity of climate.

There also exists a sufficient uniformity in the institutions of the several states, so far as the white population is concerned. The difference in the pursuits of the population of different parts of the country is hardly sufficient to prove a prominent disturbing element. The comparative exemption from manual labor enjoyed by the whites in the Southern States, is a compensation for the relative insalubrity of the climate, to the same persons.

The principal disturbing cause, which might invalidate deductions from the census of the United States, is *emigration*. Professor Tucker* estimates the whole number added to the United States by emigration, at 1,044,800. This is about 269,000 too little; for, whilst he adds 20 per cent increase, in each decade of years, to the emigrants furnished by the previous decade, he omits to add the increase of the increased decade to the whole sum. Thus, he says—

From 1790 to 1800, number of emigrants,.....	50,000	
Increase, 20 per cent on 40,000,.....	8,000	
		58,000
From 1800 to 1810, number of emigrants,.....	70,000	
Increase, 20 per cent on 60,000,.....	12,000	
		82,000

and so on. It is clear that the 58,000 and the 82,000 have increased, as well as the 50,000 and the 70,000. Correcting this error, by adding the increase of the increased, the whole number furnished by emigration, from 1790 to 1840, is about 1,271,720.

Although, in a population of 13,000,000, the large number, 1,271,720, irregularly added, would make a disturbing cause difficult to compute, yet it so happens that, in this instance, this added population, by going almost entirely to the new Western States, has left the old states comparatively undisturbed; particularly those which will be selected for comparison.

The rapid increase of population in the United States is another disturbing cause. From 1790 to 1840, according to Tucker—

The total increase of the whites has been as.....	100 to 447.3
“ “ free col'd, “	100 to 649.7
“ “ slaves, “	100 to 356.4
“ “ whole col'd, “	100 to 379.4

So rapid an increase, in fifty years, of necessity diminishes the relative

* Progress of the United States, pp. 86, 87.

proportion of the longæved. The following table, however, must also be regarded—it is copied from Tucker, p. 58.

TABLE A.

DIVISIONS.	Increased Population from August 1, 1790, in				
	10 yrs.	20 yrs.	30 yrs.	40 yrs.	50 yrs.
1. New England States,.....	122.4	145.8	164.4	193.6	221.3
2. Middle States, with Dist. of Col.,..	132.6	186.3	240.2	310.4	382.7
3. Southern States, and Florida,.....	126.6	149.1	172.9	209.1	226.1
4. Southwestern States,.....	319.8	1,058.	2,264.	3,839.	6,174.
5. Northwestern States & Territories,	371.6	857.5	1,948.	3,145.	5,654.
Total of the United States,.....	135.	184.2	245.3	327.4	434.5

It is evident, from the above table, (Table A.,) that the New England and the Southern States, the extremes in regard to climate, have escaped the disturbing influence of an excessively rapid increase. A somewhat extended analysis of the comparative distribution of the population in each state, in each census, enables the writer to say that emigration has caused but a slight disturbing influence, even in those states in which the largest portion of emigrants has settled.

Another point requires attention—acclimation. Are the various races, the German, Celtic, and Anglo-Saxon, who compose the bulk of the white population of the United States, sufficiently acclimated to render the data furnished by the census free from the error which *change of climate* might create? Although it be impossible to say what length of time is necessary to wear out this error—to make a race *native*—yet, when we find, as in New Hampshire and Connecticut, that the distribution of population is precisely similar to the average distributions of population in the kingdoms of Europe, it is fair inference that the change of climate has ceased to be a disturbing cause.

From these views, it appears that the United States, by means of their census, offer a good case for the study of the influence of *climate on longevity*.

Before we enter upon an investigation of the census of the United States, we would call attention to the following table, which is slightly altered from the table given by Quetelet (on Man, p. 56.) The alteration has been made by the addition of the numbers above 5 years, so as to show—1st. The proportion in 10,000 under 5 years; 2d. The proportion above 5 years; 3d. The proportion above 10 years, &c., &c.

TABLE B.

Ages.	G. Brit.	Ireland.	Engl'nd.	Engl'd.*	France.	Belgium.	Sweden.	U. S.
	1821.	1821.	1821.	1813-30.	bef. 1789.	1829.	1820.	1830.
Below 5 y.,	Marsh'l.	Marsh'l.	Marsh'l.	Rickman.	Annuaire.	Annuaire.	Marsh'l.	Marsh'l.
Above 5,	1,647.0	1,535.0	1,472.0	1,487.0	1,201.0	1,297.0	1,307.0	1,800.0
" 10,	8,353.5	8,468.5	8,526.8	8,513.2	8,799.0	8,703.0	8,686.0	8,198.2
" 15,	6,977.5	7,113.5	7,226.8	7,206.2	7,818.0	7,614.0	7,676.0	6,743.2
" 20,	5,758.5	5,895.5	6,107.8	6,092.2	6,879.0	6,668.0	6,782.0	5,500.2
" 25,	4,712.5	4,676.5	5,107.8	5,100.2	5,982.0	5,785.0	5,883.0	4,388.2
" 30,	3,154.5	2,916.5	3,524.8	3,526.2	4,344.0	4,105.0	4,172.0	2,607.2
" 40,	1,974.5	1,766.5	2,348.8	2,345.2	2,940.0	2,764.0	2,810.0	1,516.2
" 50,	1,096.5	995.5	1,417.8	1,411.2	1,779.0	1,747.0	1,723.0	828.2
" 60,	551.5	395.5	754.8	752.2	887.0	954.0	868.0	398.2
" 70,	203.5	122.5	294.8	296.2	310.0	350.0	282.0	145.2
" 80,	40.5	26.5	67.8	68.2	55.0	71.0	42.0	35.2
" 90,	3.5	3.5	5.8	5.2	5.0	5.0	1.0	4.2
" 100,	.1	.5	.3	.2	.2	.1	.0	.2

* And part of Wales.

By inspection, we see, in the above table, the number of individuals in 10,000, who have passed any age above 5 years, in either of the countries named. It is remarkable, as we have already stated, that the longevity of either population—or, in other words, the age of the living population—is generally determined by the proportion under 5 years of age. The greater the number under 5 years, the fewer the number above 70 years. The United States, with 1,800 in 10,000 under 5 years, has only 145.2 above 70; Belgium, with 1,297 under 5, has 350 above 70. It will be seen that the same remark is partly true if we extend the comparison from 5 to 80 years, but it does not hold good if we go as far as 90 years. If we compare the ages intermediate between 5 and 70 years, the rule we have named holds good. Hence, as 70 years is the age—the extreme age—to which a sufficient portion of persons (in any given population) live, to affect the longevity of the whole mass in a constant manner, it appears to be, on that account, an excellent standard of longevity. Should we adopt 80 or 90 years, too few persons constantly reach these ages, to indicate the longevity of the mass. May not this be considered a beautiful proof of the accuracy of holy writ, when it declares that “*the days of our years are three-score years and ten*; and if, by reason of strength, they be four-score years, yet is their strength labor and sorrow; *for it is soon cut off, and we fly away.*”

If we adopt the proportion who are above 70 years, as the standard of longevity, it would appear that the longevity of Belgium is the greatest, and of Ireland the least, in the countries named in Table B.

In Belgium there are, above 70 years,.....	350.
In Ireland,.....	122.5
Difference,.....	127.5

Let us now compare the climates of Belgium and Ireland. The statement is taken from an excellent table in the London edition of Kaemtz's *Meteorology*, p. 177, et seq.

Place.	Latitude.	Mean annual.	TEMPERATURE.			
			Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.
Ireland—Dublin,.....	53° 23' N.	49° 10' F.	47° 12'	59° 54'	50° 04'	40° 28'
Munster,.....	51° 58' N.	49° 10' F.	48° 06'	62° 24'	50° 18'	36° 36'
Belgium—Brussels,....	50° 51' N.	50° 36' F.	50° 18'	65° 16'	50° 36'	36° 50'

Ireland and Belgium have a temperature almost identical. From their latitude, they are within the same Isobarometrical curve—that is to say, the monthly oscillations of the barometer have the same mean, 27,07 m.m. in both countries, (Kaemtz, p. 299.) They are also within the same hyetographic region, (Kaemtz, p. 137.) They are both composed of primary and secondary formations, and are diversified by hill and dale, (Lyell.)

We cannot, therefore, attribute the wide difference in the longevity of these two countries to a difference of *climate*. The cause of the difference in longevity is readily traced to the difference in the habits, or mode of living, which obtain in Ireland and Belgium. The most prominent of these differences is, that in Ireland, early marriages (which are most productive of increase) are frequent. In Belgium, “the greatest number of marriages, both of men and women, take place between their twenty-sixth and thirtieth years,” (Quetelet on Man, p. 16.) M. Quetelet also shows that the children of early marriages are feebler, and less likely to reach a medium age, than the children of parents of riper years. This fact will explain the apparent anomaly that in Ireland the proportion under 5, and

over 70, do not bear the constant ratio for which we have claimed the name of a rule.

By reference to the table, (Table B.,) it will be seen that the longevity of Sweden is, to that of Belgium, as 282 to 350.

In regard to the *temperature* of Belgium and Sweden, we can furnish only the records kept at Brussels for the former, and at Stockholm, Umea, and Upsal, for the latter.

Place.	Latitude.	Annual.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.
Brussels,.....	50° 51' N.	50° 36	50° 18	64° 76	50° 36	36° 50
Stockholm,.....	59° 21'	42° 08	38° 30	60° 98	43° 70	25° 52
Umea,.....	63° 50'	35° 78	33° 08	57° 38	37° 58	13° 64
Upsal,.....	59° 52'	41° 36	38° 12	59° 18	43° 16	25° 34
Mean of Belg.,....	50° 51'	50° 36	50° 18	64° 76	50° 36	36° 50
“ Swe.,....	60° 00'	39° 74	36° 50	59° 18	41° 38	21° 50
Difference,.....	9° 09'	10° 62	13° 68	5° 58	8° 98	15° 00
Place.		Hottest month.		Coldest month.		Range.
Umea,.....		61° 16 July.		11° 66 Jan.	
Upsal,.....		61° 34		23° 18	
Stockholm,.....		63° 68		23° 90	
Mean of Belgium,.....		65° 84		34° 16		30° 68
“ Sweden,.....		62° 06		19° 58		42° 48
Difference,.....		3° 08		14° 58		10° 80

It is evident that the greatest difference between the temperature of Belgium and Sweden occurs in the winter; Sweden being 14° 58 colder than Belgium during the coldest month. It is also clear, from the difference of latitude, that the Swedes are exposed to a longer, as well as a colder winter, than the Belgians.

The mean amplitude of the oscillations of the barometer in Stockholm, during the year, is 29,87^{m.m.}; in Belgium,* 25,65^{m.m.}; which is copied from Kaemtz, p. 297.

Kaemtz places Belgium and Sweden in different hyetographic regions, principally because in Belgium the *Southwest*, but in Sweden the *East* wind, brings rain with greatest frequency.

Belgium and Sweden are principally composed of secondary formation, according to Lyell, who regards Belgium as having been submerged, and Sweden as in a state of upheaval.

In regard to the institutions of these countries, we will quote Alison's Principles of Population, Vol. I.

“The free spirit and mild government of the old Burgundian provinces, have produced their usual effect upon the character of the people, and the principle of population; while the increase of the people has been restrained within the bounds which the circumstances of society require. In every part of Flanders, the rural scene presents the most agreeable objects; fields covered by fruitful crops, meadows feeding numerous herds, neat and commodious farm-houses.

“The bounty of nature is diffused in decent competence through the multitude that inhabits it; and the wholesome fare and neat dwellings of the laborer, attest that he receives his share of the riches with which nature crowns his fields.” P. 423.

* Brussels.

"The condition of the people in the Scandinavian Peninsula, is in the highest degree prosperous and happy.

"If you enter a Swedish cottage, it is with pleasure," says Catteau, "that you see the person that inhabits it. His food is simple, but substantial; his clothes, though coarse, are warm, and in good order; his dwelling, though rude, is clean and comfortable. Even in the remotest parts of the country, the symptoms of general comfort are to be found." P. 428.

From the same author, and Quetelet, we gather that marriages are 1 to every 144, in Belgium; and 1 to every 110, in Sweden. Births are 1 to every 27, in Sweden; and 1 to every 30 inhabitants, in Belgium. The deaths, in Belgium, in 1829-30-31, were 1 to every 43 inhabitants; in Sweden, from 1754 to 1768, there was 1 death to every 34; from 1821 to 1825, only 1 in 45.

The population of Belgium, is stated by Alison to be 507 to the square mile; of Sweden, only 14 to the square mile. The latter statement is not strictly true; because three-fourths of the Swedes, according to Malte Brun, dwell in Goetland, which is only one-third of the entire territory.

From this careful comparison of the two kingdoms, it appears that the institutions, and the modes of living, are nearly identical in both. The only marked difference between them, is a difference of climate. Sweden is 10° 62 colder the year round; and 14° 58 colder in the coldest month, than Belgium. Even the summer heat in Sweden is lower in temperature than in Flanders.

It appears, also, that the rain-bearing winds come from different directions; in Belgium, the balmy south wind, tempered by the ocean; in Sweden, the chilling and unhealthy east wind, comes freighted with rain and moisture.

Since this difference in climate is almost the only difference in the circumstances affecting life, which we find between Sweden and Belgium, it is a fair inference that the difference in longevity arises from the same cause.

A difference of 10° 62, or a climate 10° 62 colder, has made the longevity of Sweden, $\frac{68}{100000}$ less than the longevity of Belgium. That is, $\frac{350}{100000} - \frac{282}{100000} = \frac{68}{100000}$.

This view, that an extremely cold climate is unfavorable to longevity, receives some confirmation from the following table, which we copy from Quetelet's "*Recherches sur la Reproduction et la Mortalité de l'homme aux différens ages, et sur la population de la Belgique.*"

He gives the table "in order that we may ascertain at what ages extreme heat or extreme cold is most to be feared"—(p. 75.)

Ages.	DEATHS DURING MONTHS OF		D'ths in July for 100 d'ths in Jan.
	January.	July.	
Still-born,.....	269	215	0,80
First month after birth,.....	3,321	1,719	0,52
4 to 6 years,.....	878	600	0,69
8 to 12 ".....	616	447	0,73
12 to 16 ".....	409	420	1,05
16 to 20 ".....	502	545	1,09
20 to 25 ".....	361	796	0,93
25 to 30 ".....	793	724	0,92
40 to 45 ".....	818	613	0,75
62 to 65 ".....	968	525	0,54
79 to 81 ".....	658	332	0,51
90 and upwards,.....	252	99	0,39

"It results from these numbers that the influence of the seasons is extremely pronounced (*extremement prononcée*) according to the different ages. The still-births in January and July, are in the ratio of 4 to 5. But it is at the moment that the infant commences to see the light, that the influence of the seasons makes itself vividly distinct; so that, for two children who die in January, only one dies in July. This mortality, so great in winter, diminishes, so as to become almost indistinct, at the 12th year. After that age, and about puberty, and the following years, the vital heat develops itself so abundantly, that it is only the heat of summer against which the young man should provide (*redouter*.) About the epoch of marriage, (26 to 30 years,) and during reproduction, the influence of the seasons is almost null. Winter again commences its direful influence about the 40th year; and its effects are so sensible, that after the age of 65 years, the cold is as much to be feared by the aged, as by the newly born; it has the same disastrous effect after 90 years, when two or three aged persons die in January for only one in July"—(p. 76.) "The numbers in the last column may be regarded as an expression of the amount of vital heat which man possesses, at different ages"—(p. 76.)

These remarks of Quetelet, are beautifully illustrated by comparing the populations of Sweden and Belgium in Table B. From the 10th to the 40th year the Swedes are most numerous; after the 40th year, the Belgians take the lead.

The winter of Belgium is but $36^{\circ} 50'$;* and if Quetelet's views are correct, it would follow, from apparently fixed laws of the human frame, that towards 60 to 65 years, as a general rule, it is not capable of resisting the long duration of cold, common to hyperborean winters. The famed, we had almost said the fabled, longevity of individuals among the Russians, makes no exception to this law.

The absolute condition of the mass of the Russians, is slavery—in all times, and in all places, a condition of depression, and therefore productive of centenarians:—Add the additional depression of rigor of climate, and difficulty of intercommunication,† and we have the circumstances most likely to produce centenarians, at the expense of the length of the life of the masses. What with the hunger, the slavery and the cold, the wonder is—not that individual cases of extreme old age should occur, but that these ancient Russ, once seasoned, should ever die!

Whether we look at the result of carefully compared statistics, or whether we look at the vital forces of the human frame, we have abundant evidence that climates of a persistent low temperature—the long duration of cold—unquestionably diminish the longevity of mankind. The aged frame, no longer developing a sufficient supply of vital heat, and unable to support the rapid combustion, is literally "consumed, and flies away!"

* When not otherwise marked, the degrees of heat are according to Fahrenheit.

† Dr. Baird, in his lecture on Russia, stated that the inhabitants of whole provinces sometimes perish, in winter, because the state of the roads makes it impossible to convey provisions to them.

ART. III.—COUNTERFEITING MARKS AND NAMES ON MERCHANDISE.

ON THE COUNTERFEITING OF THE MARKS AND NAMES OF TRADESMEN UPON GOODS, AND THE SELLING THEM AS GENUINE.

FOREIGN merchants have set the blameable example of making up, or causing to be made up, for the American market, large quantities of goods which bear counterfeit marks and names; and our manufacturers are profiting by it, and taking a similar course.

The consequences, and probable result of such forgery—for forgery, in a very mean shape, it is—can hardly have occurred to those who are guilty. He who counterfeits my name to a note, may make one innocent man suffer; but he who truly, in this sense, robs me of my good name, injures all to whom he sells; he may ruin me, while he certainly lays himself open to be looked at as a forger without imprisonment, and a liar among his debtors.

And yet, although the law may not give him the jail, it will stop him peremptorily; it will leave *its* “mark” upon his character, and give me damages, and all the profit which he, by the use of my honest name and fame, and his bad goods, has obtained from confiding buyers. He shall not, as the courts have said, trade under another man’s flag.

An exposition of the principles which the courts of law and equity have laid down on the subject, cannot but be interesting to the merchant.

The earliest case in the English books, is one that was decided in the time of Elizabeth,* and is thus reported: “An action upon the case was brought in the Common Pleas by a clothier; that, whereas he had gained great reputation for his making of his cloth, by reason whereof he had great utterance, to his great benefit and profit; and that he used to set his mark to his cloth, whereby it should be known to be his cloth; and another clothier foreseeing it, used the same mark to his ill-made cloth, on purpose to deceive him; and it was resolved that the action did lie.”

It is not the mere making and using of a sign or mark, similar to the mark or sign of another, that is legally objectionable; for, as it has been said by Chancellor Walworth, there is no patent right in names;† while the English Judge Cresswell has observed, that the mere use of a similar mark will give no right of action—that a man can have no abstract right to use a particular mark.‡

The wrong, as was observed by Lord Hardwicke, as far back as the year 1742, consists in the making or doing the act with a *fraudulent design to put off bad goods, or draw away customers.*§

We now proceed to give an exposition of the different cases:

I. A COURT OF CHANCERY WILL INTERFERE, EVEN WHEN THE MARKS OR NAMES ARE NOT PRECISELY SIMILAR, PROVIDED THEY ARE MADE IN SUCH A MANNER AS TO FORM OR BE A COLORABLE IMITATION.

The strongest case to show this, is one relating to the running of omnibuses in London.|| An association of persons had started omnibuses to run from Paddington to the Bank of England, having on them the words,

* Southern v. How, Popham’s Reports, 144.

† Bell v. Locke, 8 Paige’s C. R., 75.

‡ Crawshay v. Thompson, 4 Manning and Granger, 386.

§ Blanchard v. Hill, 2 Atk., 584.

|| Knott v. Morgan, 2 Keen’s R., 213.

Conveyance Company, and *London Conveyance Company*. There was also a Star and Garter painted; and the conductors and coachmen were dressed in green livery and gold hat-bands.

The defendant afterwards started omnibuses exactly similar; and the dress of coachmen and conductors was the same. He was then threatened by the complainants, whereupon the defendant obliterated from the back of his omnibus the word "*Company*," and painted on each side of it, over the words "*Conveyance Company*," the word *Original*; and between the words "*Conveyance*" and "*Company*" the word *for*, in very small characters; so that there was then painted on the back of the defendant's omnibuses the words *London Conveyance*, and on each side, the words *Original Conveyance for Company*. But no further alteration was made; and the livery or dress remained the same. The Master of the Rolls, Lord Langdale, said the question was, whether the defendant fraudulently imitated the title and insignia used by the complainants for the purpose of injuring them in their trade? "I have not the least doubt," said his Honor, "that the defendant did intend to induce the public to believe that the omnibuses which he painted and appointed so as to resemble the carriages of the complainants, was, in fact, an omnibus belonging to the complainants and the other proprietors of the *London Conveyance Company*. It is not to be said that the complainants have any exclusive right to the words "*Conveyance Company*," or "*London Conveyance Company*," or any other words, but they have a right to call upon this court to restrain the defendant from fraudulently using precisely the same words and devices which they have taken for the purpose of distinguishing their property, and thereby depriving them of the fair profits of their business, by attracting custom on the false representation that carriages originally the defendant's, belonged to, and were under the management of the complainants."

Perhaps this language is not so clear as the circumstances required, because the opinion would seem to go upon the idea that there were "precisely" the same words; however, the order which Lord Langdale made is quite consistent with the facts. His Lordship ordered an injunction to issue, restraining the defendant from using the words or names "*London Conveyance*," or "*Original Conveyance for Company*;" or any other names, words, or devices painted, stamped, printed or written, etc., *in such manner as to form or be a colorable imitation* of the names, words, and devices painted on the omnibuses of the complainants.

We now go to a case where Messrs. Day & Martin were manufacturers of blacking, as was a person named Binning. The latter sold his blacking in bottles, which not only resembled the bottles used by Day & Martin, but were labelled in a similar manner. The only difference between the two labels was, that the label of Day & Martin described their blacking as "manufactured" by Day & Martin, whilst that of Binning's described his blacking as "equal to Day & Martin's." The words "*equal to*," were printed in a very small type.

An injunction was granted *ex parte*, to restrain Binning from using any labels in imitation of those of Day & Martin.*

It is, however, to be observed, that where there is no patent, there is nothing to stop a manufacturer from putting forth openly and plainly that he makes a similar article, and that it is equal to one made by another. The intention is everything.

* *Day v. Binning*, 1 C. C. Cooper's Rep., 489.

II. WHILE A PERSON SHALL NOT MAKE AN ARTICLE AS AND FOR THE ARTICLE DEALT IN AND MADE BY ANOTHER, YET HE CANNOT BE STOPPED (WHERE THERE IS NO PATENT) FROM MAKING AND SELLING A SIMILAR THING, WHERE HE OPENLY SHOWS THAT IT IS HIS OWN.

The cases in the courts where a party is enjoined, show that it is only where a fraud is intended by the palming off or aiding in the palming off of a counterfeit article as and for the thing of another, that the courts interfere.

Thus, we have a case in the books,* which, as to the principle involved, will apply to trade-marks, although it immediately related to the sale of a medicine well known as Velno's Vegetable Syrup. A man by the name of Jones, who had been a servant with a former maker of it, (Mr. Swainson,) made a similar composition, or something like it; but in his advertisement, he certified that the medicine *prepared by him at his residence*, under the name of Velno's Vegetable Syrup, was precisely the same with that made and sold by the late Mr. Swainson.

The court considered that Jones merely attempted to show that he sold, not another person's medicine, but one of as good a quality.

III. A PERSON MAY BEAR THE SAME NAME AS THE MAKER OF AN ARTICLE, YET HE HAS NO RIGHT TO MAKE HIS GOODS AS AND FOR THE GOODS OF ANOTHER.

This was decided in a case where Mr. Sykes had made and sold shot-belts, powder-flasks, etc., which he was accustomed to mark with the words "Sykes's patent," although there was no patent attached to the articles.†

It was contended by a defendant, that, as his name also was Sykes, therefore he had a right to mark his goods with that name; and had also as much right to add the word "patent," as the plaintiff; but the court would not give in to this, and laid down the above principle.

IV. ALTHOUGH A PERSON MAY NOT HAVE AN EXCLUSIVE RIGHT TO A PARTICULAR MARK, YET ANOTHER SHALL NOT USE IT SO AS TO DECEIVE OR MISLEAD.

Thus, in a suit in England,‡ that embraced the manufacture of case-hardened ploughshares, Messrs. Ransome had been in the habit of not only using their name upon their articles, but also marked upon them the letters H. H., to denote the shares being case-hardened, and also with certain numbers, as No. 6, to denote their size. Aside from the matter of the name or style, the defendant, a Mr. Bentall, claimed the right of using the letters and figure H. H. 6.

The Vice Chancellor, Sir Lancelot Shadwell, said: "The defendant is in fact asking me to sanction the commission of a fraud. If he had been in the habit of marking his ploughs only with H. H. 6, and *if I could see the marks so placed that no person could be deceived in purchasing the ploughs*, then I might refuse the injunction as to that part of the ploughs.

* *Canham v. Jones*, 2 Vess. B., 218. In this case, as the foundation for the suit was the exclusive right asserted by the plaintiff, and he failed there, the consequential relief failed with it. However, as it appeared that Jones was in the habit of using verbally the plaintiff's name in various ways, in order to recommend and promote the sale of the medicine, it is believed that a bill, rightly framed, would have held to restrain his making use of the plaintiff's name and the simulated article for such a purpose.

† *Sykes v. Sykes*, 3 Barnwell & Cresswell's Rep., 541. S. C. Dowling & Ryland, 292.

‡ *Ransome v. Bentall*, Law Journal Reports (new series) vol. 3, p. 161.

But here the defendant wants me to decide, *ab ante*, that no possible use of H. H. 6, may not have the effect of misleading persons."

The court allowed an injunction, restraining not only the use of the particular style, letters and figures, but also "any words, letters and figures, which purported to represent that they were used by the complainants, etc."

In connection, we may add, that it has been decided,* that a watchmaker, having long used a Turkish word, in Turkish characters, engraved upon watches made by him for the foreign market, where they were in high estimation, and had great sale, had an exclusive right to the use of the distinguishing marks. It appeared that a Mr. Gout had long manufactured watches for the markets of Constantinople and other places in the Levant; and his watches had acquired great repute there, and a ready sale. They were distinguished from all others, not only by the names, but also by the word *cesendede*, (warranted,) impressed upon each in Turkish characters. Messrs. Parkinson and Frodsham had manufactured, and were exporting, together with two other persons, who gave them the order, a number of watches, with that distinguishing word upon them, and made also, in other respects, to resemble and pass for Mr. Gout's watches. Messrs. Parkinson and Frodsham tried to excuse themselves by showing that they were not aware that they had been counterfeiting Mr. Gout's watches; that they had been ordered to make a quantity of watches for export, and to impress on them the Turkish characters already mentioned. They, however, insisted that there was no law to prevent them from affixing the word "warranted" in Turkish, to their own watches, or limit the exclusive use of it to Mr. Gout.

The Vice Chancellor, before whom the matter was urged, decided, that Mr. Gout, under the circumstances, had acquired, by long previous usage, the exclusive right to designate his watches by this Turkish word, in Turkish characters; and that the object of affixing the same mark to the watches manufactured by the other parties was, no doubt, to make them pass for Mr. Gout's, the sale of which could not but be thereby injured.

V. WHERE A TRADE-MARK BELONGS TO A PARTNERSHIP, IT WILL, ON THE DEATH OF ONE PARTNER, SURVIVE TO THE REMAINING PARTNER, AND IS NOT TO BE USED BY THE NEXT OF KIN OF THE FORMER.

This came up in a proceeding in the English Court of Chancery relating to the well known pencils of Brookman and Langdon.† The original right had been in Messrs. Brookman and Langdon; and the right to use the style of the firm passing by agreement to the widow of Langdon, after his death, she carried on the business in copartnership with James Lewis, under the same style. It was decided that, on her death, the right to use the style of the firm passed by survivorship to the surviving partner Lewis, and not to the next of kin of the original manufacturer; and therefore, Lewis, continuing after Mrs. Langdon's death to carry on the business under the style of "Lewis & Co., successors to Brookman and Langdon," was held entitled to an injunction to restrain one A. Langdon, who claimed to be the next of kin of Langdon, the original pencil maker, from carrying on the business of pencil making, under the style of "Brookman and Langdon."

* Gout v. Parkinson and others, 5 London Legal Observer, (1833), p. 495.

† Lewis v. Langdon, 7 Sim. 421.

VI. A COURT OF CHANCERY WILL NOT PROTECT A TRADESMAN IN A MARK, WHO DOES NOT COME BEFORE THE COURT ON A CASE FOUNDED IN TRUTH.

This was decided where a person of the name of Pidding attempted to restrain one How from selling a certain mixed tea. In 1832, Pidding, the plaintiff, began to sell, in London, a mixed tea, composed of many different sorts of black tea, under the name of *Howqua's* mixture, in packages weighing a catty each, and having Chinese characters and the figures of a male and female Chinese on three of the sides, and a printed label, containing the words "*Howqua's* Mixture," and some other particulars relating to the tea, on the fourth side. How, the defendant, sold tea under the same name, and in packages with labels resembling those used by the plaintiff.

The case made by the plaintiff was, that the mixture in question was originally made by one of the Hong merchants at Canton, named Howqua, for his own private use; that the plaintiff, when he was at Canton, had been intimate with Howqua, and had frequently drunk tea made from the mixture, at his house; that, having ascertained the particular kind of tea which gave to the mixture its peculiar flavor, he, in 1832, purchased from Howqua, and brought to England, a large quantity of that tea, and also of other black teas, and made a mixture of them similar to that used by Howqua, and that he had continued to sell large quantities of it under the name and in the packages before mentioned.

The plaintiff, in his labels and advertisements, intimated that the mixture was *made by Howqua in Canton*, and was purchased from *him*, and imported into this country by the plaintiff, in the packages in which it was sold; that the tea, which gave it its peculiar flavor, was very rare and high-priced even in China, and was grown in only one province of that country, named Kyang Nan; and that it could not be procured in England at any price.

The affidavits on the defendant's behalf were made by persons, some of whom had been acquainted with Howqua. They stated that the mixed tea sold by the plaintiff as Howqua's mixture, was *neither made nor used by Howqua*; that it was composed of scented orange pekoe, (which gave it its peculiar flavor,) and of other black teas of the ordinary kinds; that orange pekoe was not considered in China to be one of the best teas; and that that sort of tea had been imported into and sold in England previously to 1832, and had been since, generally, imported and sold by persons engaged in the tea trade; that no black tea, but only green tea, was produced in the province of Kyang Nan; that the plaintiff did *not* purchase the teas from which the mixture was made, from Howqua, or import them from China, but that he purchased them *in England*, and that the packages in which the mixture was sold, were made, not in China, but *in England*.

The Vice Chancellor, before whom the above cause was tried, gave the following opinion:

"The view that I have taken of this case is this. The plaintiff having acquired, either by some communication from Howqua, or in some other manner, the method of compounding a mixed tea, which has been so agreeable to the public as to induce them to purchase it, began, some years ago, to sell it under the name of Howqua's mixture; and the defendant, finding that the plaintiff's mixture was in considerable demand, has recently be-

gun to sell a mixture of his own, which I take to be different from the plaintiff's, under the same designation. I apprehend that, *prima facie*, the defendant was not at liberty to do that. There has been, however, such a degree of representation, which I take to be false, held out to the public about the mode of procuring and making up the plaintiff's mixture, that, in my opinion, a Court of Equity ought not to interfere to protect the plaintiff, until he has established his title at law. As between the plaintiff and the defendant, the course pursued by the defendant has not been a proper one; but it is a clear rule, laid down by Courts of Equity, not to extend their protection to persons whose case is not founded in truth. And as the plaintiff in this case has thought fit to mix up that which may be true with that which is false, in introducing his tea to the public, my opinion is, that, unless he establish his title at law, the court cannot interfere on his behalf.

"What, therefore, I intend to do, is to dissolve the injunction, and to give the plaintiff liberty to bring such action as he may be advised. Let there be liberty to both parties to apply, and reserve the consideration of costs."

VII. A PERSON WHO HIRES A MANUFACTORY WHERE A PARTICULAR MARK HAS BEEN USED ON ARTICLES MADE THERE, AND WHO CONTINUES ITS USE, CANNOT, ON LEAVING AND SETTING UP ANOTHER FACTORY, HAVE AN EXCLUSIVE RIGHT TO CONTINUE SUCH MARK, EVEN THOUGH THE OLD PREMISES MAY, FOR A TIME, HAVE BEEN UNTENANTED.*

How far the owner of such old premises could restrain an outgoing tenant from continuing the use of such mark, has never been decided.

It seems unequitable that such a departing tenant should be able to do so, for the mark attached its value to the premises; and "no doubt," (as was remarked by the Court of Chancery, in the case from which we have drawn the above principle,) "when the owner came to dispose of the works again, the circumstance of the reputation which the manufacture of the works had acquired, would enable him to dispose of them on more advantageous terms."

VIII. A MAN WHO MAKES OR SELLS A SPURIOUS ARTICLE, WILL NOT BE PROTECTED, SIMPLY BECAUSE THOSE WHO DEAL WITH HIM KNOW BY WHOM IT IS MANUFACTURED.†

If this were allowed, it would give a power to a buyer and to retailers to sell the thing *ad infinitum*, as and for the article of the original maker.

This was well put by Assistant Vice Chancellor Sandford of the first Circuit of New York, in a case in which the author of this article acted as counsel.‡ It related to an imitation of J. & P. Coats's spool cotton thread. The defendants, among other things, attempted to excuse themselves on the ground that they explained the article to buyers. The court said: "But it is said, that upon their sale to the jobber, by whom it was again sold to the retailers, the defendants told the jobber truly, that it was an imitation of Coats's thread; in short, that they sold it as a spurious article. But what then? Did they imagine that the jobber would be equally frank and communicative to the retail merchants and shop-keep-

* *Motley v. Downman*, 3 Mylne & Craig's R.

† *Sykes v. Sykes*, 2 Barnwell & Cresswell's Rep., 541. S. C. 5 Dowlings & Ryland, 292.

‡ *Coats v. Holbrook and others*, M. S.

ers, and that every one of the latter would carefully inform every person that bought a spool, that the thread was an imitation of Coats's, made in New Jersey, and only three cord, instead of six? The idea is preposterous. Trade-marks, names, labels, etc., are not forged, counterfeited or imitated with any such honest design or expectation. McGregor's thread was labelled and stamped with Coats's name and mark, so that it might be palmed off upon the consumer as being made by Coats; and every man who sold it, whether he made five per cent or fifty per cent, by the operation, lent himself to the perpetration of the fraud."

IX. ALTHOUGH A MANUFACTURER ADOPTS AN OLD MARK OR NAME IN THE HONEST BELIEF THAT IT DESIGNATES ONLY THE PARTICULAR MATERIAL OR SPECIES OF THING ON WHICH IT IS PLACED, AND USES IT IN IGNORANCE OF ITS BEING ANY THING MORE THAN A TECHNICAL TERM, YET THE COURT WILL ENJOIN HIM, PROVIDED IT BE THE TRADE-MARK OF ANOTHER.

This principle came out in a suit in the English chancery, connected with what is known in the market by the name of *Crowley Steel* and *Crowley, Millington, Steel*.* It appeared that the business carried on by Messrs. Millington was originally founded at the end of the seventeenth century, or in the early part of the eighteenth century, by a person of the name of *Crowley*, who invented or introduced a particular mode of manufacturing steel, which had ever since been followed by the Messrs. Millington, and those whom they succeeded in business. The words forming the mark were "*Crowley*," and "*Crowley, Millington*," with "*I. H.*," being the initials of the name of John Heppel, the principal workman in the plaintiff's employ. The defendants were Messrs. Fox, Brothers. They very clearly showed to the court that they had used the marks in ignorance of their being trade-marks, and pointed out how they supposed them to be technical terms:—that, by the term "*Crowley*" Steel, the defendants always understood tilted, rolled, or single shear or sheared steel, made up in a bundle of one hundred weight, and manufactured from a bar of steel, and by the term "*Crowley Millington*" steel, shear or sheared steel, made up in bundles of one hundred weight, and manufactured from several bars. And also they did not know that the letters "*I. H.*" had any other significance than as being one of the ordinary marks used among steel manufacturers throughout the kingdom for a long course of years.

When the case first came before the court, the Lord Chancellor expressed an opinion that the plaintiffs had made out a case which entitled them to an injunction; and afterwards his honor observed: "I see no reason to believe that there has, in this case, been a fraudulent use of the plaintiffs' marks. It is positively denied by the answer; and there is no evidence to show that the defendants were even aware of the existence of the plaintiffs as a company manufacturing steel; for, although there is no evidence to show that the terms '*Crowley*' and '*Crowley Millington*' were merely technical terms, yet there is sufficient to show that they were very generally used, in conversation at least, as descriptive of particular qualities of steel. In short, it does not appear to me that there was any fraudulent intention in the use of the marks. That circumstance, however, does not deprive the plaintiffs of their right to the exclusive use of those names," &c.

* *Millington v. Fox*, 3 Mylne and Craig, 338.

X. WHERE A MANUFACTURER EXECUTES ORDERS RECEIVED FROM A FOREIGN CORRESPONDENT, IN THE ORDINARY COURSE OF HIS BUSINESS, AND WITHOUT A KNOWLEDGE THAT THE MARKS WHICH HE IS INDUCED TO USE ARE THE TRADE-MARKS OF ANOTHER, NO LIABILITY, BY WAY OF DAMAGES, WILL ATTACH TO HIM.

William Crawshay was an iron manufacturer in South Wales; and William Thompson and others were also manufacturers in the neighborhood. It is the custom in the iron trade for the different iron masters to mark the iron made by them with a peculiar mark of their own. Since the peace in Europe of 1815, a large trade for iron had grown up between this country and Turkey and Greece, (which had previously been supplied by Russia,) and Crawshay's iron, marked (W. C.,) was in great estimation in the Turkish market, where the mark in question was generally known as "the comb mark." It appeared to be the custom for several merchants to order iron from different English manufacturers, stamped with particular marks, differing from their own private marks. In the year 1837, the defendants received from a Mr. Kerr, a Turkish merchant in London, an order for a quantity of iron to be shipped by a certain vessel, and such iron was directed to be stamped W., with a little o in an oval ($\overline{W^o}$). This order was executed; but the stamp was made W. with a dot in an oval ($\overline{W\cdot}$). Mr. Crawshay happening to be there at the time, saw some of the iron so marked, and remonstrated with the defendants' manager on the alleged similarity of the mark to his own. No further notice was taken at that time; and the defendants, in execution of other orders, continued to supply iron stamped with the foregoing letters, which were afterwards varied according to orders, to W. with a large O.

The Chief Justice who tried the cause left it to the jury to say: first, whether they were satisfied that the defendants' mark bore such a close resemblance to Crawshay's as, in its own nature, was calculated to deceive the unwary or persons who were moderately skilled in the article, and to injure the sale of Crawshay's goods; and, secondly, what was the intention of the defendants in using the mark complained of—whether it was for the purpose of supplanting Crawshay, or done in the usual course of trade, and in execution of foreign orders sent to their house; because, the judge said, it seemed to him, that, *unless there were such a fraudulent intention existing, (at least before notice,) and it were proved to the satisfaction of the jury, the defendants would not be liable.* In this particular case the jury found for the defendants.*

It may, however, be observed, that although in a similar case no damages might be had, or even a verdict at law be obtained in favor of a plaintiff, yet an injunction in chancery to restrain the use of an established mark would hold.

XI. A MANUFACTURER CAN, NEVERTHELESS, BE RESTRAINED BY INJUNCTION IN THE USE OF ANOTHER'S TRADE-MARK, EVEN THOUGH THE ARTICLE IS NOT TO BE SOLD IN THE HOME MARKET.

This was decided in the case of the *Crowley Steel* before mentioned: for, there, the defendants showed that they had not sold any such steel in the English market, as their business lay entirely with North America, whither they exported steel. The same point, as it will have been seen,

* *Crawshay v. Thompson and others*, 4. *Manning v. Granger*, 357.

occurred in the case of the Turkish word upon the watches. There they were made for a foreign market.

XII. A TRADESMAN, WHOSE MARK IS WRONGFULLY USED, CAN RECOVER SOME DAMAGES, EVEN THOUGH HE DOES NOT PROVE THE INFERIORITY OF THE ARTICLE OF THE WRONG-DOER.

Such damages at law are given for the invasion of the right by the fraud of another.*

In one case, at law, the judge, on the trial, put it as a question to the jury, whether the defendants' article was of inferior quality? This was no doubt done with reference to their calculation of the amount of damages; for his honor at the same time stated to the jury, that even if the defendants' goods were not inferior, the plaintiff was entitled to some damages, inasmuch as his right had been invaded by the fraudulent act of the defendants.

And the court of chancery has decided, that it is immaterial whether the simulated article is or is not of equal goodness and value to the genuine.†

XIII. THE DECEIT NEED NOT BE STAMPED OR LETTERED UPON THE BODY OF THE ARTICLE ITSELF. IT MAY BE UPON SOMETHING THAT HOLDS IT.

Thus, in a case relating to metallic hones, the inventor and manufacturer used certain envelopes for the same, denoting them to be his, while other persons, as was alleged, wrongfully made other hones, wrapped them in similar envelopes, and sold them as his own.‡ In this suit, on a motion for a new trial, one of the judges (Patteson) observed: "It is clear the verdict ought to stand. The defendants used the plaintiff's envelope, and pretended it was their own: they had no right to do that, and the plaintiff was entitled to recover some damages in consequence."

XIV. A FOREIGN MERCHANT HAS A RIGHT TO THE PROTECTION OF HIS MARK AND NAME UPON GOODS EQUAL WITH A RESIDENT AND CITIZEN.

This point was expressly raised in a case before Judge Story, but, as it has been said in another suit, he scouted the idea. It was also attempted to be pressed in the case relating to J. & P. Coats's thread, to which we have before adverted, as well as in another chancery proceeding, before Chancellor Walworth, which also related to spool-thread.

The fraud upon the buyers, in such a case, is just as apparent as in any other, while it would be hard that the original maker should have no right and no remedy, merely because he lives at a distance. The very circumstance of that distance should rather tell in his favor. The greatest minds have thrown their usefulness to the greatest distance.

In the case before Judge Story, his honor said: "First, it is suggested that the plaintiffs are aliens. Be it so; but in the Courts of the United States, under the constitution and laws, they are entitled, being alien friends, to the same protection of their rights as citizens. There is no pretence to say, that if a similar false imitation and use of the labels of a citizen put upon his own manufactured articles, had been designedly and fraudulently perpetrated and acted upon, it would not have been an invasion of his rights, for which our laws would have granted ample redress. There is no difference between the case of a citizen and that of an alien friend, where his rights are openly violated."

* *Blofield v. Payne*, 4. Barnwell and Adolphus, 410.

† *Taylor v. Carpenter*, M. S. before Chancellor Walworth, 3. December, 1844.

‡ *Blofield v. Payne*, 4. Barnwell and Adolphus, 410.

Our Chancellor Walworth, in the proceedings before him, observed: "The fact that the complainants are subjects of another government, and the defendant is a citizen of the United States, as stated in the answer, cannot alter the rights of the parties, or deprive the complainants of the favorable interposition of this court, if those rights have been violated by the defendant. So far as the subject matter of the suit is concerned, there is no difference between citizens and aliens. And the only question proper to be considered is, whether the defendant has the right, as he insists he has, to pirate the trade-marks of the complainants with impunity, and to palm off upon the community a simulated article as the genuine," &c.

The courts have carried the rules we have laid down beyond mere trade-marks upon goods, (as, indeed, we have already shown in the case of quack medicines.) They have decided in relation to magazines and newspapers, that a rival shall not assume a similar title for the fraudulent purpose of imposing upon the public, and of supplanting the original publisher and owner.*

But, our article must end here; for we believe we have referred to every important case bearing upon trade-marks.

ART. IV.—THE WINE DISTRICTS OF PORTUGAL AND MADEIRA.

THE Portuguese wine is principally the well known Port. It is shipped from Oporto, and may hence derive its name either from the country, or from the city. We will first notice, from Dr. Henderson's work, the chief points in the cultivation of the district, and then glance at the regulations which have given such an artificial tone to the port-wine trade.

The wine country, or district of the Cima de Douro, or Upper Douro, commences about fifty miles from the harbor of Oporto, and presents a succession of hills on both sides of the river, which afford the choicest exposures, and such loose and crumbling soils as have been shown to be most propitious to the culture of the vine. The whole of this district is under the superintendence of a chartered company, called the "General Company for the Cultivation of the Vineyards of the Alto Douro." The vintages are usually divided into two principal classes, viz: factory wines, (*vinhos da feitoria*,) and secondary wines, (*vinhos de ramo*.) The factory wines are again divided into *vinhos de embarque*, or assorted wines, for exportation to England; *vinhos separados*, or assorted wines for exportation to the Portuguese colonies, or other foreign countries, or for home consumption. The *vinhos de ramo* are used partly for distillation, and partly for the supply of the taverns in Oporto, etc.

In the territory of the Cima de Douro, the vines are in general kept low, and trained on poles. Many different species are cultivated, some of which are for producing a wine of strong and full body, while others are destined for a milder and sweeter wine. As soon as the grapes begin to shrivel, they are gathered and introduced into broad and shallow vats, where they are trodden along with stalks; and this operation is repeated several times during the fermentation, which, in the case of the superior wines, continues about seventy-two hours. When the liquor has ceased to ferment, it is removed into large tuns, containing from eight to

* *Hogg v. Kirby*, 8 Vesey, 213; *Snowden v. Noah*, 1 Hopkins, 347; *Bell v. Locke*, 8 Paige's C. R. 75.

twenty pipes each. After the fair of the Douro, which commonly takes place in the beginning of February, the wine is racked into pipes, for the purpose of being conveyed down the river into the stores of the factory or of the wine-merchants at Oporto. To that which is reserved for exportation, a quantity of brandy is added when deposited in *armazens* or stores; and a second portion is thrown in before it is shipped, which is generally about twelve months after the vintage.

The establishment of the wine company at Oporto, arose out of the adulteration which some of the merchants effected on the wine, by adding to it a larger quantity of brandy than is ever put in any other sort of wine. But this establishment, good in its origin, soon produced very pernicious effects. In the beginning of the last century, a commercial treaty was made between England and Portugal, by which England offered to the wine of Portugal a decided advantage in her markets, on condition that Portugal took her woollens; and this led to a great export of Portugal wines to England. Down to about the year 1720, no brandy was added to the Oporto wines; but after that time the practice of so adulterating them, under the plea of making them bear the voyage better, came into vogue, and increased to a great degree. The English factors of Oporto addressed in 1754 a letter to their agents in the Alto Douro, complaining that "the grower, at the time of the vintage, is in the habit of checking the fermentation of the wines too soon, by putting brandy into them whilst fermenting." This complaint, and others about the same time, probably led to the formation of the company; for the quality of the wine became by adulteration so bad, that the demand for it lessened, the market price lowered, and the cultivators began to experience distress. Upon this, certain individuals at Oporto, in conjunction with the proprietors of the vineyards, succeeded in persuading the Portuguese government to sanction the formation of a joint-stock company, for the protection of the wine-trade of the district. The professed objects of these persons were, "to encourage the culture of the vineyards; to secure the reputation of the wines, and the support of both the one and the other by fixed prices; to promote in consequence inland and foreign commerce; and finally, to insure the preservation of the health of his majesty's subjects."

By royal letters patent, granted by the government of Portugal, these persons were authorized to form a company, with a capital of one million eight hundred thousand crowns. Among the better points of their charter were the following: First—that the district calculated for the growth of the export wines should be marked out, and the mixture of those wines with others from without the boundary prohibited. Second—That no one should be permitted to cover the vines with litter; as that operation, though it considerably augmented the produce, tended to deteriorate the quality of the wine. Third—That in the manufacture of the wine, no one should use elder-berries; which not only gave it a false and evanescent color, but also changed its natural flavor; (the planting of the elder being at the same time forbidden within the line of demarcation, and orders given to extirpate the plants that already existed.) Fourth—That after each vintage, a list should be made out of the number of pipes in every cellar within the district; and that the wine-tasters of the company, and others to be nominated by the farmers, should prove them, and arrange them in classes, distinguishing such as were fit for exportation, and delivering to the proprietors a corresponding ticket."

These were the more favorable points connected with the company's privileges ; but the unfavorable ones came into play gradually, and wrought great mischief in many ways. The powers were intended to guard the quality and fitness of the Douro wines generally ; but the company continued to interpret these powers to their own advantage, despite the injurious effect which resulted in other quarters. One of the evils is thus commented on by Dr. Henderson : "It must be evident to every one possessed of common understanding, that no greater absurdity could have been imagined, than to mark out a district of several leagues in extent, exhibiting a great variety of soils and exposures, as the only territory capable of producing wines for exportation ; especially, when it was known that many of the growths within the line of demarcation were of inferior quality, while others without that boundary were of first-rate excellence. One obvious effect of this senseless enactment, has been to encourage smuggling on the borders ; for those farmers whose lands produce only light wines, must naturally be tempted to improve them, and render them fit for purchase, by an admixture with the common ramo wines, which they can always procure at a low price, and import without much risk of detection." The company also possessed the power of fixing a maximum price for the wines of the district ; a power which thus affected the agriculturalist : "If on favorable soils, and in propitious seasons, any superior wines were produced, it did not accord with the views of the company, that these wines should be sent to its customers in their original purity ; as it was more advantageous to conceal the existence of them, and to use them for mixing with inferior sorts. The cultivator, therefore, of such fortunate growths, not being remunerated for his greater outlay, or for the superior skill and industry which he might have displayed in the management of his vineyard, could have no inducement to continue his exertions, but would henceforth content himself with raising, at the least possible expense, the greatest possible quantity of a middling quality, or such as he could most readily dispose of under the name of export wines."

The increase in the consumption of the wine of Oporto, in England, found (by Redding, in his history of wines,) in comparing the consumption of the first ten years of the 18th century, with the like number of years of the present century, is striking ; it is as follows :

	Tuns.	Hhds.	Galls.
Wines imported in England from 1700 to 1710,.....	81,293	0	9
“ “ 1800 to 1810,.....	222,022	2	25

The non-export of pure wine from Oporto, first took place about 1715. It was then the Portuguese first begun to mingle brandy with the wines they sent to England. About this time the British government laid a duty of £55 5s., or \$276 per tun upon French wines ; while Portuguese wines were admitted at £7 5s. 3d. a tun. There is, says Redding, no necessity to search for any other reason why Port wine is now so generally drank in England. It was no intrinsic worth in the wines themselves, which introduced them into England, but the enormous difference between the duties on French and other wines, and those of Portugal. Custom has since hallowed them, and they are not likely to lose much ground for many generations, even should they get worse instead of better. "Englishmen," says Redding, an Englishman, "are wedded to long usages, and numbers believe Port wine is the only real wine in the world, and shiver wherever

Romanée Conti or Lafitte is named." In 1730, Port wine was sold in England at fifty cents the bottle, and white wine of Portugal at the same price.

The total export of wines from Oporto for a period of ten years, from 1824 to 1833, was as follows :

	ENGLAND. Pipes.	OTHER PORTS. Pipes.	TOTAL. Pipes.
1824,.....	19,968	6,149	26,117
1825,.....	40,277	170	40,477
1826,.....	18,310	287	18,597
1827,.....	24,207	10,030	34,237
1828,.....	27,932	13,295	41,227
1829,.....	17,832	7,539	25,371
1830,.....	19,333	4,832	24,165
1831,.....	20,171	3,268	23,439
1832,.....	13,573	2,977	16,550
1833,.....	19,432	1,063	20,495

The quantity of pure Port wine imported into the United States is very small.

The other kinds of Portuguese wine, such as that of Lisbon, known by that name, and Bucellas, produced a few miles from Lisbon, are of comparatively small sale and importance; but the wine of Madeira, which may be regarded as a part of Portugal, has a few peculiarities about it worthy of notice.

The vine was cultivated in Madeira with a view to vintage four centuries ago; but till the latter end of the seventeenth century its wine was not much known out of the island. In 1689, a writer describes the hills as being covered with vines, from which wine was made, and that this wine was brought to the towns in hog-skins, upon asses' backs. At the present day, numerous varieties of grapes are grown on the island, some of which will bear for sixty years. The vines are planted in lines in the vineyards in front of the houses, upon trellis-work seven feet high; the branches are conducted over the tops, so as to be exposed horizontally to the sun's action; thus affording a canopy to those who walk under them, and yielding a shade very acceptable in a hot climate. On the north side of the island, the vines are trained up chestnut-trees, to shelter them from the violence of the wind. Some of these vines are grown on elevations nearly three thousand feet high, and wine is made at an elevation of two thousand.

The mode of making the wine is usually this. For the best qualities, the fruit is gathered at different times, and carefully picked; the unripe and damaged portions being set apart for the manufacture of an inferior wine. The operation of treading is performed in a trough formed of strong planks, or excavated in a lava rock, and the juice thus obtained is called *vinho da flor*. The bruised grapes are then placed within the coils of a thick rope, made of the twisted shoots of the vine, and subjected to the action of the press, which gives the second quality of must. This is usually mixed with the former, and the whole is fermented in casks containing one pipe each. A few pounds of baked gypsum are thrown in, as soon as the fermentation commences; and while it lasts, the liquor is stirred once a day with a large flat stick, in order to accelerate the process. On account of the mountainous nature of the country, the grapes are sometimes pressed in one place and fermented in another, to which they are conveyed on men's backs, either in goat-skins or in small barrels. The

fruit is ripe by the first week in September; and by the second week of November the vine is expected to be clear.

The meaning of the names "East India" and "West India" Madeira, will be gathered from the following remarks by Mr. Redding: "Madeira wine must attain age on the island, if it be not sent a voyage to a warmer climate, to gain its utmost excellence through a perfect decomposition of the saccharine principle. The expense of a voyage to the East Indies for this purpose is superfluous, as motion and heat will do it in any climate, and complete the decomposition of the principle which tends to fermentation. A pipe of Madeira has been attached to the beam of a steam-engine in the engine-house, where the temperature is always high, and the motion continual, and in a year it could not be known from the choicest East India."

Madeira wine is one of those which bears age remarkably well, and the wine has not yet been drunk too old. Its flavor and aroma perfect themselves by years. There is no mixture of any kind, but a little brandy on exportation, made to Madeira wine of the first growth, for any purpose whatever; almonds and various additions are used to bring up the character of the inferior growths to the standard of the first, and impose them upon the world for that which they are not. Some imagine the character of the wines to have deteriorated of late years, but there seems no reasonable ground for the supposition. Inferior growths have been imposed upon buyers for those of the first class; and there was naturally a reaction, as there must be with Sherry wines from the same cause, namely, inferior classes having been forced into the market from an unnatural demand.

Malmsey is a very rich wine made in Madeira, and is produced from a grape which will only flourish in one small spot in the island.

Art. V.—MINERAL WEALTH AND RESOURCES OF VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW."

SIR—I am indebted to the kindness of a friend for the perusal of the January number of your valuable work. In it I find a short notice of the coal, iron, gold, and copper of Virginia, with a request from you for additional information on the mineral resources of the state. In the communication I design to make, it is not my purpose to attempt anything beyond a very concise view of the subject, as none other would be admissible in a work like the "Merchants' Magazine." I am induced to give the information, though I know there are others much more competent, in the hope that even a very imperfect article on the subject may do some service to my state.

That portion of Virginia known as the tide-water district, like all the seaboard country south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is barren in minerals; but even there, nature has not withheld other favors, than those which meet the eye of the casual observer. Throughout this whole region, extensive beds of marl are found, waiting for the hand of industry to use them in restoring the exhausted fields, which the improvident agriculture of our ancestors have entailed upon their descendants, and which, I fear, will be bequeathed to another generation, a still more worthless inheritance.

If we draw a line across the state, from Maryland to North Carolina,

passing the Potomac, Rappahannock, James, Appomattox, and Roanoke rivers, at the head of tide-water, we divide two important sections of Virginia, whether we consider their topographical features, or general geological structure. West of this line, to the summit of the Blue Ridge mountains, is what is termed "the middle country." This district possesses many striking advantages for the agriculturist, as well as inducements for the investment of capital in mining and manufacturing. The most important mineral formation of this region, is the bituminous coal. This coal-field commences one mile east of Tuckahoe Creek, and twelve above Richmond, (measured by the line of the James and Kanawha River Canal, which passes through that portion of the field, north of James river;) its western limit is on the head waters of Jones' Creek, in Powhatan—the northern out-cross near the line, dividing Henrico and Hanover counties—to the south it extends to the Appomattox, and very probably beyond it. Within these limits, coal is mined at many places; and in some, the workings are quite extensive. On the north side of the river, the mines of Messrs. Croucher and Sneads, Randolph's, Barr's, Woodward's, Barr and Daton's, and Duval's, are the principal. On the south side, the Blackheath, Mid-Lothian, Mills and Reed's, Stonehenge, and Jallei's, are the most extensive. The Clover-Hill mines are now worked to a sufficient extent to attract attention to the very excellent coal which they yield. The coals from this field, both north and south of James river, will compare advantageously with the bituminous coals both of this country and Great Britain, as is shown by Professor Johnson's Report to the Secretary of the Navy, "On the Évaporative and other Properties of Coals," made in June, 1844.*

In this coal-field are found extensive beds of a mineral, which Professor Rogers calls natural coal; it is a valuable fuel, being found by analysis to contain 80.30 of carbon, in the 100 grains. Iron ores, in small veins, exist in this locality; but none have yet been discovered of sufficient importance to authorize the erection of smelting furnaces. North of the coal-field, in Spottsylvania and Louisa, there are several large deposits of iron ores. At the places of greatest development, viz: near Louisa courthouse, and ten miles west of Fredericksburg, the smelting of these ores is successfully prosecuted. I would here remark, that near the present location of one of these furnaces, on the Rappahannock river, was smelted the first iron that was sent from the colony of Virginia to Great Britain; the furnace was erected by Alexander Spotswood, who was governor of Virginia, in 1710.

The next important deposit is in Buckingham, five miles south of the village of New Canton. In that vicinity a furnace was in operation during the revolution; but was discontinued shortly thereafter. In 1834 the works were rebuilt, and have been since extensively operated. There are other deposits of ore in Buckingham, near Williams mountain, and on the head waters of Stall river. In Nelson county, there is one smelting furnace; in Campbell, two; in both of these counties the deposits of ore are extensive. In Patrick Henry, Franklin, and Pittsylvania, the production of

* Extract from Professor Johnson's Report, page 598:—"It will not fail to be remarked, that the justly celebrated foreign bituminous coals of New Castle, Liverpool, Scotland, Pictou, and Sydney—coals which constitute the present reliance of the great lines of Atlantic steamers—are fully equalled, or rather surpassed in strength, by the analogous coals of Eastern Virginia."

iron has attracted some attention. Limestone is not abundant in this region; it is found in Albemarle, Amherst, Nelson, and Campbell, and also in Patrick Henry and Franklin.

Through this division of the state passes what has been called "the Gold Belt." Commencing in Spottsylvania, it extends through Louisa, part of Goochland, Fluvanna, Buckingham, Prince Edward's, Charlotte, and Pittsylvania. Vast sums of money have been expended in searching for the treasures of this region; and while some rich deposits were occasionally discovered, it has been, upon the whole, a disastrous employment of labor and capital.

Small veins of copper ore are said to exist in Fauquier and Amherst; but I believe they are found to be so minute as to be of no practical use. In Buckingham county, near the Virginia mills, there are extensive quarries of slate, admirably adapted for economical purposes; this is not properly a mineral, but may, I think, with propriety be mentioned in this connection. There are many other minerals in this region, but they are of that class, interesting only to the geologist.

Throughout this whole district there is a most abundant supply of excellent stone for building; granite, near the head of tide and in Bedford county; with sienite, gneiss, and sand-stone, more generally diffused. Middle Virginia possesses another great element of wealth to a people having such resources in coals and iron ores, which form the basis of manufacturing industry, in the unrivalled water-power afforded by her principal rivers, in passing from the great elevation at which their sources are found, to the ocean. At either Fredericksburg, Richmond, Petersburg, or the falls of the Roanoke, all the factories of Lowell or Paterson might be propelled. These are the prominent points; but along the James River Canal, from Richmond to Lynchburg, there are many localities where manufacturing towns and villages might be located to great advantage. At Lynchburg, being the western terminus of the canal, and the point at which all the iron of Botetourt, Bath, Rockbridge, and Alleghany comes, to be transported to the markets of the Atlantic seaboard, it would seem these advantages were very attractive; yet but little has been attempted in manufacturing by the citizens of that wealthy, and, in some respects, enterprising town.

I will next glance at the mineral resources of the third great division of the state; that portion so well known as "the valley of Virginia." To do justice to this delightful region, would require the pen of a much abler writer than your humble correspondent, and much more space than could be asked in your valuable journal. I will therefore, as I have said, merely glance at her mineral resources. For the production and manufacture of iron of the most superior quality, the counties between the Blue Ridge and Alleghany mountains have unrivalled advantages, in abundance of ores, fuel, water-power, cheap subsistence for laborers and animals, and a climate as salubrious as any on the globe. The excellent quality of the iron of this region is not mere matter of opinion, but is established by authority of the most conclusive character. The records of the ordnance office of the army and the bureau of ordnance for the navy, bear testimony to the great strength of the cannon made from the iron smelted at the old Clover Dale furnace, and that of Messrs. Shanks and Anderson, both at Botetourt. In like manner the proof boat of malleable iron at the Washington navy yard, sustains the reputation of the Virginia iron manufactured

at the Tradegar works in Richmond. Some recent experiments have been made in Boston by Mr. Alger, so well known as an iron manufacturer, which have resulted in showing that the pig iron from the Roaring Run furnace (also in Botetourt,) is remarkably adapted for all foundry purposes. Within the last year excellent steel has been made at Richmond from iron manufactured at the Buffalo forge in Rockbridge, of pig metal from Weaver and Newkirk's furnace in Bath county. In Pulaski county, the Messrs. Graham are manufacturing cut nails of superior quality. In Montgomery, Wythe, and Washington, bituminous coal is found in the same locality with iron ores of good quality; but no furnaces have yet been erected to use that fuel in smelting these ores. This coal formation extends into Botetourt county, where a vein of four feet has been opened, near the Catawba furnace; but not mined to any extent. In Wythe, lead ores have been smelted with much success. The lead is wagoned to Lynchburg, from whence it finds its way to the northern markets, where it meets with ready sale, and is considered equal to any produced elsewhere in the United States. Extensive beds of gypsum are found in Washington, Wythe, and Granger, which is not inferior to that so extensively imported from Nova Scotia. In Washington county, on the waters of the Houlsten river, extensive salt-works have long been in operation, and have proved productive investments to their owners, as well as of great advantage to that community.

I will not lengthen this communication by any reflections on this mere enumeration of some of the treasures which Virginia possesses in this delightful valley; nor on the short-sighted policy which causes them, for want of lines of transport to market, to a great extent to remain where nature placed them, but will proceed to a rapid view of the fourth great division of my state, the Transalleghany counties.

If nature has dealt out her riches with stint to other parts of Virginia, she has dispensed them here most profusely. Western Virginia is like the "great west," with which she is connected geographically, and in political destiny, is almost superabundantly supplied with all the elements of national wealth. I shall not digress to notice the fertility of the soil, nor the mild and salubrious climate with which this region is so eminently blessed; but will in very general terms notice the extent of her possessions in coal, iron ores, which forms the basis of England's manufacturing wealth, if not her national grandeur.

The great American coal-field which commences in Pennsylvania, and extends to the Mississippi, and even beyond it, enters Virginia in Preston and Monongalia counties, and passes across the state into Kentucky and Tennessee. Over this entire region, coal is found associated with iron ores in almost numberless localities. Iron-works of considerable extent have been established on Monongalia river, and in Wheeling and its vicinity. Coal is mined in many places for the use of those works, and for consumption in the cities on the Ohio; and no inconsiderable quantity goes to New Orleans as domestic fuel.

Near Charleston, on the Great Kanawha, salt is made in vast quantities to supply the Western States.

I am admonished, by casting my eyes over what I have written, that I am appropriating more of your pages than I fear will be acceptable to your readers, and I will therefore conclude with the hope that the subject will be resumed by some one more competent to afford the information you desired to obtain.

D.

ART. VI.—THE CHINESE MUSEUM IN BOSTON.

THE collection of the Chinese Museum, which is now open for public exhibition in the city of Boston, although not the first, is yet the largest that has ever been imported into the United States. The cabinet of the late Mr. Dunn, of a similar character, which was deposited in the city of Philadelphia, for the inspection of the public in 1839, was removed to the city of London, and these two are the only collections of this sort now known to be in existence; the present being the most considerable in the world. It embraces groups, presenting views of different forms in life, from the imperial court, through successive stages of society; the administration of justice, the different modes of travel, the practical exercise of the useful arts, commerce and agriculture, down to the peculiar kind of warfare which exists among that singular people; together with the various species of their manufactures, and indeed everything calculated to throw light upon Chinese character and institutions. We here have specimens of their shops, vessels, houses, lanterns, temples, tombs, bridges and paintings, and the innumerable products of industry, both useful and ornamental, which have peculiarly distinguished this ancient people. It is our design to show briefly the prominent features of this exhibition, by specifying the principal articles which it contains.

The entrance to the hall of the Museum, which is in the Marlboro' Chapel, is decorated with Chinese designs, being painted and gilded, and illustrated with such mottos as are calculated to distinguish the peculiar national character of the collection.

In the first place, we arrive at an apartment containing a group, the size of life, exhibiting the emperor and the principal personages of the imperial court, all the figures being covered with gold and silk embroidery; and in the next case, is the empress, accompanied by several ladies, the wives of mandarins of the several ranks, also richly clothed, with their attendants; adjoining this group, is a court of justice, where all the appliances of the law are administered, and a culprit is seen suffering the penalty of his crimes. In the fourth case, is a group representing a school, priests of the various religious sects, and paintings of numerous Chinese duties, as well as a tomb, mourning-dress, and mourning-lanterns. Another apartment portrays a domestic scene, namely, a Chinaman smoking opium, and his wife; and a female attendant with tea, all in a room such as is frequently occupied by individuals in that condition of life, with tables, chairs, book-case, made of bamboo; the walls adorned with paintings, lanterns hanging from the ceiling, and door-screen embroidered with gold.

We now arrive at the store of a merchant, which is alleged to be an exact representation of a mercantile establishment in Canton, where we find the same circumstances represented, as most commonly exist in the shops of that city at the present time. There are also presented views of Chinese modes of warfare, which clearly indicate the obtuseness or the obstinacy of the nation, in adhering to those instruments which it is obvious cannot successfully compete with the approved instruments of war in our own age. The next case gives us an accurate representation of an agricultural scene, in which is a man ploughing with a buffalo, as well as the various implements which are used for winnowing, irrigation, and other matters connected with husbandry. We also have a group in the collection, repre-

senting a carpenter, a blacksmith, and a shoemaker, each employed in his appropriate occupation. A tanka boat, pagoda, lacquered baskets, and other articles of a similar character, are in the next case.

But one of the most interesting parts of the exhibition, is that of the porcelain manufacture. It is well known that the Chinese empire has been long distinguished for the variety and elegance of its manufactures of porcelain, the article itself being most frequently named after the nation in which it was first made. There is here exhibited almost every variety of this product of Chinese industry, some of it of the most elegant and costly kind. Following this, there are also represented the various musical instruments which are used in China, including the gong, which it is well known has been introduced into our own country. The different species of cards, and ornamented as well as other paper, constitute a curious part of the exhibition; for it will be remembered that the Chinese are peculiarly scrupulous in all those matters which appertain to etiquette and ceremony. A model of a summer-house, a silk-store, a China-ware and curiosity-shop, comprise a portion of the collection, that will be of great interest to the mercantile portion of the visitors; and various enameled articles of a light kind, indicate the excellence to which the Chinese have carried this branch of their manufactures.

A model of a canal-boat, similar to that in which the tea is transported from the interior to the places of shipment at Canton and other ports on the seaboard, exhibits the species of vessels which are employed to a great extent upon the inland waters and canals of the empire, where they are either pushed along by men with bamboo poles, or are tracked with ropes. In addition to this, is a model of the junks which are employed in the commerce of China, especially in the coasting trade. The sails of these, like those of other Chinese vessels, are composed of mats, the ropes and cables of split rattans, and the husk of the cocoa-nut, and the anchors of a hard wood named by the Chinese "iron-wood." The Chinese trading junks are very curiously managed; besides the captain or pilot, is the principal owner, or agent of the owner; the captain or pilot sits almost continually on the weather side of the vessel, observing the coast, and seldom sleeping. Although he possesses the nominal command of the vessel, yet the sailors obey him or not as they please, and there is but little discipline or subordination in the conduct of the crew. Next to the pilot, is the helmsman, and there is also employed a purchaser of provisions, as well as clerks for the cargo; and another individual is engaged, whose business it is to attend to the offerings at the religious shrines. Each individual is a shareholder, with the privilege of placing a certain amount of goods on board; and it is obvious that in such a state of things, there can be but little of prosperous navigation, or of successful seamanship.

There is also presented in the Museum, a model of a hong-boat, and a mandarin-boat or revenue-cutter, whose ostensible object is to prevent the smuggling of opium, but which is more frequently employed in assisting its operations, or, at all events, in collecting a certain amount of taxes from the smugglers, by the mandarins who have such boats in charge. In addition to those several prominent articles that we have enumerated, are many smaller, the product of manufactures, and which are variously used in domestic life and the arts, together with models of theatres, a Buddhist Temple, colored lanterns, and numerous other things which are employed in domestic use, or that constitute staples of domestic export. We

would especially designate the numerous paintings, exhibiting in their execution the peculiar character of that class of Chinese productions.

In the various specimens of Chinese labor which are here collected, we perceive the products of a nation, which, notwithstanding its crowded population, possesses within itself all the resources of independence, without the absolute necessity of foreign commerce. The principal staples of import to our own country, which formerly consisted of silks, China-ware, and tea, have constituted a principal portion of the trade which we have prosecuted with that country up to this present time. The import of tea, it is well known, must continue, from the very great and increasing use of that staple with us; but from the manufacture of China-ware and silk elsewhere, their import to this country have been of late somewhat diminishing.

The recent difficulties which have sprung up between that nation and the British government, whatever might have been the merits of the question between them, there is no doubt, have induced such a negotiation, as to place the commerce of China with foreign nations upon a more permanent and solid basis. In consequence of the arbitrary and capricious exactions which have been exercised towards the persons and property of foreigners who have been employed in the Chinese ports, the commercial interests of Great Britain, as well as those of this country, have there suffered to a considerable extent; and the execution of a definitive treaty between our own country and that of China, has tended to define the position in which our commerce shall hereafter stand in the Chinese marts. From the contact of the Chinese empire with European civilization, we may, moreover, presume that the habits and wants of the people of that country will be materially changed; and that to the cotton goods, ginseng and lead, which we now export, will be added a long list of products, thus opening an increasing trade. We trust that whatever may be the change wrought in the condition of the Chinese, by its more extended commercial relations, the state of that empire may be advanced, and that the morals of the nation, which appear to be extremely debased, will receive an improved tone, not from an idolatrous philosophy, but from the spirit of a genuine and enlightened Christianity.

ART. VII.—LIFE IN CALIFORNIA—BY A MERCHANT.*

AN unpretending volume, bearing the above title, and dedicated to William Sturgis, Esq., of Boston, one of the pioneers in the trade to the west coast of America, has just been ushered into life, without an acknowledged paternity. As this circumstance will, we fear, prejudice the sale of the work, we cannot but regret a course so modestly pursued by the author, however high we may appreciate the motives which induced it. The copyright notice leaves no room to doubt that it is the production of Alfred Robinson, Esq., of New York, one of our most enterprising and successful merchants. Mr. Robinson is a son of the late Colonel James Robinson, of Boston, who, for a long period, filled with honor civil posts of high trust, after having served in the Massachusetts line of the army, throughout the glorious contest which secured independence to the old confederation, and

* *Life in California, by an American.* New York, 1846. Wiley & Putnam. 1 vol., 16mo.

shed such broad-cast influence as promises eventually the establishment of other galaxies of free states extending to the utmost bounds of the western hemisphere.

The title of the work is alone sufficient to attract attention, in view of the present fever for the shores of the Pacific Ocean; although, to repeat a late conundrum, the course of our government regarding these shores, does not seem "to border much on the Pacific."

The volume in question, is "got up" in good style, with some interesting engravings elucidating the descriptions. It must be considered as very interesting, and quite descriptive of manners and customs of the different inhabitants of California. The relation of the personal adventures and business avocations of the author, gives us a much better idea of the domestic matters, the manner of living, the thoughts, sentiments, and actions of the natives, as well as of the sojourners there, than could be obtained by long and dry episodical descriptions.

The work, moreover, is written in a free, off-hand style, and the taste for the romantic and beautiful evinced by the occasional short delineations of scenery, convinces us that although his main thoughts were upon "the advantages of trade," yet that when even journeying to gather merchandise, he had still an eye for the beautiful in nature; and his power of expressing these thoughts, makes us regret that he had not devoted more of his book to them. The proximity of California to our own territory, and our daily increasing commercial relations with it, render a knowledge of the resources of this magnificent region of the utmost importance. And it is not less a subject of congratulation, that the industrious and enterprising of the Anglo-Saxon race are exploring and peopling these remote regions, than that, Cæsar-like, they are giving us also their graphic commentaries upon their own achievements. On page 6, our author thus informs us of his arrival in California:

"On the afternoon of the 15th February, 1829, the fog cleared up, and we beheld the 'Punta de Pinos' bearing east, distant ten or twelve miles. This was the outer southern point of the bay of Monterey, into which we were soon slowly gliding. The breeze now died away, night closed around us, and as we approached our place of anchorage, nought was heard but the occasional cry of the leadsmen in the chains, or the dip of the oars as the boatmen towed us slowly into port. Suddenly a flash was seen from the castle, the report followed, and a ball came whizzing across our bow, so near the boat as to throw upon the men the spray, as it glanced over the waters. 'Let go the anchor,' cried the captain. 'Aye, aye,' answered the mate, and then followed immediately the splash and the running out of the chain, until the heavy iron instrument had found its resting-place in the sand.

"A boat came off from the shore containing an officer of the customs and his assistant, sent by the commandant of the 'Presidio.' They appeared much pleased when informed that we wished to trade on the coast, and particularly so, when made acquainted with the nature and amount of the ship's cargo. The conversation soon became general, and the more intelligent of the two (Don Manuel Jimeno) gave us an account of the country, its government, missions, and its political condition at that time. He spoke also of the affair of the ship Franklin of Boston, which had a short time previous been detained by the authorities on suspicion of being engaged in contraband trade, causing much excitement throughout the country, and consequent restrictions on commerce. Her flight from the port of St. Diego was thought miraculous, running the gauntlet of a heavy battery within pistol shot of the cannon's mouth, and yet escaping without injury. On she sailed, leaving her enemies in the distance, little heeding their guns, till, once more rolling to the swell of the mighty ocean, she approach-

ed Point Loma, when a light cloud was seen to emerge from her side, and the report of her cannon came reverberating among the hills, as if in derision of a government of such pusillanimity.

"The local government, exasperated by this open defiance of their authority, sought by more stringent regulations of trade to prevent in future any fraud upon the revenue; and conscious of its weakness at most of the ports along the coast, laid an embargo upon all, with the exception of the more strongly fortified places of Monterey and St. Diego, at which ports, only, foreign vessels were allowed to enter and discharge their cargoes.

"This restriction, if insisted upon, would overturn all our calculations, and in fact insure a total failure of the voyage. It was now resolved to write to the Governor at St. Diego, setting forth the fact of our having fitted out from the United States with the supposition that no change would be made in the regulation of commerce; that the recent alteration had not given sufficient time for the news to have reached us prior to our departure from home, and that consequently, he should take into consideration the embarrassment of our situation, and repeal in some way the restrictions of the new law.

"The next day, when I was to look for the first time upon those shores which were to become for some years my home, was necessarily one of great excitement, and I hurried on deck much earlier than my usual hour. Before us lay stretched out the shore, and as it curved away toward the northern extremity of the bay, the swell of the ocean, wave after wave, echoed loud and heavily upon its sands. The sun had just risen, and glittering through the lofty pines that crowned the summit of the eastern hills, threw its light upon the lawn beneath. On our left was the 'Presidio,' with its chapel dome, and towering flag-staff in conspicuous elevation. On the right, upon a rising ground, was seen the 'Castillo,' or fort, surmounted by some ten or a dozen cannons. The intervening space between these two points was enlivened by the hundred scattered dwellings, and here and there groups of cattle grazing.

"Monterey is situated on the declivity of a beautiful rising ground, the top of which is crowned with stately pines. The gradual ascent to its elevated summit is covered with scattered woods and rich and varied flowers. The woods contain an abundance to gratify the sportsman, and a variety to enchant the botanist."

AT SAINT PEDRO.

"As we anticipated, our friends came flocking on board from all quarters, and soon a busy scene commenced, afloat and ashore. Boats were plying to and fro, launches laden with the variety of our cargo passing to the beach, and men, women and children crowding upon our decks, partaking in the general excitement. On shore all was confusion. Cattle and carts laden with hides and tallow, "*gente de razon*," and Indians, busily employed in the delivery of their produce, and receiving in return its value in goods; groups of individuals seated around little bonfires upon the ground, and horsemen racing over the plain in every direction. Thus the day passed; some departing, some arriving; till long after sunset the low white road leading across the plain to the town, appeared a living panorama."

SANTA BARBARA.

"In the course of a week we sailed for Santa Barbara, where we arrived safely, and commenced landing our cargo. Many of our packages were bulky, and it required considerable care to get them through the surf without damage; and owing to the distance of the ship from the shore, and the rough state of the beach at times, a fortnight elapsed ere everything was disembarked. At length the last load was deposited in the house, and the men were employed in getting on board wood and water; this having been accomplished, the ship made sail, and stood out of the bay, on her way to St. Diego, where she was to take in her home cargo. The breeze was fair, and a few hours carried her beyond the reach of our glasses.

"So, now I was a resident on shore—a '*comerciante de Santa Barbara*.' My

house was a building of one story, containing one large room some fifty feet square, and four smaller ones. The large one was filled to the roof with bales and boxes, leaving a narrow passage only for communication with the other apartments, which were differently occupied. One of these was fitted up with shelves and a counter, serving as a show-room, and another I had transformed into a bed-chamber. I slept in a cot suspended from the cross-beams of the roof; and, besides the necessary furniture of chairs, tables, looking-glass, &c., I had displayed against the wall, two old muskets newly brightened up, two pair of pistols, and a very terrific sword. The sight of these appalling instruments was ample security against the rogues, who were generally lounging about the door, leading from the corridor to the street. I had but one companion, a servant, who had lived for many years in my father's house, and had followed me in my wanderings. Poor David! he was a good, honest fellow, officiating in many capacities, and often remaining in sole charge of a valuable amount of property; but he was fated to meet a watery grave a few years afterwards, in crossing the passage from Santa Barbara to St. Buenaventura.

"A launch was to take place at St. Pedro, of the second vessel ever constructed in California. She was a schooner of about sixty tons, that had been entirely framed at St. Gabriel, and fitted for subsequent completion at St. Pedro. Every piece of timber had been hewn and fitted thirty miles from the place, and brought down to the beach upon carts. She was called the 'Guadalupe,' in honor of the patron saint of Mexico; and as the affair was considered quite an important era in the history of the country, many were invited from far and near to witness it. Her builder was a Yankee, named Chapman, who had served his apprenticeship with a Boston boat-builder. Father Sanchez used to say that Chapman could get more work out of the Indians than all the mayor-domos put together."

SAN FRANCISCO.

"San Francisco has one of the largest and most valuable harbors in the world. Nature has so defended its narrow entrance, that with but little expense it might be made perfectly impregnable. Its steep and lofty cliffs on either side, combined with other prominent locations within, might be so fortified as to bid defiance to the most powerful and determined foe. The soundings are deep, and, in mid-channel, may be found in from forty to fifty fathoms. The course for vessels coming in from sea, is generally midway between the bluff points of land."

Commodore Wilkes, in vol. 5, p. 159, of his Exploring Expedition, says: "The combined fleets of all the naval powers of Europe might moor within it;" which forcibly impresses us with the vast importance of this post to the United States. Possessing already a fleet of some six hundred whalers, valued at least at \$20,000,000 in the neighborhood, and daily increasing, a negotiation for the purchase of Upper California ought not to be deferred. And we sincerely hope that Mr. Slidell, as has been stated more than once, is empowered to treat with the government of Mexico for the cession of this valuable province.

"The soil is excellent, and perhaps in no part of the world more yielding, particularly for wheat. As an instance of its immense fertility, in this respect, the following circumstance was related to me by the mayor-domo of the mission of St. Jose. Eight fanegas, equal to twelve bushels of wheat, were sowed, which yielded twelve hundred fanegas, or eighteen hundred bushels; the following year, from the grain which fell at the time of the first harvest, over one thousand bushels were reaped; and again, in the succeeding year, three hundred bushels. The average production of wheat is one hundred fanegas for one sowed. In many parts of the country irrigation is necessary, but here, owing to the heavy dews which fall at night, the earth becomes sufficiently moistened for cultivation."

We trust that in a new edition, which will doubtless be called for, the author will give us a more particular account of the institution of the Presidios, or mission-stations, and more statistics relative to the resources and trade of California.

We are pleased with the justice done to the pious men who founded these stations, and to the good lives of their successors; and likewise that instead of the sweeping denunciations generally branded against religious belief and practice different from our own—against manners and customs at variance with our accustomed notions, our author does ample justice to the people amongst whom he was domesticated; and without apologies for their vices, places their character and habits in such lights as to convince us of the fidelity of his statements, and enables us to judge correctly of the inhabitants of Alta California. The lover of Indian antiquities will be pleased with the translation *Chenig-Chenich*, appended to the narrative; and although no new lights are thrown upon the “vexed question” of “Whence came the aborigines of America?” yet the description of the various Indian beliefs respecting the creation of mankind are curious, and afford matter for speculative comparison.

When we reflect that this superb region is adequate to the sustaining of twenty millions of people; has for several hundred years been in the possession of an indolent and limited population, incapable from their character of appreciating its resources—that no improvement can be expected under its present control, we cannot but hope that thousands of our fellow countrymen will pour in and accelerate the happy period (which the work before us assures us cannot be distant) when Alta California will become part and parcel of our great confederacy; and that the cry of “Oregon” is only a precursor to the actual settlement of this more southern, more beautiful, and far more valuable region.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

LIABILITY OF BANKS FOR NEGLECT TO PROTEST DRAFTS FORWARDED FOR COLLECTION—DISCHARGE OF ENDORSERS, ETC.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, February 23d, 1846, before Judge Washburn. *Joseph Ballister, et. al., v. The Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank.* This was an action on the case, brought against the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank of Philadelphia, for negligence in not protesting in proper time a draft forwarded to them for collection.

It appeared in evidence that a draft on John Rinewalt of Philadelphia, for \$500, payable sixty days after sight, was deposited in the State Bank at Boston, by the plaintiffs, and by the State Bank forwarded to the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank at Philadelphia. It was received by the latter bank on the 23d of August, 1844, and presented to and accepted by Rinewalt on the 24th. Consequently it matured on the 26th of October. On the 25th of October, it was handed by the bank to their Notary, and by him protested on that day, and notices forwarded. The Notary returned the draft to the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank on the 26th, before 9 A. M., and it was enclosed and forwarded to Boston by the mail of that day. The plaintiffs refused to receive the draft, and returned it to the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank, and claimed to have it passed to their credit. The bank refused to do this, and the plaintiffs afterwards, on the 4th of December, sued Rinewalt, the acceptor, and obtained judgment and execution, but could find no property on which to levy the same. Evidence was introduced by the defendants, tending to show that Rinewalt, the acceptor, was a partner of the drawers, and that he (Rinewalt) was now able to pay the draft. There were endorsers on the draft, as to whose pecuniary responsibility no evidence was put in by either party.

It was contended for the plaintiffs—1st. That the bank, having received the

draft, were bound to take all the necessary and usual steps to secure its acceptance and payment at maturity, and, in case of non-payment, to protest it on the day of its maturity. 2d. That the bank were guilty of negligence in handing the draft to the Notary on the day before it was due, as they thereby misled him—it being the universal custom of this bank, as was proved, to hand their notes to their Notary to be protested at the close of banking hours on the day on which they fell due. 3d. That the draft having been returned to the bank on the morning of the 26th, the day it matured, it was the duty of the bank to keep it at its counter for payment till the close of business hours, and then to have it protested—and that it was carelessness in them not to do so.

It was contended for the defendants—1st. That the bank and the Notary were distinct agents, and that the bank by delivering the draft to the Notary relieved themselves of all responsibility, and that the duty of protesting the draft at the proper time devolved upon the Notary. 2d. That the jury could give no damages, because there was evidence that Rinewalt, the acceptor, who was still liable on the draft, was good for that amount. 3d. That if Rinewalt was not good, still the plaintiffs could not recover, because they had not proved that the endorsers and drawers, who were discharged by want of protest on the proper day, were able to pay the debt had they not been discharged. It was further contended that there being evidence that the drawers and acceptor were partners, the drawers were not discharged, because they were not entitled to notice.

Washburn, J., instructed the jury that it was admitted that the draft was not protested at the proper time, and that thereby the endorsers were discharged, and also the drawers, unless they were partners of Rinewalt, and drew on partnership account, but without funds in Rinewalt's hands—that this was the result of negligence somewhere—that it could not be charged upon the bank, if they had given the draft to a proper Notary, at a proper time—but if they gave it to him at such a time as to mislead him, and the effect was to mislead him, they would be liable—that if the draft came back to them during the business hours of the 26th, and they knew it matured on that day, which they were bound to know, if it was in their possession, then their duty was to send it back to the Notary, to be protested on that day—that if they found the bank guilty of negligence, then the plaintiffs were entitled to a verdict—that in making up the amount of damage, they were to assess the actual damage the plaintiffs had sustained—that the question, whether the draft was now of any, and, if so, what value, was open for their consideration.

The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs, and assessed damages at \$539.

C. T. & T. H. Russell for the plaintiffs. C. G. Loring and Geo. W. Phillips for the defendants.

COMMISSION MERCHANTS—ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, before Judge Hubbard, an action of assumpsit was brought by Upham, Appleton & Co., v. Robert Lefaror, to recover a balance of \$2,521 26, alleged to be due to the plaintiffs from the defendant, on the first day of October, 1844, the date of the writ. The plaintiffs are commission merchants in Boston, and on the first day of May, 1844, they agreed to advance money to the defendant, and to furnish him with their acceptances, to enable him to purchase sheep-skins, upon an agreement to pull and consign the wool to the plaintiffs for sale, upon a guaranty commission. In pursuance of this agreement, the defendant made a large purchase of skins in Albany, in May, 1844, and drew for cash and on time upon the plaintiffs, who honored all his bills. The cash advances were about \$2,500, and the acceptances \$1,700. When the acceptances were maturing, the plaintiffs had not received the wool, and the defendant, having no means to enable them to take up their acceptances, proposed to the plaintiffs to furnish new acceptances, which he would procure the money upon, to enable them to provide for the first drafts. This was done, and soon after the greater part of the wool was received by the plaintiffs, and some sales were made. But the plaintiffs were then satisfied that they should not be reimbursed from the sales of the wool, and in consequence demanded additional secu-

urity of the defendant. This not being furnished, the plaintiffs stated their account, so as to show the balance of cash advances then made by them, excluding the outstanding acceptances, and brought the present action to recover this balance, and attached property of the defendant. Soon after, the plaintiffs were compelled to take up their acceptances, before receiving any thing from the sales of the wool, except a very small amount. The case now came before the court upon the report of the auditor, to whom the same was referred, and the principal facts appeared by that report, and the correspondence annexed to it.

The defendant contended that the sales of the wool should be credited by the plaintiffs in the order of time in which they were received, and that being applied in this way to the first items of indebtedness in the account, they had extinguished the plaintiff's cause of action. The plaintiffs, on the other hand, contended that a commission merchant is authorized by law to apply the proceeds of the consignment to pay any subsequent item charged against the consigner before the proceeds are received, and to bring an action for any previous sums of money advanced to the same consignment.

Hubbard, J., delivered the opinion of the court.

1. It is a well established principle in the law merchant, that a commission merchant is bound to wait only a reasonable time for reimbursement of his advances, and then, if the goods are not sold, he may call for payment, or further security, and may sue for the amount due. The plaintiffs therefore had a good cause of action, when the suit was brought.

2. The plaintiffs had a right to apply the proceeds of the goods, as they were received, towards the discharge of the moneys paid for the defendant after the suit brought, but paid prior to such receipts. This was an appropriation which the plaintiffs had a right to make, in the absence of any direction from the defendant, if he had had any right to control it; and the bringing the suit by them was evidence of such intended appropriation, coupled with the manner of stating and separating their account. The plaintiffs by their attachment had added to their security, and it is one of the rules of law, where other rules do not interfere, to apply payments to the debt not secured either by property or by action.

Judgment for the plaintiffs for the whole amount claimed, deducting the sum of \$250 received before any acceptances had matured.

THE LAW OF PATENT—INJUNCTION IN THE CASE OF ESSEX HOSIERY MANUFACTURING CO., vs. DORR MANUFACTURING CO.

In the United States Circuit Court, (at Boston,) before Judge Sprague. This was a proceeding for an injunction, which came on for a hearing on the bill and affidavits. The plaintiffs set up a patent for an improvement in the rotary power stocking loom, issued to Richard Walker, December 5, 1839, and which had come to them by sundry intermediate assignments. The defendants had built and used machines, according to the subsequent patent issued to the said Richard Walker and Jefferson McIntire, February 12, 1844, and which had been assigned to the defendants. It was alleged that the machines built under the second patent, were an infringement on the plaintiff's rights. The case occupied the court for more than a week.

Sprague, J., in delivering his opinion, said that a preliminary injunction should only be issued for the purpose of preventing mischief, and in aid of the legal right. A judgment at law, although the best evidence, was not the only evidence of the legal right; but, in its absence, the court would look more carefully into the circumstances of the case, and especially to the mischief that might be produced by granting an injunction. The vigilance or acquiescence of the complainant, were also circumstances requiring attention.

1. As to the point of mischief; the defendants had a manufacturing establishment, of more than \$100,000 capital, and employing more than a hundred workmen. An injunction, by arresting their business, would produce great mischief, for which, if the suit should terminate in their favor, there would be no remedy. On the other hand, there was no doubt of their pecuniary ability to pay the damages which should be awarded, in case the suit should be determined in favor of

the plaintiffs. And the danger that others would follow the defendants' example, did not appear to be imminent.

2. As to the point of vigilance; the plaintiffs had notice of the application for the patent which the defendants hold, and resisted it. In the summer of 1844, the agent of the holders of the first (the plaintiffs') patent, saw a machine made under the second patent publicly exhibited, and in February, 1845, saw one of them in actual operation. The present suit was not brought until October. There had, consequently, been some want of vigilance on the part of the plaintiffs, not affecting their legal rights, but to be taken into view upon the application for an injunction.

3. As to the evidence of the legal right; the strength of the plaintiffs' exclusive possession, as evidence of their exclusive right, depended upon the knowledge which the public had of it, their interest to resist it, and the extent and duration of their submission to it. This machine had been used by no one but the plaintiffs and their predecessors; and an agent had been unsuccessful in attempting to introduce it in England and Scotland.

His honor then reviewed the evidence as to the question whether the plaintiffs' patent had been infringed by the defendants, and said that, without expressing an opinion further than it was necessary to dispose of the question before him, he considered that the plaintiffs' right, so far as the acts of the defendants might affect it, was left in too much doubt to authorize a preliminary injunction, under the circumstances of the present case. He therefore refused to grant the injunction, but ordered that the defendants keep an account, to be forthcoming on the trial of the action at law now pending between the parties.

ACTION TO RECOVER DAMAGE FOR INJURY DONE MERCHANDISE ON SHIP-BOARD.

In the Supreme Court, (New York city,) February 9th, 1846, before Judge Oakley, an action was brought by L. L. Palmieri, *v.* Frederick Schucharett and F. W. Favre, to recover damages for injury done to sugar, on board the defendants' ship, after she had arrived in this port, from leaking. Several witnesses proved that the vessel had not been examined or pumped for two or three days after her arrival, and that several inches of water got into the hold, which would most probably not have been the case, had the vessel been pumped every day.

The court charged the jury, that if the sugar was injured before the vessel got into port, then the owners were not responsible, as they were not insurers of the goods; but if the sugar was injured by water getting into the vessel after she arrived at the dock, then the owners of the ship were responsible for it.

Verdict for plaintiff for amount claimed, \$2,170 42.

ACTION TO RECOVER VALUE OF MERCHANDISE DEPOSITED IN A PUBLIC YARD.

In the Supreme Court, Judge Oakley presiding, (New York, February 25th, 1846,) an action was brought by Heron, Lees & Co., *v.* John Ryker, Jr., and Varick & Trowbridge, to recover for the value of pork deposited in the public yard of Ryker, who was inspector of beef and pork, which, it was alleged, he delivered to the order of the other two defendants. It was proved that the plaintiffs deposited the pork in Ryker's yard, and it was also shown that certain pork was delivered to the order of the other two defendants, who had also pork in the same yard, but it was not clearly shown that the pork so delivered was part of that deposited there by the plaintiffs.

The court charged the jury, that as to Ryker, the case was clear, and there could be no doubt of his being responsible for the pork deposited in his yard by the plaintiffs. If Varick & Trowbridge, being apprised of the fact that they had no pork in the yard, received from it the property of the plaintiffs, then they were responsible for it. But if they had pork there, and Ryker chose to deliver to them other pork than their own, it was his fault, and he only was responsible for it. There was reason to believe that it was the practice in those pork yards to put all the different lots of pork together, without distinction, and when the owners applied for it, to deliver it to them without inquiring whose pork it really

was; on the ground that all the pork in the yard was of the same quality, and therefore it was unimportant to distinguish each individual's parcel. This, however, was a mistaken notion on the part of keepers of pork yards. It is their duty to keep each parcel separate, and if they mix them up, they do it at their own responsibility. If the pork of plaintiffs was not there when called for, Ryker is responsible for it. Verdict for plaintiffs against Ryker \$2,185, and the other two defendants acquitted.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

PRESENT STATE OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—PROBABLE CHANGES ABOUT TO TAKE PLACE—PROPOSED REDUCTION OF TAXES ON VARIOUS ARTICLES OF BRITISH INDUSTRY IMPORTED INTO THIS COUNTRY—GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, THE AMOUNT OF DUTY PAID, THE RATE PER CENT OF THAT DUTY AND THE PROPOSED DUTY—QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF SUNDRY IMPORTED ARTICLES COMPARED, FOR THREE YEARS—AD VALOREM RATE OF SPECIFIC DUTIES IN EACH YEAR—BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES, AND ANNUAL IMPORTS—IMPORT FROM, AND EXPORTS TO, ENGLAND—BRITISH DUTIES AT FOUR PERIODS, VIZ: 1840, 1842-44, 1844-45, AND 1846—A GENERAL VIEW OF THE IMPORTANT CHANGES ABOUT TO TAKE PLACE IN COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS, AND THEIR PROBABLE RESULTS—THE STATE DEBT OF MARYLAND, INDIANA, MICHIGAN, MISSISSIPPI, PENNSYLVANIA, ETC., ETC.

THE commercial crisis which has gradually been drawing to an issue since the peace of 1815, is now apparently at hand, and great innovations upon long established usages, received opinions, and time-honored prejudices, are about to take place. The vast trade carried on between the United States and Great Britain, hitherto on principles nearly prohibitory, is suddenly to be placed upon a basis allied to free trade, on both sides of the Atlantic. Thus, of \$117,254,564 imported into the United States in 1845, \$49,903,725 came from Great Britain, at duties ranging from 40 a 46 per cent on the leading articles. It is now proposed to charge but 20 a 25 per cent on these articles, thus reducing by one-half the taxes on those articles of British industry which were largely imported under a high tax, but which necessarily must, at some rate, come into the country in return for cotton and other produce sold to her. This relaxation it is proposed shall take effect October 1st, or after the fall imports shall have been made, thus subjecting the southern buyers for the fall trade to a high tax, from which the later western trade may be exempt. The certainty that the duty would be removed in October, would probably have the effect of retarding the fall imports to a much later period than usual, and by so doing derange the customary course of trade, and make goods in the early fall scarce and high; whereas, if the bill takes effect immediately, as did the tariff of 1842, the fall goods would enjoy the benefit of the relaxation, and an over-movement in consequence of the reduced tax would probably be kept in check by the operation of the specie clause of the Independent Treasury Bill, which, introduced into the House as an amendment, provides for the collection of all dues to the government, after June, 1846, in gold and silver only, a provision which will operate powerfully against excessive imports. The new bill does not provide for any transfer of funds from present depositories, but simply for the payment into the treasury of those dues which may accrue, in gold and silver, and for the checking of the funds out of present depositories as the wants of the government may require. This will doubtless produce a great change in financial operations, but it will act as a preventative to those evils which are apprehended from low duties. The following table of goods imported into the United States, the amount of duty paid, the rate per cent of that duty, and the proposed duty, is indicative of the radical extent of the change.

GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE DUTIES PAID.

Articles.—(Specific duty.)	1843.			1844.			1845.			P. ct.	Prop. du.
	Quantities.	Duty.	P. ct.	Quantities.	Duty.	P. ct.	Quantities.	Duty.	P. ct.		
Salt,.....bush.	5,454,577	\$436,366	61	8,243,139	\$659,451	72	8,543,527	\$683,482	76	Free.	
Coal,.....tons	41,163	72,035	62	87,073	152,377	64	85,756	150,108	67	20	
Iron, pig,.....cwt.	77,461	34,857	72	298,880	134,496	67	550,209	247,594	49	30	
Iron, bar, rolled,.....	315,157	393,946	77	757,824	947,280	80	1,023,772	1,279,715	75	30	
“ “.....	125,081	106,318	33	236,451	200,983	35	363,530	309,000	36	30	
Hemp,.....	36,269	72,538	32	50,752	101,501	39	28,155	56,310	39	20	
Raisins,.....lbs.	7,083,013	212,490	77	8,492,456	254,773	80	7,573,897	227,216	43	20	
Sugar,.....	69,534,331	1,738,358	72	179,857,491	4,496,437	66	111,957,404	2,798,935	61	30	
Molasses,.....	129,536,523	582,914	51	249,428,872	1,122,429	40	201,311,364	905,901	29	30	
Silk goods,.....	215,038	537,595	31	634,426	1,586,065	25	763,285	1,908,657	24	25	
Spirits,.....galls.	586,360	436,325	180	1,409,905	1,171,495	150	1,978,836	1,635,434	170	75	
Other specific,.....		1,764,705			4,704,518			2,338,385			
Total specific,.....		\$6,390,419			\$14,531,808			\$14,540,737		42	
AD VALOREM DUTY.											
Wool,.....lbs.	3,332,654	\$9,517	5	13,808,645	\$37,722	5	23,382,097	\$77,689	5	20	
Wool over 7 cents,.....	184,446	21,941	40	199,763	35,078	30	450,943	54,329	30	20	
Woollen cloths,.... value in dollars	1,356,628	542,651	40	4,777,940	1,911,186	40	5,411,850	2,164,740	40	25	
Worsted,.....	456,051	136,815	30	1,835,875	550,762	30	1,938,109	581,432	30	25	
Cottons, dyed,.....yards	6,339,636	570,597	43	28,599,795	2,573,981	44	25,027,699	2,252,492	44	20	
“ white,.....	2,497,240	149,834	50	9,071,760	544,305	46	11,262,418	675,745	47	20	
“ hose,.... value in dollars	307,243	92,172	30	1,121,460	336,438	30	1,326,631	397,989	30	20	
Linen,.....	1,202,772	300,693	25	3,703,532	925,803	25	4,298,224	1,074,556	25	20	
Apparel,.....	114,493	44,797	40	864,034	345,613	40	1,105,796	442,318	40	30	
Straw hats,.....	270,620	94,717	35	713,843	249,719	35	712,923	249,523	35	20	
Earthenware,.....	534,051	160,215	30	1,512,642	456,492	30	2,187,259	656,177	20	20	
Hat-fur,.....	87,702	21,925	25	519,893	129,973	25	465,739	116,434	25	20	
Other ad valorem,.....		2,006,842			6,522,186			7,533,693			
Total ad valorem,.....		\$4,153,686			\$14,449,348			\$16,278,117		27	

The change is here marked and great ; but it is in fact the same step forward in commercial liberality of legislation that was taken backward in 1842. The table embraces the complete operation of the present tariff, and it is observable, that its operation has not been to check the import of goods permanently. The effect evidently, in the first year of its operation, was to check imports ; but the scarcity then produced by the small imports, advanced the prices, which were supported by the large imports of specie, that again became the basis of an extended banking movement. When, by an accumulation of specie, the banks become more liberal in their loans, it affords to city dealers not only the means of buying more freely, but of becoming more liberal in the credits they grant to shopkeepers in the interior ; prices advance, and the imports increase, notwithstanding the high duty. In the tables accompanying the treasury report, the evidence is conclusive that imports have increased, paying the same duty, accompanied by a rise in the foreign cost, as, for instance, in the article of bar and pig iron. We may compare the quantities and values imported of some of those articles that pay the highest specific duties.

Articles.	1843.			1844.			1845.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Price.	Q'ty.	Value.	Price.	Q'ty.	Value.	Price.
Sugar,.....lbs.	69,534,331	\$2,426,011	3½	179,857,491	\$6,793,540	3¾	111,957,404	\$4,556,392	4.
Silks,.....	215,038	1,719,616	7.48	634,426	6,308,239	9.75	763,463	7,791,285	10.25
Iron, bar,....cwt.	315,157	511,282	1.60	757,824	1,065,582	1.46	1,023,772	1,691,748	1.65
Iron, pig,.....	77,461	48,251	.62½	298,850	200,522	.67	550,209	506,291	.92
Salt,.....bush.	5,454,577	710,489	.13	8,243,139	911,512	.11	8,543,527	898,663	.10½
Coal,.....tons	41,163	116,312	2.82	87,073	236,963	2.72	85,756	223,919	2.60
Molasses,....galls.	12,685,128	1,134,820	.09	22,675,352	2,833,753	.12	18,301,036	3,154,782	.17½

In all these cases there is an increase in the quantities imported ; but the enhanced cost, arising from short crops in the case of sugar and molasses, and from the enhanced foreign consumption in other cases, has reduced the ad valorem rates of the specific duties as follows:

Years.	Sugar.	Silk.	Bar iron.	Pig iron.	Salt.	Coal.	Molasses.
1843,...	71.65	31.26	77.05	72.24	61.42	61.93	51.36
1844,...	66.18	25.54	88.89	67.07	72.35	64.30	39.61
1845,...	61.42	24.49	75.64	48.90	76.05	67.03	28.71

As a general result, however, the increase of revenue arose from an increased import of those goods which pay the least duties. If now we compare the imports of the last three years with the leading features of about 700 banks of the United States, on or about the 1st of January, of each of the last three years, as compiled at the Treasury department, we shall have results as follows:

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES, AND ANNUAL IMPORTS.

Yr. No.	bks.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Specie.	Loans.	Free.	Dutiable.	Imports.	Total.
1843,	691	\$56,168,623	\$58,563,608	\$33,515,806	\$254,544,937	\$13,354,249	\$29,179,215	\$42,433,464	
1844,	698	84,550,785	75,167,646	49,898,269	264,905,814	18,936,452	83,668,054	102,604,506	
1845,	707	88,020,646	89,608,711	44,241,242	288,617,131	18,047,598	95,106,724	113,154,312	

The currency, as furnished by the banks, has increased steadily, until it reached, in 1845, 60 per cent more than in 1843. The returns for the banks are near January in each year, and the fiscal year ends with the June following, so that the position of the banks is taken at the middle of each fiscal year. In this movement of the banks we have the cause of the enhanced import under the same duties. It is observable that the value of the imports into the United States scarcely reaches the value of American produce sold abroad. The cotton, tobacco, and raw material which England is compelled to buy, must be paid for, otherwise the United States loses its labor. In 1843, near \$23,000,000 came back in specie ; that specie, in the hands of the banks, created the expansion which the above table evinces, and by so doing, apparently caused prices here to advance, to an extent sufficient to permit those goods to be imported under a tariff which was prohibitory, in connection with the dear currency of 1843. In consequence of the advance in prices,

dutiable goods have taken the place of specie as a remittance to the United States in payment of produce. This progressive movement became, however, checked with the close of 1845; and the duties of the first six months of 1846, are less by \$2,011,000 than the corresponding period of 1845. England has uniformly had a large balance against her, as follows:

IMPORTS FROM, AND EXPORTS TO ENGLAND.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Import from,.....	\$38,613,043	\$28,978,582	\$45,459,122	\$49,903,725
Export to,.....	52,306,650	46,901,835	61,721,876	61,044,535
Excess of Exports,.....	\$13,693,607	\$17,923,253	\$16,262,754	\$11,140,810

These imports include specie, of which \$14,000,000 were included in the 28 millions imported from England in 1843. For the remainder, England accepts and pays bills on American account, from all quarters of the world. In the face of this state of affairs, she now has removed the duty on American farm produce, by which means her purchases from us may be doubled in a few years. The great change here marked out in the import trade from Great Britain, is to be met by a much greater revolution in the basis upon which American produce will be admitted into Great Britain. The whole exports of domestic produce from the United States, in 1845, was \$99,299,776, of which amount \$61,044,535 was sent to Great Britain and dependencies. The larger proportion of this export was raw cotton, on which England charged a duty of 2s. 11d. per cwt. until last year, when it was added to the list of free articles. Up to 1842, most of the other articles of American produce were nearly or quite prohibited by onerous duties. The relaxation which took place in 1842, upon most articles of the produce of the western states of America, caused a large trade to spring up in articles before excluded, and the exports of farm produce are now rapidly overtaking that of cotton. The exports were as follows:

	1843.	1845.	Increase.
Rice,.....	\$1,625,726	\$2,160,456	\$534,730
Flour,.....	3,763,073	5,398,593	1,635,520
Pork, &c.,.....	2,120,020	2,991,284	871,264
Beef, &c.,.....	1,092,949	1,926,809	833,960
Butter and cheese,.....	508,968	878,861	369,897
Total,.....	\$9,110,736	\$13,356,002	\$4,245,266
Cotton,.....	49,119,806	51,739,643	2,619,837

In addition to these articles, on which a reduction of duty has taken place, grain, as well as a long list of articles not heretofore exported from the United States to England, can now find sale there. The following table shows the vast change which has in a few years taken place, in relation to the duties upon foreign produce admitted into England:

BRITISH DUTIES AT FOUR PERIODS.

	1840.	1842-4.	1844-5.	1846.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Barley, pearl,.....cwt.	18 0	5 0	5 0	2 6
Rice,.....	15 0	6 0	6 0	1 0
Hops,.....	8 11 0	4 10 0	4 10 0	2 5 0
Cider,.....tun	21 10 0	10 10 0	10 10 0	5 5 0
Oil-cakes,.....ton	3 4	1 0	Free.	Free.
Beef, salt,.....cwt.	12 0	8 0	8 0	Free.
Pork, salt,.....	12 0	8 0	8 0	Free.
Lard and oil,.....	3 0	2 0	Free.	Free.
Clover-seed,.....	1 0 0	10 0	10 0	5 0
Flax and hemp,.....qr.	1 0	0 1	Free.	Free.
Mustard,.....bush.	8 0	1 3	1 3	1 3
Rape,.....qr.	1 0	0 1	Free.	Free.

BRITISH DUTIES AT FOUR PERIODS—CONTINUED.

	1840.		1842-4.		1844-5.		1846.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Linseed,.....qr.	1	0	0	1	Free.		Free.	
Staves,.....load	1	8 0	1	8 0	Free.		Free.	
Lead,.....ton	2	0 0	1	0 0	1	0 0	1	0 0
Bark,.....per ct.	20	0 0	20	0 0	Free.		Free.	
Oil, all vegetable,.....tun	39	18 0	6	0 0	Free.		Free.	
Oil, whale,.....	26	12 0	6	0 0	Free.		Free.	
Wax,.....cwt.	1	10 0	2	0	Free.		Free.	
Skins and furs,.....per cent	20	0 0	5	0 0	Free.		Free.	
Hides,.....cwt.	4	8	0	6	Free.		Free.	
Boots and shoes,.....doz. pairs	1	10 0	12	0	12	0	6	0
“ men’s,.....	2	14 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	14	0
Cotton-yarn,.....per cent	10	0 0	10	0 0	Free.		Free.	
Flax and hemp,.....cwt.	0	1	0	1	Free.		Free.	
Wool, sheep’s, under 1s. per lb.,	0	0½	0	0½	0	0½	Free.	
“ over “	0	1	0	1	0	1	Free.	
Cotton,.....lb.	2	11	2	11	Free.		Free.	
Crown glass,.....cwt.	8	6 8	1	10 0	15	per ct.	6	0
Cordage,.....	10	9	6	0	6	0	Free.	
Hemp, dressed,.....	4	15 0	4	0	Free.		Free.	
Pitch,.....	0	10	0	6	Free.		Free.	
Rosin,.....	4	9	2	0	Free.		Free.	
Tar,.....per 12 bbls. of 31½ galls.	15	0	2	6	Free.		Free.	
Turpentine,.....cwt.	1	6 2	1	0	Free.		Free.	
Coffee,.....lb.	1	3	0	8	0	8	0	8
Bladders,.....dozen	0	6	0	3	Free.		Free.	
Bulrushes,.....ton	12	0	10	0	Free.		Free.	
Feathers,.....cwt.	2	4 0	1	0 0	Free.		Free.	
Grease,.....	1	8	1	8	Free.		Free.	
Butter,.....	20	0	20	0	20	0	10	0
Cheese,.....	10	6	10	6	10	6	5	0
Candles, tallow,.....	10	0	10	0	10	0	5	0
Tallow,.....	3	2	3	2	3	2	1	6
Indian corn,.....qr.	10	0	10	0	10	0	1	0
Hams,.....cwt.	14	0	14	0	14	0	7	0

Of 46 articles, the produce of American industry, which were taxed nearly to prohibi- tion in 1840, 28 are now absolutely free, and the remainder pay comparatively nominal duties. Perhaps the most remarkable change is in the tax on whale oil. From a duty of £26, or \$150 the tun, it is now free. When we consider the care and pertinacity with which England has heretofore watched her shipping interest, with a view to the increase of her navy, and reflect how great a nursery for the growth of seamen is the whale fishery, we become struck with the extraordinary abandonment of all duty upon that article, al- lowing the free competition of the American whalers with those of Britain, in the Eng- lish markets, for the sale of their oil. It is true that American enterprise, skill, and en- ergy, have long monopolized the fisheries of the Pacific ocean, to the exclusion of all other nations, and we have now, as it were, a distinct admission from the English gov- ernment of their dependence upon American whalers for an adequate supply of oil. The necessity of this supply at a cheap rate, is referred to the wants of the manufacturers, and the large quantities used for machines, &c. Nearly the whole of the above list of articles, if we except cotton and rice, are comparatively new articles of trade between the United States and England. Sole leather can be sent to advantage, and perhaps Lynn- made boots and shoes can soon rival, in the large manufacturing towns of England, those of British origin. Wool has already become an important article of export to England, and the increasing production here, and falling prices, make the enlarged market a matter of primary importance to our western farmers.

We have thus far touched upon the important features of the great change about to take place for good or for evil in the basis of commercial intercourse between two of the greatest commercial nations of modern times. The magnitude of the revolution, and the numerous and peaceful elements it calls into action, involving the social and political relations of two vast empires, may well cause the prudent merchant to pause, and the cautious banker to hesitate in his enterprises, until the new order of things shall have assumed form and feature, the new channels of trade become familiar to dealers, and former currents of the application of capital, if altered by new influences, dried up. That capital employed in many branches of industry will have to sustain severe competition from without, there is no doubt; and it will also come to be true, in this union of the material interests of England to those of the United States, that large capitals from abroad will be applied to the development of great natural wealth now lying dormant for the want of that capital. England has, of late years, for the want of sufficient means of employing her vast capital within her own pent-up island, been the banker or money-lender to the world. She has taken state promises and mortgages when she could get them, wherever civilization had formed communities, and existent industry gave hope of receiving back the loan with a round interest. By such a means, all countries became tributaries of their surplus earnings to swell the overgrown wealth of England, and the continuance of it would have made Ireland but a type of England's debtors. That system is drawing to a close, and instead of being loaned, capital will leave England for positive and permanent investment in those countries where liberty and sound laws afford scope for the prosecution of industry. This disposition has been checked of late years by the operation of the untoward results of former extravagance. The failure of the banks of the Union, followed necessarily by the dishonor of sovereign states, the bankrupt act, which barred the way to the collection of individual accounts, the stop and stay laws of many states, which sought to make landed property exempt from the demands of just creditors, and also the operation of usury laws, called into action by the revulsion which followed the contracts that infringed the laws, have all operated to impress practically upon the owners of capital in Europe, and upon those large houses who are, as it were, the reservoirs where such surplus capital is collected for employ, the idea of insecurity attached to moneyed transactions in these United States. These causes for distrust operate to an extent probably as great as fears of hostility, to prevent the free flow of funds from abroad into this country. In 1831-2, money in London became cheaper than in the rest of the large cities of the world, and at such a time the government of England entered upon the project of making a loan of some £15,000,000 for the emancipation of the blacks of the West Indies. This large sum the government sought, by allowing a discount on prompt payment, to procure the payment of in a few months; and the bank of England, to aid the government in that attempt, made loans with a freedom that it had never before manifested. Money became exceedingly cheap; and, as high confidence in foreign securities was then universally entertained, there existed no reason why the cheap money of England should not find its way to all countries where it was more valuable. That it did so in the case of the United States, the revulsion of 1836-7, and the large debts of all, and subsequent repudiation of some of the states, are melancholy evidences. Since then, steam, the great leveller, has brought the coffers of London within less than half the distance of the enterprise and industry of the United States, yet we have seen money in London for years at $1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 per cent per annum, and in New York, contemporaneously, 6 a 7 per cent per annum. Money which could not be employed in London at 2 per cent, could find ample security at a distance of 16 days, at 7 per cent per annum. Why this great disparity in price? No other article, neither cotton, flour, tobacco, nor any product of industry, could, for any length of time, exhibit such a disparity in value between places so near. Money, however, avoids places where it incurs risks so great as those which it

has unfortunately encountered upon this continent during the last few years. The backwardness of many of the states in making arrangements for the discharge of their debts, is a serious drawback on any disposition that might exist to renew confidence. The last legislature of Maryland, more particularly, has exerted a most unfavorable influence. Both the governor and the treasurer of that state pointed out in a clear manner the means by which a speedy resumption of the dividends upon the state debt might be effected. The existing taxation, with the improved revenues of the public works, would, by funding the arrearage interest, \$1,200,000, due in July next, afford ample means to pay the whole annual charge, and leave a surplus to constitute a sinking fund. A bill to effect this was deliberately voted down, and another proposition to fix upon April, 1847, as the time of resumption, and authorizing the treasurer to sell the stocks owned by the state to effect it, after having passed the House of Delegates, was lost in the Senate, being a most deliberate refusal to appropriate available means to the payment of a just debt. Such a movement at this late day, coming from the Upper House of a state like Maryland, is anything but flattering to the national pride. The bill passed by the state of Indiana for the completion of her great canal, the Wabash and Erie, has not been accepted as yet by the bondholders; and, as it involves an objectionable principle, it may not be successful. This feature is, that the bondholders should surrender one-half of their bonds, and release the state faith from their payment, looking only to the success of the canal as a means of payment. The adoption of this, would be the first instance where creditors have formally acknowledged the bankruptcy of a sovereign state, and admitted a compromise. Michigan has passed through the Lower House a law by which a number of Boston gentlemen are incorporated as the "Michigan Central Railroad Company," with liberty to purchase the Central Railroad of the state for \$2,000,000, payment to be made in the evidences of state indebtedness, including the bonds of the \$5,000,000 loan, at the rate at which the state received payment on them.

The governor of the state of Mississippi also pointed the means by which ample funds for the resumption of the dividends on the Planters' bonds, so called, might be realized. The legislature has, however, failed to realize the expectations raised in the public mind by the message of the executive. The new-fledged confidence in the state of Pennsylvania has been somewhat chilled by the consequences of the great freshets, caused by the sudden and rapid thaw which set in, and did serious damage to the public works, involving not only great expenditures for repairs, but interrupting the navigation, by which means not only may the disbursements be enlarged, but the income diminished at that season of the year when the payment of the August dividends depends to a considerable extent upon the receipts. Up to this time, the extent of the damage has not been correctly ascertained, and the rumors may have greatly exaggerated the injuries. These events, added to the continued uncertainty in relation to political affairs, have had an injurious effect upon stocks. Considerable sums have been sent hither for sale from Europe, and among them even New York stocks. All apprehension of difficulty growing directly out of the Oregon matter has indeed subsided on this side of the Atlantic, but the Liverpool cotton market was, according to the accounts brought by the steamer of March 4, influenced to an advance by the advices of the Patrick Henry, which announced the rejection of arbitration. The military preparations of England continue on an extensive scale, and seemingly point to the progress of affairs in the Gulf of Mexico, as well as possible contingencies in France. The unfortunate condition of Mexico is such as to keep open the prospect of long-continued uneasiness on her account.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

VALUE OF NEW YORK STATE STOCKS.

PRESENT VALUE, AT THE FOLLOWING PERIODS IN 1846, OF NEW YORK STATE STOCKS, TO REALIZE
5 PER CENT INTEREST ON THE INVESTMENT—PREPARED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS'
MAGAZINE, BY J. F. ENTZ.

<i>Int'st. Red'mable.</i>	<i>Payable.</i>	<i>March 1.</i>	<i>April 1.</i>	<i>May 1.</i>	<i>June 1.</i>	<i>July 1.</i>	<i>Aug. 1.</i>	<i>Sep. 1.</i>
7 July 1, 1848.	Q'rterly.	105.62	104.30	104.74	105.18	103.85	104.30	104.73
7 " 1849.	"	107.38	106.07	106.51	106.95	105.64	106.08	106.52
6 Jan. 1, 1851.	"	105.41	104.33	104.76	105.20	104.13	104.56	104.99
6 July 1, 1852.	Hf. y'ly.	106.37	106.81	107.25	107.69	105.13	105.56	106.
6 " 1854.	Q'rterly.	108.	106.93	107.37	107.82	106.77	107.21	107.66
6 " 1860.	"	111.53	110.47	110.93	110.40	110.36	110.82	111.28
6 Jan. 1, 1861.	"	111.78	110.73	111.19	111.40	110.61	111.07	111.53
6 Aug. 1, 1861.	Hf. y'ly.	111.66	112.12	112.58	113.05	110.51	110.97	111.43
6 Sept. 1, 1861.	Q'rterly.	112.11	111.05	111.51	111.98	110.92	111.40	111.86
6 Oct. 1, 1861.	"	112.14	111.08	111.54	112.01	110.95	111.43	111.89
6 Jan. 1, 1862.	"	112.26	111.20	111.67	112.13	111.10	111.56	112.02
6 July 1, 1862.	"	112.49	111.44	111.90	112.37	111.33	111.79	112.26
6 " 1867.	Hf. y'ly.	114.02	114.49	114.96	115.44	112.91	113.38	113.85
5½ " 1860.	Q'rterly.	106.34	105.39	105.82	106.26	105.33	105.77	106.21
5½ Aug. 1, 1860.	Hf. y'ly.	106.01	106.44	106.88	107.32	105.01	105.44	105.88
5½ Oct. 1, 1860.	Q'rterly.	106.40	105.45	105.89	106.33	105.39	105.83	106.27
5½ Jan. 1, 1861.	Hf. y'ly.	106.11	106.54	106.98	107.42	105.11	105.55	105.98
5½ " 1861.	Q'rterly.	106.47	105.52	105.96	106.40	105.46	105.90	106.34
5½ April 1, 1861.	"	106.53	105.58	106.02	106.46	105.52	105.96	106.40
5½ July 1, 1861.	"	106.60	105.65	106.09	106.53	105.59	106.03	106.47
5½ Jan. 1, 1865.	"	107.40	106.45	106.89	107.34	106.41	106.85	107.29
5½ July 1, 1865.	"	107.50	106.55	106.99	107.44	106.51	106.95	107.40
5½ " 1865.	Hf. y'ly.	107.06	107.51	107.95	108.39	106.09	106.52	106.97
5 Jan. 1, 1848.	Q'rterly.	100.89	100.05	100.46	100.88	100.05	100.46	100.88
5 July 1, 1849.	"	100.93	100.09	100.50	100.92	100.09	100.50	100.92
5 Aug. 1, 1850.	"	100.95	100.11	100.52	100.94	100.11	100.52	100.94
5 Jan. 1, 1851.	"	100.97	100.13	100.54	100.96	100.13	100.54	100.96
5 April 1, 1851.	"	100.98	100.14	100.55	100.97	100.13	100.54	100.97
5 Jan. 1, 1854.	"	101.03	100.19	100.61	101.03	100.19	100.61	101.02
5 July 1, 1856.	"	101.09	100.25	100.66	101.08	100.24	100.66	101.08
5 " 1858.	"	101.13	100.28	100.70	101.12	100.28	100.70	101.12
5 " 1859.	"	101.14	100.29	100.71	101.13	100.29	100.71	101.13
5 " 1860.	"	101.16	100.31	100.73	101.14	100.31	100.73	101.15
5 Jan. 1, 1861.	"	101.17	100.32	100.74	101.15	100.32	100.74	101.16
5 June 1, 1862.	"	101.19	100.34	100.76	101.17	100.34	100.76	101.18
4½ Jan. 1, 1850.	"	99.13	98.40	98.81	99.22	98.50	98.91	99.32
4½ " 1859.	"	96.33	95.58	95.98	96.38	95.65	96.05	96.45
4½ July 1, 1859.	"	96.20	95.46	95.86	96.26	95.53	95.93	96.33
4½ Oct. 1, 1859.	"	96.14	95.40	95.80	96.20	95.47	95.87	96.27
4½ Dec. 31, 1863.	"	95.23	94.48	94.87	95.27	94.54	94.93	95.32

N. B.—A purchase at the above rates will produce 5 per cent on the amount laid out, until redemption. The interest accrued since the last payment is included in the above values. The quarterly stocks are, dividend off, on the 1st of April and 1st of July—the semi-annual, 1st July.

VALUE OF NEW YORK CITY STOCKS.

PRESENT VALUE OF NEW YORK CITY STOCKS, AT THE FOLLOWING PERIODS IN 1846, TO REALIZE
5 PER CENT ON THE INVESTMENT.

<i>Int'st. Red'mable.</i>	<i>Payable.</i>	<i>March 1.</i>	<i>April 1.</i>	<i>May 1.</i>	<i>June 1.</i>	<i>July 1.</i>	<i>Aug. 1.</i>	<i>Sep. 1.</i>
7 Feb. 1, 1847.	Q'rterly.	102.39	102.82	101.47	101.90	102.32	101.	101.42
7 " 1852.	"	110.94	111.40	110.09	110.55	111.01	109.72	110.18
7 Aug. 1, 1852.	"	111.68	112.15	110.84	111.30	111.77	110.48	110.94
7 Feb. 1, 1857.	"	117.62	118.11	116.82	117.31	117.80	116.54	117.02
5 Jan. 1, 1850.	"	100.53	100.94	100.10	100.51	100.93	100.10	100.51
5 Aug. 1, 1850.	"	100.54	100.95	100.11	100.52	100.94	100.11	100.52
5 Jan. 16, 1851.	Hf. y'ly.	100.42	100.83	101.25	101.67	102.08	100.	100.42
5 May 6, 1856.	Q'rterly.	100.66	101.07	100.23	100.65	101.06	100.23	100.65
5 May 10, 1863.	Hf. y'ly.	100.42	100.83	101.25	101.67	102.08	100.	100.42
5 Jan. 1, 1858.	Q'rterly.	100.70	101.12	100.27	100.69	101.10	100.27	100.69
5 " 1860.	"	100.73	101.15	100.30	100.72	101.14	100.30	100.72
5 Nov. 1, 1870.	"	100.85	101.27	100.43	100.85	101.26	100.43	100.84
5 " 1880.	"	100.93	101.35	100.51	100.93	101.35	100.51	100.93

N. B.—The quarterly stocks are, dividend off, on the 1st of May and 1st of August.
The semi-ann. " " " 1st of August.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE WORLD.

We have compiled, from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, the following tabular statement of the value of the export and import trade of the United States with the various countries and powers with which we have commercial intercourse, for the last 25 years:—

A STATEMENT

Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, designating the countries from which received, and to which the same were exported, from 1821 to 1845, inclusive.

Years.	GR. BRITAIN AND DEPEND.		FRANCE AND DEPENDENCIES.		SPAIN AND DEPENDENCIES.	
	Imported from.	Exported to.	Imported from.	Exported to.	Imported from.	Exported to.
1821,	\$29,277,938	\$26,522,572	\$5,900,581	\$6,474,718	\$9,653,728	\$7,209,275
1822,	39,537,829	30,041,337	7,059,342	7,075,332	12,376,841	8,438,212
1823,	34,072,578	27,571,060	6,605,343	9,568,924	14,233,590	10,963,398
1824,	32,750,340	28,027,845	9,907,412	10,552,304	15,857,007	15,367,278
1825,	42,394,812	44,217,525	11,835,581	11,891,326	9,566,237	5,921,549
1826,	32,212,356	28,980,019	9,588,896	12,106,429	9,623,420	6,687,351
1827,	33,056,374	32,870,465	9,448,562	13,565,356	9,100,369	7,321,991
1828,	35,591,484	27,020,209	10,287,505	12,098,341	8,167,546	7,204,627
1829,	27,582,082	28,071,084	9,616,970	12,832,304	6,801,374	6,888,904
1830,	26,804,984	31,647,881	8,240,885	11,806,238	8,373,681	6,049,051
1831,	47,956,717	39,901,379	14,737,585	9,882,679	11,701,201	5,661,420
1832,	42,406,924	37,268,556	12,754,615	13,244,698	10,863,290	6,399,183
1833,	43,085,865	39,881,486	13,962,913	14,424,533	13,431,207	6,506,041
1834,	52,679,298	50,797,650	17,557,245	16,111,442	13,527,464	6,296,556
1835,	65,949,307	60,107,134	23,362,584	20,335,066	15,617,140	7,069,279
1836,	86,022,915	64,487,550	37,036,235	21,441,200	19,345,690	8,081,668
1837,	52,289,557	61,218,813	22,497,817	20,255,346	18,927,871	7,604,002
1838,	49,051,181	58,843,392	18,087,149	16,252,413	15,971,394	7,684,006
1839,	71,600,351	68,169,082	33,234,119	18,924,413	19,276,795	7,724,429
1840,	39,130,921	70,420,846	17,908,127	22,349,154	14,019,647	7,617,347
1841,	51,099,638	62,376,402	24,187,444	22,235,575	16,316,303	7,181,409
1842,	38,613,043	52,306,650	17,223,390	18,738,860	12,176,588	6,323,295
1843,	28,978,582	46,901,835	7,836,137	12,472,453	6,980,504	3,953,694
1844,	45,459,122	61,721,876	17,952,412	16,133,436	13,775,451	6,751,811
1845,	49,903,725	61,044,535	22,069,914	16,143,994	10,590,544	7,790,442

STATEMENT—Continued.

Years.	NETHERLANDS AND DEPEND.		SWEDEN AND DEPENDENC'S.		DENMARK AND DEPEND.	
	Imported from.	Exported to.	Imported from.	Exported to.	Imported from.	Exported to.
1821,	\$2,934,272	\$6,092,061	\$1,369,869	\$777,407	\$1,999,730	\$2,327,882
1822,	2,708,162	5,801,639	1,544,907	921,434	2,535,406	2,434,046
1823,	2,125,587	7,767,075	1,503,050	558,291	1,324,532	1,955,071
1824,	2,355,525	3,617,389	1,101,750	569,428	2,110,666	2,183,252
1825,	2,265,378	5,895,499	1,417,598	569,550	1,539,592	2,701,088
1826,	2,174,181	4,794,070	1,292,182	358,380	2,117,164	2,412,875
1827,	1,722,070	3,826,674	1,225,042	850,877	2,340,171	2,404,822
1828,	1,990,431	3,083,359	1,946,783	1,106,954	2,374,069	3,348,167
1829,	1,617,334	4,622,120	1,303,959	957,948	2,086,177	2,311,174
1830,	1,356,765	4,562,437	1,398,640	961,729	1,671,218	2,014,085
1831,	1,653,031	3,096,609	1,120,730	540,078	1,652,216	2,000,793
1832,	2,358,474	6,035,466	1,150,804	515,140	1,182,708	2,207,551
1833,	2,347,343	3,566,361	1,200,899	420,069	1,166,872	1,839,834
1834,	2,127,886	4,578,739	1,126,541	494,741	1,684,368	1,857,114
1835,	2,903,718	4,411,053	1,316,508	602,593	1,403,902	1,780,496
1836,	3,861,514	4,799,157	1,299,603	700,386	1,874,340	2,122,469
1837,	3,370,828	4,285,767	1,468,878	507,523	1,266,906	1,640,173
1838,	2,194,238	3,772,206	900,790	355,852	1,644,865	1,299,927
1839,	3,473,220	2,871,239	1,566,142	470,914	1,546,758	1,406,346
1840,	2,326,896	4,546,085	1,275,458	652,546	976,678	1,193,500
1841,	2,440,437	3,288,741	1,229,641	771,210	1,084,321	987,283
1842,	2,214,520	4,270,770	914,176	477,965	584,321	1,047,673
1843,	815,541	2,370,884	278,674	67,762	485,285	827,865
1844,	2,136,386	3,453,385	445,553	295,345	630,510	983,156
1845,	1,897,623	3,610,602	640,057	363,667	783,238	1,139,596

A STATEMENT

Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, from 1821 to 1845, inclusive—Continued.

Years.	PORTUGAL AND DEPEND.		CHINA.		HANSE TOWNS.	
	Imp'd from.	Exp'ted to.	Imp'ted from.	Exported to.	Imp'd from.	Exp'ted to.
1821,	\$748,423	\$435,700	\$3,111,951	\$4,290,560	\$990,165	\$2,132,544
1822,	881,290	427,491	5,242,536	5,935,368	1,578,757	2,505,015
1823,	533,635	246,648	6,511,425	4,636,061	1,981,026	3,169,439
1824,	601,722	518,836	5,618,502	5,301,171	2,527,830	1,863,273
1825,	733,443	408,160	7,533,115	5,570,515	2,739,526	3,121,033
1826,	765,203	313,553	7,422,186	2,566,644	2,816,545	2,116,697
1827,	659,001	357,270	3,617,183	3,864,405	1,638,558	3,013,185
1828,	433,555	291,614	5,339,108	1,482,802	2,644,392	2,995,251
1829,	687,869	322,911	4,680,847	1,354,862	2,274,275	3,277,160
1830,	471,643	279,799	3,878,141	742,193	1,873,278	2,274,880
1831,	397,550	294,383	3,083,205	1,290,835	3,493,301	2,592,172
1832,	485,264	296,218	5,344,907	1,260,522	2,865,096	4,088,212
1833,	555,137	442,561	7,541,570	1,433,759	2,227,726	2,903,296
1834,	699,122	322,496	7,892,327	1,010,483	3,355,856	4,659,674
1835,	1,125,713	521,413	5,987,187	1,868,580	3,841,943	3,528,276
1836,	672,760	191,007	7,324,816	1,194,264	4,994,820	4,363,882
1837,	928,291	423,705	8,965,337	630,591	5,642,221	3,754,949
1838,	725,058	232,131	4,764,536	1,516,602	2,847,358	3,291,645
1839,	1,182,323	244,354	3,678,509	1,533,601	4,849,150	2,801,067
1840,	599,894	321,256	6,640,829	1,009,966	2,521,493	4,198,459
1841,	574,841	349,113	3,985,388	1,200,816	2,449,964	4,560,716
1842,	347,684	302,964	4,934,645	1,444,397	2,274,019	4,564,513
1843,	71,369	168,534	4,385,566	2,418,958	920,865	3,291,932
1844,	257,015	252,170	4,931,255	1,756,941	2,136,386	3,566,687
1845,	501,734	247,180	7,285,914	2,275,995	2,912,537	4,945,020

A STATEMENT

Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, from 1821 to 1845, inclusive—Continued.

Years.	RUSSIA.		ITALY.		HAYTI.	
	Imp'd from.	Exp'ted to.	Imp'd from.	Exported to.	Imp'ted from.	Exported to.
1821,	\$1,852,199	\$628,894	\$973,463	\$1,099,667	\$2,246,257	\$2,270,601
1822,	3,307,328	529,081	1,562,033	1,450,184	2,341,817	2,119,811
1823,	2,258,777	648,734	1,369,440	1,067,905	2,352,733	2,378,782
1824,	2,209,663	231,981	1,029,439	664,348	2,247,235	2,365,155
1825,	2,067,110	287,401	1,454,022	645,039	2,065,329	2,054,615
1826,	2,617,169	174,648	1,120,749	530,221	1,511,836	1,414,494
1827,	2,086,077	382,244	1,013,126	610,221	1,781,309	1,331,909
1828,	2,788,362	450,495	1,607,417	920,750	2,163,585	1,332,711
1829,	2,218,995	386,226	1,409,588	901,012	1,799,809	975,158
1830,	1,621,899	416,575	940,254	740,360	1,597,140	823,178
1831,	1,608,328	462,766	1,704,264	694,525	1,580,578	1,318,375
1832,	3,251,852	582,682	1,619,795	687,563	2,053,386	1,669,003
1833,	2,772,550	703,805	999,134	372,186	1,740,058	1,427,963
1834,	2,595,840	330,694	1,422,063	493,557	2,113,717	1,436,952
1835,	2,395,245	585,447	1,457,977	285,941	2,347,556	1,815,812
1836,	2,778,554	911,013	1,970,246	664,059	1,828,019	1,240,039
1837,	2,816,116	1,306,732	1,827,181	623,677	1,440,856	1,011,981
1838,	1,898,396	1,048,289	944,238	459,893	1,275,762	910,255
1839,	2,393,894	1,239,246	1,182,297	438,152	1,377,989	1,122,559
1840,	2,572,427	1,169,481	1,157,200	1,473,185	1,252,824	1,027,214
1841,	2,817,448	1,025,729	1,151,236	912,318	1,809,684	1,155,557
1842,	1,350,106	836,593	987,528	820,517	1,266,997	899,966
1843,	742,803	386,793	394,564	728,221	898,447	653,370
1844,	1,059,419	555,414	1,096,926	576,823	1,441,244	1,128,356
1845,	1,492,262	727,337	1,301,577	817,921	1,386,367	1,405,740

A STATEMENT

Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, from 1821 to 1845, inclusive—Continued.

Years.	MEXICO.		VENEZUELA, N. GRANADA, ECUADOR.		CENT. AMERICA.	
	Imp'd from.	Exported to.	Imp'd from.	Exported to.	Imp'd from.	Exported to.
1821,
1822,
1823,
1824,
1825,	\$4,044,647	\$6,470,144	\$1,837,050	\$2,239,255	\$56,789	\$99,522
1826,	3,916,198	6,281,050	2,079,724	1,952,672	204,270	119,774
1827,	5,231,867	4,173,257	1,550,248	944,534	251,342	224,772
1828,	4,814,258	2,886,484	1,484,856	884,524	204,770	159,272
1829,	5,026,761	2,331,151	1,255,310	767,348	311,931	239,854
1830,	5,235,241	4,837,458	1,120,095	496,990	302,833	250,118
1831,	5,166,745	6,178,218	1,207,154	658,149	198,504	306,497
1832,	4,293,954	3,467,541	1,439,182	1,117,024	288,316	335,307
1833,	5,452,818	5,408,091	1,524,622	957,543	267,740	575,016
1834,	8,066,068	5,265,053	1,727,188	795,567	170,968	184,149
1835,	9,490,446	9,029,221	1,662,764	1,064,016	215,450	183,793
1836,	5,615,819	6,041,635	1,696,650	829,255	195,304	189,518
1837,	5,654,002	3,880,323	1,567,345	1,080,109	163,402	157,663
1838,	3,500,709	2,164,097	1,615,249	724,739	155,614	243,040
1839,	3,127,153	2,787,362	2,073,216	750,785	192,845	216,242
1840,	4,175,001	2,515,341	1,572,548	919,123	189,021	217,946
1841,	3,284,957	2,036,620	2,156,121	872,937	186,911	149,913
1842,	1,995,696	1,534,233	1,720,558	769,936	124,994	69,466
1843,	2,782,406	1,471,937	1,307,013	745,455	132,167	52,966
1844,	2,387,002	1,794,833	1,625,095	656,078	189,616	150,276
1845,	1,702,936	1,152,331	1,440,196	804,107	65,269	67,649

STATEMENT—Continued.

Years.	BRAZIL.		ARG. AND CISPLAT. REPUBLICS.		CHILI.	
	Imp'd from.	Exported to.	Imp'd from.	Exported to.	Imp'd from.	Exported to.
1821,	\$605,126	\$1,381,760
1822,	1,486,567	1,463,929
1823,	1,214,810	1,341,390
1824,	2,074,119	2,301,904
1825,	2,156,707	2,393,754	\$749,771	\$573,520	\$229,509	\$921,438
1826,	2,156,678	2,200,349	522,769	379,340	629,949	1,447,498
1827,	2,060,971	1,863,806	80,065	151,204	184,693	1,702,601
1828,	3,097,752	1,988,705	317,466	154,228	781,863	2,629,402
1829,	2,535,467	1,929,927	915,190	626,052	416,118	1,421,134
1830,	2,491,460	1,843,238	1,431,853	629,887	182,585	1,536,114
1831,	2,375,829	2,076,095	928,103	659,779	413,758	1,368,155
1832,	3,890,845	2,054,794	1,560,171	926,365	504,623	1,221,119
1833,	5,089,693	3,272,101	1,377,117	699,728	334,130	1,463,940
1834,	4,729,969	2,059,351	1,430,118	971,837	787,409	1,476,355
1835,	5,574,466	2,608,656	878,618	708,918	917,095	941,884
1836,	7,210,190	3,094,936	1,053,503	384,933	811,497	937,917
1837,	4,991,893	1,743,209	1,000,002	273,872	1,180,156	1,487,799
1838,	3,191,238	2,657,194	1,029,539	296,994	942,095	1,370,264
1839,	5,292,955	2,637,485	1,150,546	465,363	1,186,641	1,794,553
1840,	4,927,296	2,506,574	787,964	519,006	1,616,859	1,728,829
1841,	6,302,653	3,517,273	1,957,747	818,170	1,230,980	1,102,988
1842,	5,948,814	2,601,502	2,417,541	681,228	831,039	1,639,676
1843,	3,947,658	1,792,288	915,241	557,234	857,556	1,049,263
1844,	6,883,806	2,818,252	1,565,955	966,465	750,370	1,105,421
1845,	6,084,599	2,837,950	1,771,271	660,142	1,123,690	1,548,191

TEXAS.—Imported from, in 1837, \$163,384; 1838, \$165,718; 1839, \$318,116; 1840, \$303,847; 1841, \$395,026; 1842, \$480,892; 1843, \$445,399; 1844, \$678,551; 1845, \$755,324. Exported to, in 1837, \$1,007,928; 1838, \$1,247,880; 1839, \$1,687,082; 1840, \$1,218,271; 1841, \$808,296; 1842, \$406,929; 1843, \$142,953; 1844, \$277,548; 1845, \$363,792.

COTTON WOOL TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have received the Cotton Circular of Messrs. Todd, Jackson & Co. of Liverpool, which furnishes several carefully compiled tabular statements of the import, export, consumption, &c., of cotton in Great Britain for a series of years, from which we have constructed the annexed tables.

"Of all the final measures," says the Liverpool circular, "which have distinguished our administration for years past, perhaps it would be difficult to point out one more politic, or of greater prospective advantage to the country, than the remission of the duty on raw cotton. The greater degree of intelligence which in these days is exercised in commercial pursuits, induces inquiries into the fundamental principles by which they should be regulated—by which solidity and permanency may be established in the great branches of national industry, and the natural advantages and characteristic ingenuity of the people developed to the greatest extent; one of the results of these inquiries is, that the impolicy of taxing the raw materials of manufactures, instead of being as formerly the subject of conflicting opinions, is now regarded as an established axiom. Cotton, beyond all other produce, (except food,) had claims to free and unrestricted admission, on account of the multitudes employed in the multifarious processes of its manufacture, whose chief hope of that employment being continuous and durable depended on our ability to compete with other nations. The salutary remission of duty on this important staple took place in the month of March—very little immediate effect was felt from it then, but the importance of such changes is not to be measured by momentary and transient fluctuations, but the solid advantages they confer in after times."

The following table shows the import of cotton into Great Britain, from 1836 to 1845, inclusive:—

GENERAL STATEMENT OF IMPORT INTO GREAT BRITAIN, DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.

YEARS.	Atlantic States.	N.Orleans, Mobile, &c.	Total U. States.	Brazil.	Demerara & Berberice.	W.-In-dies.	Egypt.	East Indies.	Grand Total.
1845,...	495,672	881,222	1,499,594	110,176	8,814	82,007	155,140	1,855,731
1844,...	493,697	735,776	1,229,473	112,228	17,410	67,033	230,761	1,656,905
1843,...	489,110	907,461	1,396,571	98,726	114	19,509	46,506	181,992	1,743,418
1842,...	346,057	672,671	1,018,728	85,655	135	19,776	18,245	255,129	1,397,668
1841,...	277,214	624,978	902,192	90,637	295	34,366	40,054	274,984	1,342,528
1840,...	434,642	810,365	1,245,007	83,991	517	24,789	37,112	216,495	1,607,911
1839,...	347,111	466,504	813,125	97,656	1,494	36,583	31,576	131,731	1,112,165
1838,...	451,009	673,183	1,124,192	137,499	1,880	30,318	28,461	108,879	1,431,229
1837,...	327,739	517,449	845,188	116,605	2,436	27,652	39,329	145,063	1,176,273
1836,...	384,183	381,053	765,236	148,093	3,167	32,586	32,946	219,157	1,201,185

STATEMENT OF STOCK OF COTTON AT THE CLOSE OF THE LAST SIX YEARS.

DESCRIPTIONS.	Total in the kingdom.					
	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.
Sea Island,.....	180,800	145,821	4,400	3,450	5,380	6,170
Stained do,.....			800	1,080	1,240	490
Upland,.....			131,300	88,280	68,090	98,010
Mobile and Alabama,.....	512,300	396,041	119,200	53,380	56,500	62,830
New Orleans,.....			227,500	136,250	147,880	137,490
Pernambuco, &c.,.....	16,800	26,931	18,770	17,010	9,070
Bahia and Maccio,.....	11,800	11,810	68,300	10,870	8,530	5,670
Maranhã,.....	23,700	23,890	27,850	18,940	7,760
Peruvian,.....	2,490	9,800	5,540
Egyptian,.....	67,900	41,383	28,000	21,720	30,910	21,810
Surat and Madras,.....	240,400	235,517	191,700	146,470	138,280	80,120
Other descriptions,.....	6,700	14,534	14,600	50,820	35,610	29,090
Total,.....	1,060,400	895,927	785,800	561,430	538,260	464,050

Commercial Statistics.

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IMPORT OF COTTON WOOL INTO GREAT BRITAIN, FROM 1806 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE, BEING A PERIOD OF FORTY YEARS, DISTINGUISHING THE GROWTH.

Years.	American.	Brazil.	Egyptian.	East India.	W. Ind., etc.	Total.
1806	124,939	51,034	7,787	77,978	261,738
1807	171,267	18,981	11,409	81,010	282,667
1808	37,672	50,442	12,512	67,512	168,138
1809	160,180	140,927	35,764	103,511	440,382
1810	246,759	142,846	79,382	92,186	561,173
1811	128,192	118,514	14,646	64,879	326,231
1812	95,331	98,704	2,607	64,563	261,205
1813	37,720	137,168	1,429	73,219	249,536
1814	48,853	150,930	13,048	74,800	287,631
1815	203,051	91,055	22,357	52,840	369,303
1816	166,077	123,450	30,670	49,235	369,432
1817	199,669	114,518	120,202	44,872	479,261
1818	207,580	162,499	247,659	50,991	668,729
1819	205,161	125,415	184,259	31,300	546,135
1820	302,395	180,086	57,923	31,247	571,651
1821	300,070	121,085	30,095	40,428	491,678
1822	329,906	143,505	19,263	40,770	533,444
1823	452,538	144,611	5,623	38,393	27,632	668,797
1824	282,371	143,310	38,022	50,852	25,537	540,092
1825	423,446	193,942	111,023	60,484	31,988	820,883
1826	395,852	55,590	47,621	64,699	18,188	581,950
1827	646,776	120,111	22,450	73,738	30,988	894,063
1828	444,390	167,362	32,889	84,855	20,056	749,552
1829	463,076	159,536	24,739	80,489	18,867	746,707
1830	618,527	191,468	14,752	35,019	11,721	871,487
1831	608,887	168,288	38,124	76,764	11,304	903,367
1832	628,766	114,585	41,183	109,298	8,490	902,322
1833	654,786	163,193	3,893	94,698	13,646	930,216
1834	733,528	103,646	72,077	89,098	17,485	951,034
1835	763,199	143,572	43,721	117,965	22,796	1,091,253
1836	764,707	148,715	34,953	219,493	33,506	1,201,347
1837	844,812	117,005	41,193	145,174	27,791	1,175,975
1838	1,124,800	135,500	29,700	107,200	29,400	1,428,600
1839	814,500	99,300	33,500	132,900	36,000	1,116,200
1840	1,237,500	85,300	38,000	216,400	22,300	1,599,500
1841	902,500	94,300	40,700	273,600	32,900	1,344,000
1842	1,013,400	87,100	19,600	255,500	17,300	1,392,900
1843	1,396,800	98,700	48,800	182,100	17,700	1,744,100
1844	1,246,900	112,900	66,700	237,600	17,500	1,681,600
1845	1,499,600	110,200	82,000	155,100	8,800	1,855,700

IMPORT OF COTTON WOOL INTO LIVERPOOL IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1791 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE, IN PACKAGES.

Years.	Packages.	Years.	Packages.	Years.	Packages.	Years.	Packages.
1791	68,404	1805	177,508	1819	365,365	1833	840,953
1792	72,364	1806	173,074	1820	458,736	1834	841,474
1793	24,971	1807	196,467	1821	413,182	1835	970,717
1794	38,022	1808	66,215	1822	453,732	1836	1,023,587
1795	54,841	1809	267,283	1823	578,303	1837	1,036,005
1796	63,526	1810	320,594	1824	447,083	1838	1,328,415
1797	58,258	1811	174,132	1825	706,316	1839	1,019,229
1798	66,934	1812	171,551	1826	489,204	1840	1,415,341
1799	89,784	1813	141,188	1827	756,296	1841	1,164,269
1800	92,580	1814	182,626	1828	630,245	1842	1,249,811
1801	98,752	1815	270,635	1829	640,998	1843	1,557,597
1802	135,192	1816	276,715	1830	793,605	1844	1,490,984
1803	140,291	1817	314,181	1831	791,582	1845	1,652,731
1804	153,126	1818	425,344	1832	779,071		

In 1785, the import into Liverpool from America was only 5 bags; in 1787, it was 108 bags.

EXPORT AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN GREAT BRITAIN, FOR FOUR YEARS.

	Export.			Consumption.			
	1844.	1843.	1842.	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.
American,.....	76,650	52,350	62,000	1,289,808	1,099,830	1,114,772	918,978
Brazil,.....	2,100	1,300	2,450	113,984	115,697	80,444	68,415
West India,...	400	1,190	2,350	17,212	15,490	25,532	24,491
Egyptian,.....	300	200	100	55,124	54,155	40,300	27,175
East India,....	70,550	61,160	70,100	98,176	120,388	111,384	156,299
Total,.....	150,000	116,200	138,000	1,574,304	1,405,560	1,372,432	1,195,358

PRICES OF COTTON AT LIVERPOOL.

		1845.	1844.			1845.	1844.
Orleans and Mobile—ord.	3½ a	3½	3½ a	3½	Sea Isl.—st. & s. gin'd.	5 a	10 5 a
Middling,.....	4½ a	4½	4 a	4½	Ordinary,.....	10½ a	11½ 10 a
Fair,.....	4½ a	4½	4½ a	4½	Middling,.....	12 a	12½ 11 a
Good fair,.....	5 a	5½	4½ a	5	Fair,.....	13½ a	14 12 a
Good,.....	5½ a	6	5½ a	6	Good fair,.....	14½ a	15 13 a
Choice gin marks,.....	6½ a	7	6½ a	7	Good and fine,.....	15½ a	24 14½ a
Upland—ordinary,.....	3½ a	3½	3½ a	3½	Surat—ordinary,.....	2½ a	2½ 2½
Middling,.....	3½ a	4	3½ a	4	Middling,.....	3 a	3½ 2½ a
Fair,.....	4½ a	4½	4½ a	4½	Fair,.....	3½ a	3 a 3½
Good fair,.....	4½ a	4½	4½ a	4½	Good fair,.....	3½ a	3½ a 3½
Good,.....	4½ a	5	4½ a	5	Good,.....	3½ a	3½ a 3½

FRENCH COTTON WOOL TRADE.

Havre, January 1, 1846.

STATEMENT OF IMPORTS, DELIVERIES AND STOCKS, FROM JAN. 1, TO DEC. 31, FOR TEN YEARS.

Years.	Stock 1st of January.		Imports.		Deliveries.	
	U. States.	All Kinds.	U. States.	All Kinds.	U. States.	All Kinds.
1845,....	48,300	53,000	320,927	330,592	319,227	332,292
1844,....	88,200	100,000	266,515	279,095	306,415	326,095
1843,....	101,400	110,000	303,327	325,297	312,038	330,373
1842,....	84,000	90,000	341,516	369,197	324,116	349,197
1841,....	75,000	80,000	341,463	357,383	332,463	347,383
1840,....	48,400	57,000	362,045	375,643	335,445	352,643
1839,....	30,500	33,700	227,778	264,168	209,888	240,868
1838,....	28,800	33,000	273,864	294,520	272,164	293,820
1837,....	34,300	45,500	221,317	248,859	226,817	261,359
1836,....	12,200	18,800	226,370	260,286	204,270	233,586

IMPORTS OF AMERICAN COTTON INTO TRIESTE.

The United States Gazette furnishes us with an accurately prepared table of the imports of cotton at the port of Trieste, Austria, from the year 1831 to 1845, inclusive. The gradual yearly increase in the amount of cotton from the United States, must be a source of gratification to those who are interested in the trade with this important seaport of Austria.

IMPORT OF AMERICAN COTTON INTO TRIESTE, FROM 1831 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Bales imported from the United States.		Tot. bales imported from all quarters.	Years.	Bales imported from the United States.		Tot. bales imported from all quarters.
1831,.....	7,729	66,196		1839,.....	18,030	85,720	
1832,.....	6,762	89,991		1840,.....	52,033	86,300	
1833,.....	4,941	64,938		1841,.....	20,927	56,702	
1834,.....	13,488	54,537		1842,.....	40,141	122,480	
1835,.....	17,892	80,676		1843,.....	37,550	140,500	
1836,.....	23,450	126,898		1844,.....	37,800	79,200	
1837,.....	20,871	95,557		1845,.....	52,400	95,195	
1838,.....	20,702	108,057					

PORK TRADE AND PORK PACKING IN THE WEST.

As there has been of late an unusual interest excited throughout the country, in regard to the hog-slaughtering and pork-packing of the great West, we give below a comparative statement of the business of the three last years, derived from a correspondent of the Philadelphia Commercial List. The writer alluded to took considerable trouble to ascertain the actual numbers cut and packed at different points; and, in the table below, gives the correct number of hogs cut and packed at fifty-three different towns. The hogs this season, in consequence of the farmers urging, or rather forcing the thing, much more than usual, to get their yearling hogs into market, (to obtain the high prices,) will average full 15 lbs. per hog lighter, throughout the country, than last season. This, on 800,000 hogs, (the supposed number generally packed throughout the West,) at an average of 225 lbs. per hog, would deduct from the excess 55,333 hogs. On the 1st day of December, 1844, as far as can be ascertained, there was full 125,000 bbls. of old pork in the United States, over the amount on hand at a similar date in 1845; say 50,000 bbls. in New York, 40,000 bbls. in all the other Eastern cities, and 35,000 bbls. at New Orleans, and all the different points throughout the West. This, with the excess of old lard and bacon at that time, would be fully equal to 300,000 hogs.

	1843-4.	1844-5.	1845-6.		1843-4.	1844-5.	1845-6.
Cincinnati, O.,	250,000	200,000	270,000	Centerville, Ia.,	1,600	1,800
Circleville,.....	42,000	12,000	16,000	Brookville,.....	8,500	6,000	7,000
Columbus,.....	14,000	8,000	10,000	Economy,.....	800	400	300
Chillicothe,....	52,000	24,000	40,000	Evansville,.....	5,000	4,000	7,500
Portsmouth,....	2,000	800	1,500	Louisville, Ky.,	68,000	50,000	100,000
Winchester,....	1,200	800	Maysville,.....	14,000	7,000	9,000
Eaton,.....	3,800	700	1,000	Bowling Green,	8,000	7,000	8,500
Piqua,.....	5,000	1,500	2,600	Frankfort,.....	11,000	10,000	4,500
Franklin,.....	3,500	2,800	3,000	Alton, Ill.,.....	10,000	16,000	18,000
Dayton,.....	20,000	12,000	6,000	St. Louis, Mo.,	16,000	13,000	17,000
Middleton,.....	10,000	7,500	7,500	Hannibal,.....	20,000	16,000	18,000
Camden,.....	8,000	7,000	8,000	La Groo,.....	3,000	1,000
Hamilton,.....	40,000	35,000	35,000	Independence,.	600	500
Lebanon,.....	5,000	4,000	4,000	Fort Wayne,...	3,000	800	2,000
Lancaster,.....	2,500	1,100	1,300	Williamsport,..	4,500	2,000	2,400
Centerville,....	700	600	800	Newport,.....	3,500	1,200	200
Greenville,....	2,500	1,000	600	Vincennes,.....	6,000	3,000	5,000
New Paris,.....	5,000	6,000	6,000	Attica,.....	2,700	1,700	3,500
Xenia,.....	5,000	1,500	200	Montezuma,....	7,000	1,000	1,000
Clarksville, ...	11,000	10,000	9,000	Terre Haute,...	27,000	18,000	20,000
Leesburgh,.....	500	Delphi,.....	7,000	2,000	6,000
Miamessburgh,..	1,800	1,500	1,000	Crawfordsville,.	7,000	5,000
N. Burlington,.	2,400	1,700	2,000	Troy,.....	4,000	1,000	2,000
Ripley,.....	10,000	10,000	12,000	Lafayette,.....	25,000	15,000	15,000
Springfield,....	6,000	5,000	1,000				
Lawrencebu'gh,					856,000	593,500	758,100
Indiana,.....	13,000	9,000	10,000				593,500
Laurel,.....	8,000	7,000	4,000				164,600
Madison,.....	45,000	50,000	50,000				
Richmond,.....	5,000	800	1,000				

Showing the whole matter to stand thus:—

Old pork on hand last year, equal to.....	300,000
Excess in the number of head of hogs cut in the 53 towns above named, (including all the most important points,) this year over last,.....	164,600
Deduct for light weight, as per above,.....	55,333
	<u>109,267</u>
Total,.....	190,733

Thus, it will be seen very plainly that there must be an excess of full 190,733 head of hogs cut.

It is stated in Peabody's Weekly Markets, of Feb. 20th, 1846, that the number packed at Cincinnati during the last season has been largely augmented by a change of the direction of the hogs from Southern Kentucky, a large proportion of which were driven to the Ohio river this season, on account of the scarcity of corn on the southern route beyond the Cumberland Gap. Last year Cincinnati received from Kentucky about 45,000 head, and this year about 140,000, making the receipts of live hogs from other sources (Ohio and Indiana) actually less this season than last.

IMPORT OF HIDES AT NEW YORK, 1845.

From	Total.	From	Total.
Africa.....	42,029	Maracaibo.....	3,187
Angostura.....	77,009	Para.....	8,741
Buenos Ayres.....	36,259	Rio Grande.....	174,640
Calcutta.....	34,899	Rio Grande—Horse.....	175
Carthagena.....	40,732	West Indies.....	9,791
Chagres.....	5,865	Southern States.....	51,635
Central America.....	7,450	San Juan.....	14,637
Curacoa.....	2,650	To dealers, sole leather hides only,	121,022
Honduras.....	780	Coastwise, not enumerated above,	33,224
Laguayra and Porto Cabello.....	8,910		
Mexico and Texas.....	55,856	Total—1845.....	776,640
Montevideo.....	26,112	1844.....	854,790
Maranhã.....	22,037	1843.....	653,431

EXPORT OF HIDES FOR THE YEARS—

1845.....	53,633	1842.....	31,286
1844.....	45,645	1841.....	4,245
1843.....	53,633	1840.....	31,325

LIVERPOOL TOBACCO TRADE.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE STOCKS, IMPORTS AND DELIVERIES OF TOBACCO, IN LIVERPOOL, THE LAST TEN YEARS.

Years.	Stock 1st January.		Imports.				Total.
	Stock.	Virginia.	N. Orleans.	Baltimore.	Other Ports.		
1836.....	8,878	6,693	3,430	141	10,264	
1837.....	9,903	3,830	2,235	35	6,100	
1838.....	5,690	5,535	2,515	298	8,348	
1839.....	5,190	6,151	3,379	55	1,153	10,738	
1840.....	7,233	6,665	3,834	13	209	10,721	
1841.....	7,524	4,462	5,205	77	799	10,543	
1842.....	9,553	5,178	7,580	371	13,129	
1843.....	12,761	4,852	7,530	1,350	13,732	
1844.....	15,444	4,804	6,976	47	614	12,441	
1845.....	16,273	5,815	6,959	596	13,370	

Years.	Stock 31st December.		Deliveries.				Total.
	Stock.	Home Use.	Ireland.	Export.	Coastwise.		
1836.....	9,903	4,523	2,134	1,997	585	9,239	
1837.....	5,690	4,450	2,624	2,115	1,121	10,313	
1838.....	5,180	4,918	1,972	1,140	828	8,858	
1839.....	7,233	4,503	2,080	1,423	879	8,685	
1840.....	7,524	4,385	3,074	1,976	995	10,430	
1841.....	9,553	3,789	2,626	1,227	872	8,514	
1842.....	12,761	3,907	2,579	2,399	1,036	9,921	
1843.....	15,444	4,777	2,761	2,100	1,411	11,049	
1844.....	16,273	4,986	3,547	1,760	1,319	11,612	
1845.....	17,302	4,377	3,406	2,048	2,510	12,341	

ANNUAL SALES AND DISTRIBUTION OF TOBACCO.

The total annual sales, and their distribution for the last six years, were as follows:

	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.
To manufacturers,.....	5,994	5,450	5,726	4,981	4,142	5,913
For Ireland and Scotland,.....	5,324	4,214	2,886	2,951	2,944	2,858
For exportation,.....	2,199	1,934	2,327	2,871	1,707	1,721
On speculation,.....	907	1,447	1,800	690	1,028	1,140
Total sales,.....	14,424	13,045	12,739	11,493	9,821	11,632

PARTICULARS OF LEAF AND STEMMED, IMPORTED DURING THE LAST SEVEN YEARS, AND THE STOCK ON SALE AT THE CLOSE OF EACH YEAR.

<i>Imports.</i>							
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Virginia leaf,.....	3,521	3,739	3,606	2,605	1,105	968	1,862
“ stemmed,.....	2,481	2,926	1,143	1,909	2,112	2,346	4,222
Kentucky leaf,.....	847	811	1,271	726	4,925	2,016	1,814
“ stemmed,.....	3,144	3,023	4,488	6,979	1,902	4,055	5,472
Other sorts,.....	745	222	35	4	13
Not sampled,.....	906	3,688	2,143
Total,.....	10,738	10,721	10,543	13,129	13,732	11,541	13,370

<i>Stocks on Sale.</i>							
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Virginia leaf,.....	1,074	1,929	2,800	1,744	1,618	1,321	1,596
“ stemmed,.....	2,076	2,023	1,012	952	1,788	2,353	3,213
Kentucky leaf,.....	194	239	725	261	3,015	3,819	2,921
“ stemmed,.....	2,080	1,333	3,215	6,657	3,712	5,402	5,042
Not yet sampled,.....	171	43	35	20	8	4,530
Total,.....	5,595	5,567	7,787	9,634	10,133	12,903	17,302

	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.
Stock in London, 31st Dec..	27,300	31,700	30,000	19,400	19,778	12,900
Liverpool,.....	17,302	16,273	15,444	12,761	9,553	7,524
Bristol, Hull & Newcastle,	1,738	1,500	1,600	1,750	1,435	1,100
Scotland,.....	1,300	1,200	1,500	1,540	1,450	1,200
Ireland,.....	2,350	2,000	1,800	1,800	1,450	1,400
Total in Great Britain,.....	49,990	52,673	50,344	37,251	33,666	24,124

PRICES CURRENT OF TOBACCO, AT LIVERPOOL, DECEMBER 31, 1843, 1844, 1845.

	1845.	1844.	1843.
Virginia Leaf—Ordinary and faded,.....	2 a 2½	1½ a 2	2 a 2½
Ordinary sound,.....	2¾ a 3¼	2¾ a —	3 a —
Fair leafy,.....	4 a 4½	3½ a —	3½ a 4½
Good substance,.....	4½ a 5	4 a 4½	4½ a —
Fine Irish,.....	5½ a —	4½ a 5	5 a 5½
Stemmed—Ordinary short,.....	3½ a —	3 a 3½	3½ a —
Fair dry leafy,.....	4 a 4½	4 a —	4 a 4½
Good do,.....	5 a 5½	4½ a 5	5 a —
Fine Irish,.....	6 a 6½	5½ a 6	5½ a 6½
Do. butted,.....	6½ a —	6 a —	6½ a 7
Western Leaf—Ordinary,.....	2 a 2½	2 a —	2 a —
Middling,.....	3 a —	2½ a 2¾	2½ a 3
Fine dry,.....	3½ a 4	3 a 3½	3½ a 4
Stemmed—Ordinary,.....	3¾ a 4	3½ a 4	4 a —
Middling,.....	4½ a 4½	4½ a —	4½ a —
Fine,.....	4¾ a 5	4½ a 5	5 a 5½

The foregoing statistics of the Tobacco trade are derived from the Circular of Messrs. John and William Oxley & Co., dated Liverpool, January 3, 1846.

“There is not the smallest change in the aspect of our Tobacco market, (says the Circular,) since our report on the 3d ultimo. The sales of the month, amounting altogether to about 1,100 hogsheads, have resulted from a moderate steady inquiry from the ordinary channels of consumption, unaided by any speculative movement whatever, at prices in accordance with our recent quotations. These will be found to vary but little from the

rates current twelve months ago, except in the case of Virginia Leaf, which is to be accounted for by its superior quality—the Western Tobacco, on the other hand, although of a good color, we consider unequal to that of the previous crop, whilst the assortment of strips made from it, so far as we have seen, contains an unusually large proportion of only middle and common quality.”

PASSAGES OF THE NEW YORK PACKET SHIPS.

STATEMENT OF THE HOMEWARD PASSAGES OF THE NEW YORK PACKET SHIPS FROM LIVERPOOL, FROM FEBRUARY, 1845, TO MARCH, 1846—ONE YEAR.

Ships.	S'led from Liverpool.			Ships.	S'led from Liverpool.		
	1845.	Arr'd at N. York.	Ds. on Pass.		1845.	Ar. at N. Y.	Ds. on Pass.
New York,.....	Feb. 4	Mar. 23	47	Oxford,.....	Aug. 2	Aug. 29	27
Liverpool,.....	7	23	44	Rochester,.....	11	Sep. 7	27
Siddons,.....	11	24	41	Garrick,.....	12	7	26
Columbus,.....	18	31	41	Montezuma,.....	16	15	30
Ashburton,.....	25	30	33	Independence,.....	22	22	31
S. Whitney,.....	28	30	30	Waterloo,.....	29	26	28
Yorkshire,.....	Mar. 4	25	21	Fidelia,.....	Sep. 2	Oct. 1	29
Q'n of the West,.....	7	Ap. 1	25	Hottinguer,.....	6	11	35
Sheridan,.....	13	18	36	Roscius,.....	12	11	29
Cambridge,.....	19	28	40	Europe,.....	20	18	28
Patrick Henry,.....	23	23	31	Ashburton,.....	22	16	24
Empire,.....	31	29	29	John R. Skiddy,.....	Oct. 2	Nov. 1	30
Oxford,.....	Ap. 3	May 2	29	New York,.....	2	2	31
Rochester,.....	9	14	35	Liverpool,.....	7	8	32
Garrick,.....	12	18	36	Siddons,.....	13	16	34
Indiana,.....	17	18	31	Shenandoah,.....	22	Dec. 3	42
Geo. Washington,.....	22	28	36	Henry Clay,.....	23	Nov. 26	34
Virginian,.....	28	30	32	S. Whitney,.....	29	Dec. 3	35
Montezuma,.....	May 5	June 2	28	Yorkshire,.....	Nov. 2	1	29
Hottinguer,.....	6	4	29	Q'n of the West,.....	7	5	28
Roscius,.....	14	17	34	Sheridan,.....	12	19	37
Europe,.....	18	23	36	Cambridge,.....	21	27	36
Independence,.....	22	24	33	Patrick Henry,.....	23	25	32
Waterloo,.....	26	26	31			1846.	
Ashburton,.....	June 1	July 5	34	Virginian,.....	Dec. 6	Jan. 28	53
New York,.....	1	7	36	Oxford,.....	6	15	40
Liverpool,.....	7	14	37	Rochester,.....	8	16	39
Siddons,.....	12	20	38	Garrick,.....	13	24	42
Columbus,.....	18	Aug. 3	46	Montezuma,.....	17	25	39
Henry Clay,.....	23	July 27	34	Independence,.....	24	Feb. 10	48
S. Whitney,.....	26	31	35	Waterloo,.....	29	5	38
Yorkshire,.....	July 2	July 30	28			1846.	
Q'n of the West,.....	7	Aug. 14	38	Fidelia,.....	Jan. 2	Feb. 22	51
Sheridan,.....	12	16	35	Hottinguer,.....	7	Mar. 6	58
Cambridge,.....	18	19	32	Roscius,.....	13	7	53
Patrick Henry,.....	22	21	30	Europe,.....	16	7	50
Virginian,.....	29	29	31	Ashburton,.....	23	5	41

COMMERCE OF AMSTERDAM.

The commerce of Amsterdam has increased in a very remarkable manner. In 1844, the number of vessels that arrived by sea was 1,843, whilst in 1845 it was 2,319. All the exportations increased very considerably, especially of refined sugar, of which the quantity was 41,800,000 lbs.; or 7,250,000 lbs. more than in 1844. In 1845, the importation of cotton, chiefly from the United States, was 22,323 bales, or double what it was in 1844. The increase is owing to the vast development which the neighboring town of Harlem has taken as a manufacturing place.

ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

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 1845, inclusive, with the annual increase, consumption, etc.

Years.	SCHUYLKILL.			LEHIGH.	OTHER REGIONS.				Aggregate.	Annual increase.	Consumption.	Unsold April 1.	Sold on Canal and Railroad.
	Canal.	Railroad.	Total.	Total.	Lackawanna.	Pine-grove.	Shamokin.	Wilkes-barre.					
1820				365					365				
1821				1,073					1,073	708			
1822				2,240					2,240	1,167			
1823				5,823					5,823	3,583			
1824				9,541					9,541	3,718			
1825	6,500		6,500	28,393					34,893	25,352			
1826	16,767		17,767	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	30,232					77,516	14,082			3,332
1829	79,973		79,973	25,110	7,000				112,083	34,567			5,321
1830	89,984		89,984	41,750	43,000				174,734	62,651			6,150
1831	81,854		81,854	40,966	54,000				176,820	2,086	177,000		10,048
1832	209,271		209,271	70,000	84,600				363,871	187,051	298,871	None.	13,429
1833	252,971		252,971	123,000	111,777				487,748	123,877	434,986	65,000	19,429
1834	226,692		226,692	106,244	43,700				376,636	Decrease.	415,186	117,762	18,571
1835	339,508		339,508	131,250	90,000				560,758	184,122	635,935	79,212	17,863
1836	432,045		432,045	146,522	103,861				682,428	121,670	632,428	4,035	21,749
1837	523,152		523,152	225,937	115,387	17,000			881,476	199,048	680,441	54,035	28,775
1838	433,875		433,875	214,211	78,207	13,000			739,293	Decrease.	788,968	255,070	30,390
1839	442,608		442,608	221,850	122,300	20,639	11,930		819,327	80,034	867,000	205,395	28,924
1840	452,291		452,291	225,288	148,470	23,860	15,505		865,414	46,087	973,136	157,622	41,223
1841	584,692		584,692	142,821	192,270	17,653	21,463		958,899	93,485	958,899	100,000	40,584
1842	491,602	49,290	540,892	272,129	205,253	32,381	10,000	47,346	1,108,001	149,102	1,158,001	100,000	34,619
1843	447,058	230,237	677,295	267,734	227,605	22,905	10,000	58,000	1,263,539	155,538	1,263,539	50,000	60,000
1844	398,443	441,491	839,934	377,821	251,005	34,916	13,087	114,906	1,631,669	368,130	1,631,669	50,000	90,000
1845	263,559	820,237	1,083,796	432,080	269,469	47,928	10,000	178,401	2,021,674	390,005		50,000	
Total	5,851,489	1,541,255	7,392,744	3,205,734	2,144,904	233,282	81,985	398,652	13,467,302				

In 1820, only 365 tons were sent to market. In 1830, the quantity had reached 174,734 tons; in 1840, 865,414; and in 1845, 2,021,674 tons. By this statement, it will be observed that the trade has more than doubled within the last five years.

The Pottsville Miners' Journal furnishes us with the following official summary statement of coal sent to market from the different regions in 1845, compared with 1844:—

Schuylkill.	1845.	1844.	Increased.
Railroad,.....tons	820,237	441,491	378,746
Canal,.....	263,559	398,443	Decrease.
	1,083,796	839,934	243,862
Lehigh,.....	432,030	377,821	54,259
Lackawanna,.....	269,469	251,005	18,461
Wilkesbarre,.....	178,401	114,906	63,495
Pinegrove,.....	47,928	34,916	13,012
Shamokin,.....	10,000	13,087
	2,021,674	1,631,669	
	1,631,669		
Increase in 1845,.....	390,005		

The Schuylkill region still maintains the position she has held since 1832, in furnishing more than one-half the supply of anthracite coal sent to market. Since the trade commenced, in 1820, up to the beginning of 1846, the supply from all sources amounted to 13,467,302 tons.

Of this quantity, the Schuylkill region furnished..... 7,392,744 tons.
All other regions, only..... 6,074,558

In favor of the Schuylkill region,..... 1,318,186

During the last year, our county furnished..... 1,131,722
All other counties, only..... 880,952

Excess in favor of Schuylkill county,..... 250,770

The following is the quantity of coal transported over the different railroads in Schuylkill county, during the years 1844 and 1845:—

	1844.	1845.	Increase.
West Branch,.....	334,027	442,220	108,193
Mount Carbon,.....	202,742	257,457	54,715
Schuylkill Valley,.....	109,865	128,448	18,883
Mill Creek,.....	75,636	109,828	34,192
Little Schuylkill,.....	56,669	74,850	18,181
Lorberry Creek,.....	34,916	47,928	12,012
	813,855	1,060,731	
		813,855	
Increase in 1845,.....		246,876	

The transportation of coal on the Schuylkill Valley Railroad did not commence until the 1st of June—and there was also about five weeks' interruption to the trade on the Mill Creek Railroad.

The operators engaged in this region, who send coal to market, number about 100. Of this number, 27 shipped upwards of 10,000 tons, 41 upwards of 5,000, and the balance less than 5,000.

On the West Branch, there are operators..... 35
Schuylkill Valley,..... 32
On Mount Carbon Road,..... 26
Mill Creek,..... 7

Total,..... 100

As the expenses of mining increase, the number of shipping operators decrease—the smaller find it their interest to sell the coal at the mouth of the mines to the larger operators.

BRITISH MANUFACTURES EXPORTED TO THE UNITED STATES.

We have compiled, from British official documents, the following table of the export of the chief articles of British manufacture from the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, and the Clyde, to the United States, from the 1st of January to the 28th of December, 1845, compared with the same periods of 1844. The third and fourth columns give the total quantity or value* exported to the various markets of the world, embracing fifty-four countries or ports. The first and second columns exhibit the exports to the United States, thus showing the proportion of British manufactures exported to this country.

	EXPORTS TO U. STATES.		TOT. EX. TO ALL COUNTRIES.	
	1844.	1845.	1844.	1845.
Cotton twist and yarn,.....lbs.	49,483	86,685	136,195,076	132,453,425
Thread and sewing,.....	597,133	455,784	3,242,170	3,412,718
Plain calicoes,.....yards	9,784,857	13,328,716	618,418,520	656,011,909
Printed dyed calicoes,.....	12,565,826	15,565,413	349,497,419	360,220,460
Cambrics, muslins, lawns, and lenos, .	607,312	1,034,216	3,734,131	5,643,365
Other plain cotton goods,.....	328,771	400,809	3,786,050	3,846,608
Lace, gauze, etc.,.....	6,447,252	7,017,520	87,344,498	96,403,712
Counterpanes and quiltings,.....No.	25,882	25,953	95,947	161,245
Cotton hosiery, caps and gloves,....doz.	101,046	82,623	377,553	519,046
Cotton shawls and handkerchiefs, pl'n and printed,.....doz.	106,675	101,411	650,516	738,657
Tapes, bobbins, etc.,.....	1,834	398	19,355	14,981
Cotton and linen cloths, mixed,....yds.	289,373	187,899	1,300,983	1,438,032
Cotton goods unenumerated,.....£	30,665	52,224	143,612	190,747
Linens, British and Irish,.....yards	21,711,973	22,255,129	60,561,569	66,549,916
Woollen and worsted yarns,.....lbs.	115,894	421,102	7,544,441	8,431,172
Woollens and cottons, mixed,.....£	591,679	529,583	1,200,431	1,246,431
Kerseymeres,.....£	19,608	14,058	267,571	77,654
Long and short cloths,.....£	13,266	6,902	337,516	325,958
Stuffs, woollen and worsted,.....£	1,195,187	755,656	4,793,354	4,317,964
Heavy woollens,.....£	42,256	31,796	229,342	377,758
Shawls, (woollen),.....£	32,880	40,351	112,586	146,518
Flannels and blanketing,.....£	197,022	107,815	359,123	309,282
Hosiery, woollen and worsted,.....£	68,636	56,341	162,607	161,775
Woollens, unenumerated,.....£	34,051	38,647	158,916	301,658
Total of woollens,.....£	2,194,676	1,581,299	7,621,259	7,264,998
Silks, and silk and cotton, and silk and worsted, mixed,.....lbs.	51,929	£135,889	104,970	14,981

KEY WEST, AND WRECKING FOR SALVAGE.

Key West, the capital of Monroe County, Florida, is situated on the northwest end of Thompson's Island, and is four miles long and one wide. It is one of the Florida keys, has a fine harbor, admitting vessels requiring 27 feet of water, and capable of being well fortified. The passage here is safer, and is 90 miles nearer the Gulf of Mexico, than round the Tortugas. The town of Key West contains a population of about 1400 souls, who derive their livelihood mainly from the profits of wrecking, fishing, and the manufacture of salt, (about 25,000 bushels of which are manufactured annually, by solar evaporation,) general trade, commerce, and other employments growing out of these. Three hundred and forty-nine vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 25,970, and 2,100 men, entered and cleared at Key West during 1845. It possesses one Episcopalian, and one Methodist church, with Sunday-schools, all of which are well attended. It has several day-schools and boarding-houses.

We learn from the special agent of the New York and New Orleans underwriters at Key West, that the whole amount of the value of vessels and cargo, wrecked and in distress on the Florida Reef, during the year ending the 31st December, 1845, was \$737,000; the whole amount of salvage awarded was \$69,592; and the whole amount of salvages,

* When the value is given, it is denoted by the British sterling £ mark.

wharfages, storages, repairs, labor-fees of officers of the court, and all other expenses, was \$105,706. During the year previous to the last, the whole amount of property wrecked and in distress, was \$725,000, the salvage was \$92,712, and the salvage and all other expenses and charges were \$169,064, including about \$6,000 for duties. During the year 1845, a larger amount of property was saved than during the year previous, although the sum paid for saving is \$23,120 less. There are employed in cruising and saving this property, about fifteen regular licensed vessels, with crews averaging about ten men each, besides several fishing-smacks and small boats occasionally employed. The salvages are decided by the court established at Key West for that purpose, and each vessel engaged in the business of wrecking is licensed by the judge. The utmost good faith and good conduct on the part of the wreckers is required of them by the court; and embezzlement of cargo, or other misconduct, being always followed by a forfeiture of salvage, has lately been of rare occurrence.

SALVAGES DECREED AND AWARDED SINCE 1831.

1831,.....	\$39,487	1836,.....	\$174,132	1841,.....	\$71,173
1832,.....	46,555	1837,.....	107,495	1842,.....	38,103
1833,.....	38,128	1838,.....	34,578	1843,.....	83,811
1834,.....	32,040	1839,.....	90,797	1844,.....	92,712
1835,.....	87,240	1840,.....	85,113	1845,.....	69,592

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

CIRCULAR OF INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS OF CUSTOMS.

GOODS IMPORTED IN LARGE BALES, AND ENTERED FOR EXPORTATION.

R. J. WALKER, Secretary of the Treasury, under date Washington, February 25, 1846, has addressed the following circular of instructions to the collectors of the principal ports of the United States:

"In consequence of representations made to the department, of the inconvenience and expense to which exporters are subjected in the transportation of certain descriptions of merchandise, under the provisions of the drawback act of the 3d of March, 1845, to Chihuahua and Santa Fe, by a strict compliance with the regulations prescribed in the instructions of the 10th of April last, requiring each package to be enclosed in a secure wooden box or covering, etc., it is deemed expedient to modify said regulations, to the extent, and in the manner following:

"In lieu of requiring bulky goods imported in large bales or packages, which may be entered for exportation to the places above mentioned, to be secured in the manner hereafter prescribed, all such bales or packages of goods having the original importer's marks and numbers legibly inscribed thereon, are to be secured by a strong cord passed around the middle of the bale or package, and over each end of the same. The two ends of the cord are to be brought together and passed through a planchet or block of lead, the size of half a dollar, and of the thickness of half an inch, the block having a hole through the sides large enough to allow the ends of the cord to pass through the same. Two steel dies are to be prepared, with the name of the custom-house on the upper die, and the name of the port on the under. The block is then to be placed between the two dies, and the impression on the lead is to be made by a stroke of a hammer of sufficient force to flatten the block, so as to close the hole, and firmly secure the cord inserted therein, and at the same time leave a distinct impression of the dies on both sides of the lead.

"It is to be understood that this regulation is not to apply to the light and costly goods, such as laces, crapes, silks, and other articles usually imported in small cases, boxes, or packages; all goods of this description must be secured in the manner indicated in the instructions of the 10th of April last.

"In addition to the foregoing regulations, it is expedient to require each bale or package to be duly weighed, and the weight stated in the invoice required by law to accompany such goods, a form of which is given in the former instructions marked B. This precaution, it is believed, will enable the inspectors stationed at Independence, Van Buren and Fulton, by re-weighing the bales or packages, to ascertain whether the goods have been altered or changed on the route, in the event of their suspicions being excited by the appearance and condition of the packages on their arrival at said places."

RATES OF PILOTAGE FOR THE PORT OF PHILADELPHIA.

Inwards, up to 12 feet, at \$3 00 per foot; above 12 feet, at \$3 33. Outwards, up to 12 feet, at \$2 25; above 12 feet, \$2 67.

RATES ACCORDING TO ACT OF MARCH 29, 1803.

Inwards. Outwards.

5 ft. is	\$13 33	5 feet is	\$10 00
5½	14 67	5½	11 00
6	16 00	6	12 00
6½	17 33	6½	13 00
7	18 67	7	14 00
7½	20 00	7½	15 00
8	21 33	8	16 00
8½	22 67	8½	17 00
9	24 00	9	18 00
9½	25 33	9½	19 00
10	26 67	10	20 00
10½	28 00	10½	21 00
11	29 33	11	22 00
11½	30 67	11½	23 00
12	32 00	12	24 00
12½	33 67	12½	25 30
13	35 33	13	26 60
13½	37 00	13½	28 00
14	38 67	14	29 30
14½	40 33	14½	30 90
15	42 00	15	32 00
15½	43 67	15½	33 63
16	45 33	16	34 00
16½	47 00	16½	36 30
17	48 67	17	37 70
17½	50 33	17½	38 60
18	52 00	18	40 00
18½	53 67	18½	41 33
19	55 33	19	42 67
19½	57 00	19½	44 00
20	58 67	20	45 33

RATES ACCORDING TO ACT OF FEB. 9, 1803.

Inwards. Outwards.

5 feet is	\$15 00	5 ft. is	\$11 25
5½	16 50	5½	12 37
6	18 00	6	13 50
6½	19 50	6½	14 62½
7	21 00	7	15 75
7½	22 50	7½	16 87½
8	24 00	8	18 00
8½	25 50	8½	19 12½
9	27 00	9	20 25
9½	28 50	9½	21 37½
10	30 00	10	22 50
10½	31 50	10½	23 62
11	33 00	11	24 75
11½	34 50	11½	25 87½
12	36 00	12	27 00
12½	41 67	12½	33 33½
13	43 33	13	34 67½
13½	45 00	13½	36 00
14	46 67	14	37 33
14½	48 33	14½	38 67
15	50 00	15	40 00
15½	51 67	15½	41 33½
16	53 33	16	42 67
16½	55 00	16½	44 00
17	56 67	17	45 33
17½	58 33	17½	46 67
18	60 00	18	48 00
18½	61 67	18½	49 33
19	63 33	19	50 67
19½	65 00	19½	52 00
20	66 67	20	53 00

Every vessel arriving from or bound to a foreign port, is required by law to receive a pilot, or to pay half pilotage in the warden's office; where the master of every such vessel is required, under a penalty of \$10, to make a report within thirty-six hours after his arrival, and again before his departure, signing his name to said report in the warden's book. Every vessel of 75 tons and upwards, arriving from or bound to any port within the United States, and the masters of all such vessels, are bound as above. The pilot of every vessel is required to inform the master thereof, of his having to report at the warden's office. All vessels obliged to receive a pilot, are required to pay \$10 in addition, as winter pilotage, from the 20th of November to the 10th of March, both days inclusive. Foreign vessels, i. e., Spanish, Portuguese, Neapolitan, Russian, South American, except the Columbian and Haytien, to pay \$2 67, in addition to other pilotage. Every pilot detained 24 hours by any master, owner, or consignee, is entitled to \$2 for every day he is so detained. Every pilot detained more than 48 hours by the ice, after he has conducted his vessel to a place of safety, is entitled to \$2 per day for every day he is so detained. Every pilot compelled to perform quarantine is entitled to \$2 per day for every day he is so detained, and cannot be discharged in less than six days without his consent. Every pilot obliged by the ice or stress of weather to proceed to another port, is, when there, entitled to his pilotage; and, if there discharged, to eight cents a milé for every mile he has to travel home. Every pilot is required, under penalty of \$12, to make a report, within forty-eight hours, at the warden's office, of every vessel he conducts to the city. No pilot is allowed to charge for any supernumerary inches under six. Every pilot charging more for his services than is allowed by law, shall, on due proof thereof, be deprived of his license for one year. By an act of the 9th of February, 1837, every vessel towed by a steamboat from the city of Philadelphia to the buoy of the Brown or the Breakwater, or from the buoy of the Brown or the Breakwater to the city of Philadelphia, shall pay pilotage only according to the act of the 20th of March, 1803.

CUBA REGULATIONS OF TRADE AND TONNAGE.

The following official notice is issued from the Department of State, at Washington, under date February 19th, 1846:

"Information has been received from the United States Consul at Matanzas that, by certain regulations issued by the government of the island, having relation to our trade, it is provided that, on and after the 1st day of March, the manifest must contain the name of the master or supercargo, that of the vessel, her tonnage according to Spanish measurement; the name of the place whence she sailed, the number of packages, boxes, etc., composing the cargo, together with the marks and numbers thereof, and the name of the consignees."

"By a table accompanying these regulations, it is stated that 100 tons, United States measurement, is equal to 123 Spanish."

"By another article, if the actual measurement here should exceed the reported 10 per cent, the expense of such measurement must be paid by the vessel."

TARIFF OF CHARGES ON COTTON AT MOBILE.

The proprietors of the several presses and warehouses at Mobile, have adopted the following uniform tariff of charges on cotton:

Factor's storage on cotton, for the season,.....	20	cents	per	bale.
Compressing cotton,.....	50	"	"	"
Extra ropes on compressed cotton, each,.....	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	"
Labor on ship marked cotton,.....	5	"	"	"
Drayage, compressed do.....	5	"	"	"
Wharfage, do. do.....	5	"	"	"
Storage on cotton going coastwise, per week,.....	5	"	"	"
Turning out and re-storing cotton,.....	5	"	"	"
Arranging,.....	3	"	"	"

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE TRINITY CORPORATION RULES OF THE SEA,

RECOMMENDED BY THE NEW YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE TO BE USED BY AMERICAN VESSELS.

The rules of Trinity Corporation, as observed by masters of British ships, have been recommended by the Chamber of Commerce of this city, to be used by American vessels, when in danger of collision.

The following is the substance of a report made to the Chamber of Commerce:

The Committee report "that they have carefully examined, highly approve of them, and advise that they be extensively published and recommended to the observance of all navigators."

The following are the established rules of the Corporation:

Rule I.—That those ships having the wind fair, shall "give way" to those on a wind.

Rule II.—That when both are going by the wind, the vessel on the starboard tack shall keep her wind, and the one on the larboard tack bear up, thereby passing each other on the larboard hand.

Rule III.—That when both vessels have the wind free, large, or a-beam, and meet, they shall pass each other in the same way, on the larboard hand, by putting the helm to port.

Steam vessels are considered in the light of sailing vessels navigating with a fair wind, and should give way to sailing vessels on a wind on either tack.

Rules for steam vessels.—When steamers meet on different tacks or courses, and there is danger, if their course is continued, of collision, each vessel shall put her helm to port. Additional proposed rule.—A vessel coming up with another, should pass her to leeward.

Published by order of the Chamber of Commerce.

PROSPER M. WETMORE, Secretary.

NEW LIGHT-HOUSE AT ST. JOHNS, PORTO RICO.

By a letter under date January 8th, 1846, from Henry G. Hubbard, Consul of the United States at St. Johns, P. R., the Department of State at Washington has been informed that "the captain-general of the island has recently erected a light-house at the mouth of this harbor. It is situated on the Moro, (castle,) at the east side of the entrance to the port, at an elevation of 187½ feet (Burgos measure) above the surface of the sea. It has a revolving light, showing 8 seconds of brightness to 114 of darkness, and its color is natural."

DISCOVERY OF A NEW SHOAL.

The following is a description of a shoal fallen in with by the ship *Ianthe*, of Salem, on the passage from New Zealand to Manilla, and not laid down in any chart at the present time. This shoal is directly in the way of whale ships, and other vessels bound to the islands in the Pacific:

"On the 9th of January, 1845, discovered a dangerous shoal near us—in all light sails, and hauled close on the wind to the S. and W., passing over the eastern edge, and within one or two ship's lengths of the shallowest part, which appeared to be of sharp rocks, not more than eight or ten feet under water—the water very much discolored, of a milky whiteness. The coral branches could be very distinctly seen under the bottom, soundings not exceeding, probably, six to eight fathoms. The shoal appeared to extend from S. by E. to N. by W. about a half a mile. By means of two chronometers that varied but little from the time of leaving Auckland, a period of 45 days, we placed the shoal in lon. 145 deg. 39 min. East, and by a good meridian observation, in lat. 5 deg. 53 min. North; the nearest land being at the time the Caroline Islands, about 85 miles distant."

LIGHTS ON THE ISLAND OF MOEN.

The following translation of a notice to mariners has been received at the Department of State at Washington, from the legation of the United States at Copenhagen:

"A fixed light, with lens apparatus, of the fourth order or class, will be placed in a light-house 35 feet above the ground, and 80 feet above the level of the sea, on the south-eastern point of the Island of Moen, in lat. 54. 57. N., and lon. 12. 32½."

"This new light, which will be illuminated for the first time on the 20th of this present month, (November,) 1845, and afterwards kept burning during the same hours as the other lights of the kingdom, will be visible from an ordinary ship's deck at the distance of three miles, (Danish,) and give light in the sea from the direction of the entrance of Gronsund, round south and east, until it is covered by Moen's Klint in the direction of about north-east half east."

PORT OF CARNARVON.

Notice is hereby given, that on and after the first of January, 1846, a fixed red light will be exhibited, from dark to daylight, on Landdwyyn Point, in Carnarvon Bay. It will be seen in clear weather about five miles to seaward, between the bearings (from Landdwyyn by compass) of N. W. by N. and S. W. by W. This light is intended solely as a leading light for the entrance of Menai Straits, by way of Carnarvon bar, and not for channel purposes. Vessels bound to the straits are recommended not to attempt the bar until daylight.

RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

The following table, showing the length, cost, receipts from passengers and freight, and total receipts, expenses, net income, number of miles run by passengers, number of miles run by merchandise and other trains, total receipts and expenses per mile, &c., &c., of the Railroads in Massachusetts, in 1845, is compiled from the annual Reports to the Legislature of that state.

Name.	L'th.	Cost.	Passenger receipts in 1845.	Mdze. and oth. rec'pts in 1845.	Total receipts in 1845.	Expenses.	Nett inc.	Number of miles run by passenger trains, in 1845.	Numb. of miles run by mdze. and other trains, in 1845.	Tot. No. of miles run in 1845.	Tot. rec. per m. run in 1845.	Expenses per m. run in 1845.	Net income p. m. run in 1845.
	<i>M's.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>				\$	\$	\$
Worcester,	44	2,900,000	241,219	246,237	487,456	249,729	237,727	164,958	88,748	253,706	1 92	0 99	0 93
Western,.....	156	7,999,556	366,753	446,727	813,480	370,621	442,859	202,478	327,723	530,201	1 53	0 69	0 84
Nor. & Wor.,*	68	2,170,492	116,202	88,106	204,308	85,765	118,543	134,964	38,266	173,230	1 18	0 49	0 69
Conn. River,†	38	511,473	10,102	3,419	13,521	5,520	8,001	11,962	3,306	15,268	0 89	0 36	0 53
Berkshire,‡	21	250,000						13,240	16,119	29,359			
Providence,§	42	1,964,677	232,677	117,952	350,629	152,802	197,827	117,004	58,199	175,203	2 00	0 87	1 13
Stoughton,§	7	88,418	3,753	4,058	7,811	2,906	4,905	2,380	1,852	4,232	1 84	0 68	1 16
Taunton,	11	250,000	37,896	18,947	56,843	41,196	15,647	19,184	8,804	27,988	2 03	1 47	0 56
New Bedford,¶	21	453,623	52,659	25,552	78,211	29,384	48,827	34,880	13,160	48,040	1 63	0 61	1 02
Fall River,...	17	317,805	13,279	2,518	15,797	8,206	7,591	12,340	5,460	17,800	0 89	0 46	0 43
Old Colony,	38	833,536	3,828		3,828			2,550		2,550			
Eastern,.....	55	2,471,561	297,440	52,709	350,149	116,840	233,309	169,427	49,156	218,583	1 60	0 53	1 07
Boston & Me.,...	70	1,887,329	143,645	99,981	243,626	110,663	132,963	190,719	77,393	268,112	0 90	0 41	0 49
Lowell,.....	26	1,932,598	176,952	179,116	356,068	179,042	177,026	112,793	62,744	175,537	2 03	1 02	1 01
Nashua,.....	14	500,000	53,007	59,674	112,681	48,010	64,671	28,560	14,505	43,065	2 61	1 11	1 50
Charlest'n B'ch,	6	327,389	3,734	23,080	26,814	16,277	10,537	2,768	12,032	14,800	1 81	1 10	1 71
Fitchburg, ¶	49	1,477,477	100,817	103,179	203,996	78,334	125,662	110,229	57,587	167,816	1 22	0 47	0 75
Total,....	683	26,335,934	1,853,963	1,471,255	3,325,218	1,495,295	1,826,095	1,330,436	835,054	2,165,490	1 56	0 70	0 86

* For eleven months, ending November 29th, 1845.

† Open to Northampton December 13th, 1845.

‡ Let to the Housatonic Railroad Company.

§ Opened April 7th, 1845.

|| Opened November 10th, 1845.

¶ Opened to Shirley Dec. 30th, 1844—throughout, March 5th, 1845.

The three last columns of the above table show the average receipts, expenses, and nett income per mile run, during the year 1845.

MASSACHUSETTS RAILWAYS.

MR. HUNT—The official returns to the Legislature of Massachusetts show an increase in the receipts of this year, compared with the last; while there is a decided decrease in the general expenses, and the average expenses per mile run. This last item varies from 36 cents, on the Connecticut River Railroad, to 147 cents per mile run on the Taunton Branch, a short railway of 11 miles. The average, it will be perceived, is reduced to 70 cents per mile run; being 30 cents under the average rate in the United States up to the year 1838, according to the estimate of the Chevalier de Gerstner, and a like rate at that period in Great Britain.

There are 26 railways in Massachusetts commenced, and in the course of construction, on which upwards of \$28,000,000 have been expended. Of this number, only 17 railways are embraced in the tabular statement, being roads that are finished, or partially finished, producing income, on a cost of..... \$26,355,934

The gross receipts on these roads, from freight,.....	\$1,471,255
“ “ “ “ passengers,.....	1,853,963

Total,.....	\$3,325,218
Total expenses of running and repairs,.....	1,495,295

Nett receipts, near 7 per cent,..... \$1,829,923

The main central line through the state, from Boston to Albany, cost as follows:—

From Boston to Worcester, 44 miles,.....	\$2,900,000
Worcester to Stockbridge and Albany, 156 miles,.....	7,999,956

Total cost of 200 miles,..... \$10,899,956

The gross receipts on this line—Passengers,.....	\$607,972
“ “ “ Freight,.....	692,964

Total,.....	\$1,300,936
Expenses,.....	620,350

Equal to 6½ per cent on cost,..... \$680,586

The present nett receipts for dividends on these two roads, now they are amalgamated, may be set down as above 7 per cent; as \$4,000,000 of the capital on the Western Railroad is borrowed under the guarantee of the state, at 5 per cent; and \$1,000,000 of the city of Albany, at 6 per cent.

This view of the complete success of 682 miles of railways in Massachusetts, and 707 miles of railways in the state of New York, should convince the most timid capitalists that this class of investments, particularly with the dividends payable quarterly, as they should be, are safer and more profitable than banks, and may be considered equal to real estate, “when judiciously located, and constructed between desirable points.” This most eminently be the case between New York city, Albany, and Troy, to Lake Erie, through the southern tier of counties, and is far more important. A substantial freight railway, to connect New York with the Connecticut Valley, and 900 miles of railway now in use, and a like number of miles in the course of construction, that will unite New York, by continuous lines, to Portland, in Maine, on the northeast, and with Montreal on the north. It is difficult to estimate the value of the abundant water-power in the Connecticut Valley, with the travel and traffic, the construction of a railway, by Danbury to Hartford, will bring to New York city, or a railway extended along the Sound to New Haven.

That the citizens of New York should lose no time to aid in the construction of substantial railways to the Valley of the Ohio, through the state, and along the south shore of Lake Erie, is self-evident, now that there is a prospect of reciprocal free trade with

Great Britain, particularly in bread-stuffs, and provisions generally. It is impossible to get out the western wheat and corn crops to pass them in time, by our canals, for the fall and winter market of Great Britain. As a consequence, they must go to the warm climate of New Orleans for shipment, down the uncertain, dangerous, and late navigation of the Ohio and its tributaries, by expensive steamboat navigation, without the reciprocity in exchange, at New Orleans, there would be with New York, if we had railways to bring the wheat of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, in the months of August, September, and October, to be ground at our mills, for the English markets. With railways to the west, and our admirable packets to carry to great advantage the mixed cargoes of corn and cotton, we could send in our supplies before wheat could be procured from the Baltic or the Black Sea, should they attempt to compete with us.

It must be perceived that railways are now indispensable to get bread-stuffs, pork, beef, butter, cheese, &c., from the west, with certainty, and at all seasons, to New York. If they are neglected, the free trade system of Great Britain will throw into the lap of New Orleans a trade New York can command by railways, and only by this system of inter-communication. All lines of railways, even south of New York, across the Alleghany ridge, to Ohio and the West, will, to a certain extent, be beneficial to the city of New York. She must forget "her great natural advantages," and open her eyes to the fact that steamboats on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers will have to contend with the *Locomotor*, and its train of cars, bringing the grains and provisions of the west to a healthy city, destined for England, two to three weeks in advance of the time required to make the voyage from New Orleans to Europe, at an unhealthy season of the year, when the wheat crop of the west is ready for a market.

J. E. B.

RAILROADS OF NEW YORK, IN 1845.

The following table of twenty-one railways, is compiled from the official returns made to the Secretary of State, under oath. It is his third annual report, made in pursuance of a resolution of the Assembly, 2d February, 1843.

NEW YORK RAILROADS.							
Name of Road.	Length.	Cost.	Exp. of running, etc.	No. of pass.	Income from pass.	Income from ft. mails, etc.	Inc. from
Mohawk and Hudson,	17	\$1,460,990	\$37,667	158,541	\$79,644	\$14,781	\$2,675
Utica & Schenectady,	78	2,189,505	147,558	161,655	358,810	41,769	10,492
Syracuse and Utica,	53	1,116,872	140,294	123,534	182,485	12,946	6,956
Auburn and Syracuse,	26	675,239	44,326	87,244	79,500	15,557	4,725
Auburn and Rochester,	78	1,832,045	96,985	119,760	214,143	17,128	7,788
Tonawanda,	43½	783,409	37,006	73,130	89,897	20,311	6,462
Attica and Buffalo,	31	303,608	30,975	71,487	58,976	6,602	4,300
Main Line to Buffalo,	326½	8,361,669	534,511	795,351	1,061,255	129,094	43,398
Buffalo and Niag. Falls,	22	217,472	13,530	40,861	25,804	1,877	912
Saratoga & Schenecdy,	22	300,000	24,480	38,611	30,468	5,290	994
Troy and Schenectady,	20½	641,540	27,561	58,309	28,244	3,070	2,048
Troy and Saratoga,	25	475,801	33,943	40,291	28,458	6,936	9,780
Long Island,†	96	1,753,046	300,264	191,414	147,650	19,675	172,909
New York and Erie,	53	2,084,408	70,218	83,483	44,175	82,170	
New York and Harlem,	27	1,213,456	81,958	1,413,340	167,554	9,883	
Alb. & W. Stockbridge,	39½	1,759,827	—	82,274	—	—	no ret'm
Hudson and Berkshire,	31	575,928	23,000	17,989	8,367	27,572	
Skeneateles and Jordan,	54	27,261	3,802	3,566	852	1,538	820
Cayuga & Susquehanna,	29	18,000	13,725	—	2,079	10,048	
Troy and Greenbush,	6	233,371	5,981	98,711	12,200	3,647	
Buffalo and Black Rock,	3	21,650	650	9,407	1,176	—	
Lewiston,	3½	27,050	3,845	19,318	4,758	271	250
Total,	707½	\$17,710,479	\$836,968		\$1,563,040	\$301,071	\$231,109

† Receipts part steamboat.

* Included in Western Railroad.

It will be perceived that 707½ miles of railroad, being an increase of 68½ miles since the last report, has cost..... \$17,710,479
 Of this sum, is included the cost of the Albany and West Stockbridge Railroad, in New York State, but of which there is no return of income, (†) being a part of the Albany and Boston Railway—taken off, 1,759,827

Total..... \$15,950,652

The gross receipts from passengers..... \$1,563,040
 “ “ freight..... 301,071
 “ “ mails, and L. I. steamboats..... 231,109
 \$2,095,220
 The gross expenses for running the road, and repairs..... 836,968

The nett receipts being equal to 7¼ per cent..... \$1,258,252

The main line, 326½ miles, from Albany to Buffalo, (the Mohawk and Hudson, 17 miles, costing three prices,) has yielded near 8½ per cent on a cost of \$8,361,669.

Total receipts from passengers..... \$1,061,255
 “ “ freight..... 129,094
 “ “ mails, &c..... 43,398
 \$1,233,747
 Total expenses of running and repairs..... 534,511

Total..... \$699,236

It will be noticed that, owing to the restrictive policy, forbidding New York railways to carry freight parallel to the line of the Erie canal, except during the winter months, and then subject to heavy canal tolls, (a boon not worth accepting to provide the requisite costly motive power to conduct it,) freight is in the ratio of one to ten on the main line to Buffalo, and in the whole state as one to five!

How different is the policy in Massachusetts! By reference to the Merchants' Magazine, for 1845, (page 385,) we find that 568 miles of roads, over the rough rocky mountains of New England, cost \$23,071,503.

The receipts from passengers was..... \$1,652,534
 “ “ freight..... 1,177,983
 Total..... \$2,830,517
 The expenses for running and repairs..... 1,244,290

Equal to 6½ per cent..... \$1,586,227

It should be noted that, in the above cost, is included the Fitchburgh Railroad, (49 miles, \$1,150,000,) that had but just commenced; thus producing 7 per cent for the Massachusetts roads for the year 1844. This year, it will probably exceed this ratio of nett increase; and, like the year 1844, show Massachusetts and her railways, for traffic as well as passengers, in the ratio of near twelve to sixteen; while New York, depending on her Erie Canal, did not receive from freight but about one-tenth, compared with nine-tenths received from passengers by her railroads, as she taxes them with full canal tolls! This blot on her statute-book should be erased. The public should be accommodated; yet, in doing it, we would protect the present state indebtedness by imposing moderate tolls on the railways parallel to the Erie Canal, sufficient to secure the payment of principal and interest on the canal debt, say in eighteen years. Then, (after allowing 7 per cent as dividends for risk on this class of investment,) give every encouragement to private enterprise and capital, invested in the present line of railways to Buffalo, to lay down a substantial edge-rail, of at least 70 lbs. to the linear yard, and thus save further state expenditure for canals. We would reduce the canal tolls on the railways built, and to be built, on this great thoroughfare, and claim of them a speed for passengers of full

thirty miles per hour, and eight miles per hour for freight;—then avoid, as unjust, all interference with the present charters parallel to the Erie Canal, so long as they are restricted to pay full canal tolls in the winter months. With the Erie Canal on one side, and the Erie Railway on the other—also, the several railways to the south of New York, through Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, destined to contend for the same trade—there need be no fear but that the public will be well accommodated by competition. We shall find it to be for the interest of the interior, as well as the city of New York, to permit railways to carry freight the entire year, subject to the payment of moderate tolls, until the canal debt is paid. Then we would take off tolls entirely, except so far as to pay for their repairs and attendance.

J. E. B.

SOUTHWESTERN RAILROAD AND BANKING COMPANY.

It appears from the annual report of this Company that it is in a flourishing condition, and that the gross receipts for freight, passage, and the mails, from the first of January, 1845, to the first of January, 1846, amount to \$558,697 71, while the current expenses for the same time are \$389,735 10, leaving a net profit for the past year of \$168,962 61, of which two dividends have been paid to stockholders of \$147,900, leaving a balance for the improvement of the road of \$21,062 61. The number of bales of cotton received the past year, amounts to 197,657 bales, while the quantity of packages of merchandise shipped, sums up \$82,165. The total number of passengers travelling between Charleston, Hamburg and Columbia, is reported as 56,785, for which the Company received \$161,967 09. The route of a new road, diverging from the Columbia branch, to run to Camden, has been surveyed, and the cost of it, estimated at \$700,000, has been already subscribed for, and the work commenced. There is now a continuous line of railroad, from Charleston, penetrating into Georgia 388 miles, and we trust ere long to see it extended to the great Valley of the Mississippi.

STEAMBOATS BUILDING IN ST. LOUIS, IN 1845.

The Surveyor of the Port of St. Louis, Missouri, has furnished the St. Louis Price Current with the following statement of steamboats built at St. Louis; of those built elsewhere on St. Louis account, and of boats purchased and brought into the St. Louis trade, in 1845; which will be found interesting, as showing a steady increase in this important branch of business:—

BOATS BUILT AT ST. LOUIS.					
Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.	Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.
Gov. Briggs,.....	91	\$9,000	Prairie Bird,.....	213	\$17,000
Laclede,.....	239	20,000	Little Dove,.....	77	5,500
Missouri,.....	887	45,000	Ocean Wave,.....	205	17,000
Iowa,.....	249	22,000	Convoy,.....	750	39,000
Dial,.....	140	7,000			
Helen,.....	61	8,000	Total,..... tons	2,912	\$189,500

BUILT ELSEWHERE, FOR ST. LOUIS OWNERS.

Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.	Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.
Boreas, No. 2, Pittsburgh,	222	\$20,500	Wiota, Elizabethtown,...	219	\$17,000
Nebraska, " "	149	15,500	Odd Fellow, Smithland,.	98	7,500
War Eagle, Cincinnati,...	156	14,000	Pride of the West, Cinn.,	371	20,000
Time, Louisville,.....	109	6,500			
Windsor, " ".....	196	16,000	Total,..... tons	1,520	\$117,000

PURCHASED FOR THE ST. LOUIS TRADE.

Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.	Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.
Falcon, of Beaver,.....	144	\$6,000	Amulet, of Wheeling,....	56	\$2,500
Fortune, of Louisville,...	101	6,000	Tioga, of Wheeling,....	171	4,000
Balloon, of New Albany,	154	6,000	Tributary, of Pittsburgh,.	149	8,000
Radnor, of Jeffersonville,	163	6,000	Lehigh, of Pittsburgh,....	188	4,500
Cecilia, of Pittsburgh,....	112	3,000	Cumb'd Valley, Smithl'd,	168	2,000
North Bend, of Pittsb'gh,	120	4,000			
Archer, of Pittsburgh,....	148	9,000	Total,..... tons	1,674	\$61,000
Total addition to St. Louis tonnage,..... tons					6,106
Total cost,.....					\$367,500

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY COMPANY OF PHILADELPHIA.

THE annual meeting of this valuable institution took place on the 13th January, 1846, and we are gratified to learn from the twenty-third annual report, which has just been published, that it continues to deserve and receive the support of the merchants and merchants' clerks of Philadelphia. The meeting was held in the new hall of the Company, dedicated to the cause of knowledge and morals, adapted in its arrangements to the purposes of its erection, creditable to the liberality of its friends, and worthy of the mercantile reputation of Philadelphia. The interior is divided into nineteen apartments, exclusive of the cellar. The entire second story of the main building, and of the east wing, are occupied as the library and reading-rooms of the Company; and the intermediate story of the same wing is used by the Directors. All the other apartments, except the intermediate story in the west wing, are rented and occupied by gentlemen and associations of high respectability. The furnaces and flues provided for the purpose, have proved fully sufficient to supply the whole building with abundant heat, during the coldest weather experienced since its erection.

The building was erected at an expense of more than \$21,000. Large additions have been made to the library during the last year, and it now contains 10,279 volumes. We cannot resist the temptation, in closing the present notice of this Association, of extracting a few paragraphs of general interest, from the sensible, well-written report of the Board of Directors.

"In this country, youth forms a large portion of active life; it throngs the crowded thoroughfares of the city, it freights every ship that traverses the ocean, its energy is seen in the busy walks of commerce, and every department of human enterprise feels its power. Its active and responsible life commences at an earlier age here than elsewhere, it is sooner released from the restraints of parental government, and earlier aspires to the attainment of personal independence.

"The most of you have engaged in a pursuit, which, although it does not invite you to studious retirement, is not incompatible with the indulgence of a literary taste, or attention to science and the arts. Your profession, honorable as it is, calls for the exercise of an enlarged mind and extensive knowledge. Commerce has been at all times a great agent in promoting the civilization of man, and the transactions of foreign trade necessarily tend to the wide diffusion of liberal sentiments. Questions relating to the production and distribution of wealth, views of commercial intercourse between separate countries, and theories of currency, are the studies of modern statesmen; and interests binding distinct mercantile communities, may prove to be the pacific element in the settlement of difficulties between civilized nations.

"The intelligent merchant ought to be among the first to discern what is passing in distant countries or his own, bearing on the interests of his business. He should become acquainted with the springs of human conduct, the motives that influence the decisions of men, and the interests by which their passions are aroused, and their prejudices controlled. Well directed reading and thought will assist to form close and accurate observations of life and character, and he will be best qualified for the business of the world, who has just conceptions of the duties of his position, and the requisite ability for meeting them.

"To no class of men in this republic, is the dissemination of useful knowledge and views of sound morality more important than to merchants. Here, their accumulated wealth has given power, a general prosperity has conferred leisure—a perilous gift to an uncultivated mind, often abused to the indulgence of mean and degraded excitements, while the well informed merchant will find that the pleasures of literature shed a cheering light over the quiet scenes of private life; and with paths to honorable ambition open, incentives to philanthropic labor presented, he will be qualified and disposed to the performance of the public duties which his fellow-citizens may require at his hands.

"The spirit of competition of our age and country has engendered an excited feeling, an energetic action in all conditions of society. Our government rests for support, prin-

cipally, on the general intelligence of the people. With a rapidly augmenting population beyond all precedent, with growing cities approaching the extent and magnificence of European capitals, filled with dense masses of human beings, the importance of diffused intelligence is apparent. Under despotic governments ignorance may be a misfortune, in this country it is a public wrong."

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BALTIMORE.

We have received the sixth annual report of the Board of Directors of the Mercantile Library Association of Baltimore; and it affords us pleasure to mark the steady growth of an institution so well calculated to elevate the intellectual character of the future merchants of the country. The report is just such a paper as we should expect from our friend, Charles Bradenbaugh, the intelligent President—chaste, brief, and to the point. From it we learn that the number of its members has been largely increased, its library considerably augmented; and general indications of a vigorous activity in its officers, denote that the same zeal and spirit which watched over its infancy, will not be wanting in its maturity. The number of volumes in the library at the close of the preceeding year, was 4,393, which has been increased to 5,221. The additions were made chiefly by purchase, the donations amounting to only thirty volumes. The number of periodicals received at the reading-room, is 28—6 quarterlies, 13 monthlies, and 9 weeklies. The number of active members at the last report was 361, which has been increased, after deducting the withdrawals, to 571; an addition of 204 in one year—101 honorary, and 339 active members have used the library during the year, and drawn from it an aggregate of 8,500 volumes. From the treasurer's report, it appears that the revenue of the year, from all sources, was \$1,920; and that \$1,800 have been expended for books, etc., leaving a small balance in the treasury.

ARTICLES CONSUMED IN THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

We cheerfully give place to the following communication from Mr. Samuel Hunt, Clerk of the Boston and Sandwich Glass Company. It requires no comment.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine* :

Sir:—I take the liberty to hand you herewith a statement of the consumption of articles that enter into the manufacture of Flint Glass in the United States, and which shows conclusively the importance of continuing the protection to that branch of business, into which the raw material of our own country enters so largely—and would also remark, that the amount of capital invested in this business is about \$2,000,000, and the glass manufactured annually exceeds \$2,500,000. The number of manufactories engaged in this business is nineteen.

Bituminous coal, Amer.,...bush.	1,201,000	Straw,.....	tons	1,700
" Foreign,.....	50,000	Staves,.....	No.	475,000
Anthracite coal,.....	tons	Hoops,.....		270,000
Wood,.....	cords	Boards,.....	feet	1,400,000
Rosin,.....	bbls.	Clay,.....	tons	956
Silex,.....	tons	Iron,.....		970
Missouri lead,.....	lbs.	Borax,.....	lbs.	20,400
Pearl ashes,.....	2,875,200	Arsenic,.....		22,200
Saltpetre,.....	272,600	Manganese,.....		6,500

To which may be added one or two hundred thousand dollars' worth of brass, Britannia, and tin, trimmings, mountings, &c., to glass articles.

The window glass manufactories, no doubt, consume more fuel, ash, and some other materials, than the foregoing exhibits.

If you consider the above of sufficient importance to give it a place in your valuable Journal, you will much oblige

Yours, respectfully,

SAMUEL HUNT,

Clerk of the Boston and Sandwich Glass Company.

NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

This company was commenced February 1st, 1844, since which 802 policies have been effected on good terms, and with a well-invested capital. From the first report, which has been recently published, we glean the following facts:

The amount of insurance in policies for the whole life, is \$868,541 62, and \$1,073,235 50 in those for periods of years. Only four policies have terminated in losses, viz: one of \$2,000, two of \$1,000 each, and one of \$500, all of which were paid. Persons insured—253 merchants, traders and brokers; 86 mechanics and tradesmen; 82 clerks, cashiers, treasurers and bank officers; 61 students, and 58 lawyers; 46 teachers and literary professors; 45 manufacturers; 41 clergymen; 31 farmers; 28 physicians; 25 editors and booksellers; 18 engineers and machinists; 14 females; 61 master mariners; 9 keepers of hotels; 29 artists, officers, etc., etc. Much the largest proportion of policies, are to make provisions for families of the parties insured, or persons dependent upon them, and the law of Massachusetts protects the same, whether a person dies insolvent or not.

"LOUISIANA: ITS AGRICULTURAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS."

In the Merchants' Magazine for February, 1846, we published an article with the above title, which we received from the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce. The document was drawn up by the Chamber, as a reply to certain questions propounded by the Secretary of the Treasury, and forwarded to Washington; but does not appear in the voluminous report of the Secretary. We have since received the following letter from a highly respectable gentleman of Portland, Me., and we cheerfully comply with his request to give it a place in the pages of this Magazine. We candidly express our ignorance, as to the matter in dispute, and we shall be glad to hear from the respectable gentlemen of the Chamber of Commerce at New Orleans:—

TO THE EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR OF THE "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW."

Freeman Hunt, Esq.—Sir—Having been a subscriber to your Magazine since the commencement, I have always perused it with pleasure, and prize it highly for the valuable information with which it abounds, and have been accustomed to place confidence in it for its statements, particularly in its statistical information, and have ever valued it as a very useful reference-book, especially for the mercantile portion of the community; and I therefore take the liberty of calling your attention to an article in the February number of the present year, entitled "Louisiana: its Agricultural and Commercial Interests;" which article contains many valuable and interesting statistics; but unless those with which I am not conversant are not more correct than the statements contained in the last paragraph, commencing on the 150th page, I shall have good reason to doubt the correctness of any one of them; it is there stated that of "about 17,000,000 gallons of molasses imported into the United States in 1843-4 from Cuba, only 500,000 gallons is known in Cuba by the name of molasses," and this quantity, 500,000 gallons, "is the drainings of Muscovado sugar," and that the residue, 16,500,000 gallons, is there called "syrup," and not known in Cuba by the name of molasses; and that this "syrup," as the gentlemen committee say who give this *astonishing* information to the Secretary of the Treasury, is produced from the sugars which are clayed in Cuba, and imported into the United States under a molasses duty, for the purpose of having extracted by "the establishments of the north" 125,000,000 pounds of sugar! thus "greatly injuring the interests of the Louisiana sugar-planters! and causing a loss to the United States revenue of *three millions of dollars!*" Now I ask in all candor, can it be possible that the gentlemen who make this statement believe it to be true? and from the known reputation of one of them in this quarter, it cannot be thought that they would *knowingly* make any false statement, and yet, it is too much to believe that they were thus ignorant; yet you may rest assured, sir, that it is a gross misrepresentation, and that the article which these gentlemen denominate "syrup," and "arising," as they say, in the operation of clayed sugar, is the most inferior quality of molasses, and principally used in the United States for the distillation of spirit; and a portion of that which is sweet, (as the greater part is frequently sour,) by families in New England in lieu of sugar, as it is very much cheaper; and the quality

which they say is known only as *molasses* in Cuba, and made from the drainings of Muscovado sugar, is much superior in quality to the other, or clayed molasses, as it is termed, and always costs more in Cuba, and sells for a much higher price in this country. I am constrained to believe, sir, that you did not notice the misrepresentation alluded to, or you would have given this portion of the article an explanatory note; and I hope you will not object to publishing this in your next number, so that the "Committee of the Chamber of Commerce at New Orleans" may inform themselves on this subject, and correct their very great and palpable error which they have either knowingly or ignorantly made.

s. w.

Portland, March 5, 1846.

BRITISH TRADE WITH CHINA.

Returns of trade at the ports of Amoy and Shanghai, for the year 1844, received from Francis C. Macgregor, the British Consul at Canton, have been laid before Parliament. We have received a copy of these returns, and now proceed to present to the readers of this Magazine a summary statement. The returns exhibit a great increase, particularly in cotton goods, notwithstanding the resort of British shipping to the new ports of China. The total number of vessels from all countries which arrived at Canton for the year ending December 31, 1844, was 360, of 142,099 tons, and 296 vessels of 140,182 tons, cleared.

All monopolies, with the exception of a few reserved by the Chinese Government, have ceased; the foreign shipping is no longer exposed to the caprice and extortion of rapacious mandarins, and the duties both of imports and exports are, in most instances, fixed on so moderate a scale as hardly to afford a sufficient temptation to the regular merchants to evade them. Thus relieved from all those trammels by which it was formerly fettered, the trade of Canton has increased beyond the most sanguine expectations, and notwithstanding the opening of the northern ports, which have attracted no considerable portion of the China trade, the importation of British woollens, and especially of cottons, into Canton, in 1844, has far exceeded the maximum of former periods. The import trade with Canton, in 1844, was carried on in 206 British vessels, of 104,322 tons, and 96 Hong-Kong lorchas, of 5,784 tons, and the various articles supplied form a total amount of 15,929,132 dollars, inclusive of treasure. British manufactures and staple articles were imported to the amount of \$7,860,676, among which were woollen goods amounting to \$2,898,866, and cotton fabrics, including yarns, to the extent of \$4,722,836, while the importation of raw cotton and other products of India and the eastern countries forms an item of \$7,645,564, exclusive of opium, of which latter article, the enormous quantity of 40,000 chests was supplied by the contraband trade, representing a capital of nearly \$20,000,000.

British woollens imported into Canton amounted in 1844 to 4,745,448 yards, and cottons to 1,158,475 pieces. As to the export trade, it appears that commodities were exported from Canton in 164 British vessels of 83,679 tons, to the amount of \$17,925,360, among which tea, raw silk, and cassia, as usual, formed the most important objects, constituting nine-tenths of the value of all the articles exported, of which \$16,398,950 consisted in raw produce, and \$1,526,410 in various articles of Chinese manufacture. It has been ascertained from memoranda which Mr. Macgregor made, that the value in round numbers of the return cargoes shipped off from thence in British vessels to the several countries and places, was distributed in the following proportion, viz. :—

1st,	To ports of the United Kingdom,.....	\$15,400,000
2d,	“ British India,.....	2,100,000
3d,	“ Singapore, Manilla, Australia, Nova Scotia, and South America,.....	400,000
Total,.....		\$17,900,000

Of the 228 vessels of 111,350 tons, under British colors, which arrived in the course of the year, 162 ships of 70,768 tons were actually British, the rest of 66 ships of 30,582 tons being ships belonging to British India and the British Colonies, termed "country ships." The number of ships which entered in ballast was 16, of 5,300 tons, arriving from Hong-Kong, Manilla, and the Straits of Malacca, and Australia, in search of a freight of tea, while the number of those which departed in ballast, amounted to 61, of 27,723 tons, destined for Hong-Kong, Singapore, Manilla, and India. The number of British vessels still in the river at Whampoa, on the 31st of December, 1844, was 26, of 13,638 tons, but a great part of them were dispatched in the course of January.

Mr. Macgregor, the Consul at Canton, in his letter to John F. Davis, her majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary, says:—

"The market, notwithstanding importations unusually large, has not shown any appearance of being glutted; and although the eagerness to do business evinced by the native merchants, recently established, involved them in slight embarrassments towards the end of the season, yet it seems that all pecuniary engagements were ultimately fulfilled, and that no bankruptcies of any note are on record. Whatever turn the China trade may take hereafter, it is pretty certain that Canton will always retain a very important share in it as an emporium for the supply of the southern division of this vast empire, while the wealth and industrious habits of the people must exercise a great influence in the interior. Although this commerce must be considered as still in its infancy, yet there is every prospect that, in proportion with the demand for European articles which the industry of our manufacturers and the activity of our merchants has created among the Chinese population, it will become firmly established and gradually increase, without requiring, for the present at least, any further interference on the part of the legislature."

MINING OPERATIONS OF THE FRENCH.

The French minister of public works, has just published the report of the works of the engineers of mines, etc., during the year 1844, and which acquires fresh importance every year as the working of mines become more developed. The report, after giving a detailed list of the departments in which the mines of different metals and minerals are found, proceeds thus:—

"The number of mines now worked amounts to 446, viz: 261 of coal; 143 of iron; 14 of lead, copper, silver, antimony, and manganese; 16 of bituminous minerals, and 12 of rock salt. These works give employment to upwards of 33,880 men. The dues for the year, calculated on the nett produce, amount to 369,903 francs, being 11,553 francs more than in 1843. Several quarries of white statuary marble have been opened in the departments of Ariège, the Aube, Isère, and the Hautes Pyreneese. The quarry of St. Beat, in the Hautes Pyreneese, has in particular furnished an enormous stock of white marble, of the first quality, for an equestrian statue. Quarries of black and green marble have been reopened in the Hautes Alps, the Ariège, the Aube, and the Isère, to supply materials for the crypt of Napoleon, in the Church of the Invalids. Other quarries of brown and green marble have been reopened in the Basses Pyrenees, which were worked with great success in the time of Louis the XIV., and have furnished, amongst other products of great beauty, twelve columns, of four metres in height, by fifty-five centimetres in diameter, which were ordered by the King of Prussia for the museum of Berlin, and have, in the short space of two months, been extracted, turned, polished and completed, at the extensive works of Bagnères Bigorre. Iron works have of late acquired great extension, and several important improvements have been introduced into the different processes. The information obtained by the superintending engineers, as to the manufacture of steam-engines, is divided under two heads; first, steam-engines and boilers used on land; and second, those used on board steam-vessels. The locomotives on railways are included in the first category. In the first class, we find 6,350 steam-boilers (5,613 of which are made in France) in use in 1843; out of this number, 1,698 afford steam for different purposes, and 4,652 supplied 3,369 steam-engines, 633 of which were of high, and 2,736 of low pressure, representing together a force of 127,542 horse power, and replacing the labor of 892,790 men. In the second class, we find that in 1843 the number of steamboats was 242, being thirteen more than in the previous year, and representing a force of 38,244 horse power. The weight transported by these steamboats, including that of passengers, is 1,487,787 tons."

THE EFFECTS OF WAR ON AMERICAN COMMERCE.

The statements below, in relation to the revenue and tonnage of the United States during the last war with Great Britain, derived from the appendix to Albert Gallatin's letters on the Oregon question, forcibly illustrates the commercial disadvantages of settling national questions by an appeal to arms—a method equally opposed to Christianity and Common Sense.

"The actual receipts into the treasury, derived from customs, were in round numbers for the years 1812, 1813, 1814, respectively 8,960,000, 13,225,000, and 6,000,000 of dollars; and the nett revenue which accrued during those three years respectively amounted in 1812 to 13,142,000, in 1813 to 6,708,000, and in 1814 to 4,250,000 dollars. From the 1st of July, 1812, the rate of duties on importations was doubled; and in order to compare these receipts with those collected in peace time, they must be reduced for those three years respectively, to 7,470,000,* 6,600,000, and 3,000,000; or, if the revenue accrued be compared (which is the correct mode) to 9,850,000,* 3,354,000, and 2,125,000 dollars. At that time the duties accrued were, on account of the credit allowed, collected on an average only six or eight months later; and the unexpected importations in the latter half of the year 1812 in American vessels which arrived with British licenses, subsequent to the declaration of war, and to the act which doubled the rates of duties, swelled considerably the receipts of the year 1813. It was only in 1814 that the full effect of the war on the revenue derived from that source was felt.

"The diminution in the amount of American and foreign tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States, is strongly exhibited by the following statement:

Tonnage in foreign trade, U. S.	American vessels.	Foreign vessels.	Total.
Year 1811,.....	948,207	33,203	981,410
" 1812,.....	667,999	47,099	715,098
" 1813,.....	237,348	113,827	351,175
" 1814,.....	59,626	48,302	107,928

"And it must be recollected that during the last nine months of 1814, Great Britain was at peace with all the other powers of Europe, and that these were therefore neutrals. Yet they hardly ventured to trade with us.

"The amount of receipts into the treasury derived from customs, as well as that of the revenue accrued, exceeded, during the eleven years 1801 to 1811, 132,700,000 dollars, being an annual average of about 12,000,000 dollars. During the same eleven years, the average amount of tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States was 943,670 tons, of which 844,170 were in American, and 99,500 foreign vessels.

"Thus in the year 1814, the revenue derived from customs had been reduced to one-fourth part, (to nearly one-sixth part, if compared according to the revenue accrued, or the amount of importations,) the tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States to nearly one-ninth; and that of the American vessels employed in that trade, to one-fourteenth part of their respective average amount during the eleven years of peace."

COPPER MINES OF NEW JERSEY.

The New Jersey copper mines, of which there are a number in the state, seem to be attracting attention, since the Lake Superior copper region has been brought into notice. We learn by the Hunterdon Gazette, that the Flemington copper mines, owned by Hugh Capner, Esq., are about to be reopened under the auspices of a gentleman who is interested in the Lake Superior mines. He has had the ore from Mr. Capner's mines thoroughly tested, and it is pronounced to be of a very superior quality. The Gazette adds, that the suspension of the working of them when before open, arose from pecuniary embarrassments, produced by the pressure and panic, which at that time extended throughout the Union.

Large deposits of copper ore have been heretofore found near Somerville, New Brunswick, Woodbridge, Belleville, and other places in the state of New Jersey. The old Schuyler Mine, near Belleville, on the left bank of the Passaic, and within five miles of the city of Newark, was discovered as early as 1719; and as the policy of Great Britain at that time prohibited every species of manufactures in the colonies, the ore was exported

* Estimated rate for 1812.

in a crude state to England. From the books of the discoverer, (Arent Schuyler,) it appears that before the year 1731, he had shipped 1,386 tons to the British copper works. Some thirty years afterwards, as runs the history, the mine was leased to a company, and Josiah Hornblower, Esq., the eminent English engineer, (and the father of the present chief justice,) came over with a steam-engine, of the imperfect construction then in use, to prosecute the enterprise. This is believed to have been the first steam-engine put in operation in this country. The mine was worked profitably for some four years, when a dismissed workman destroyed it by fire. Another company in England, acquainted with the superior quality of the ore, obtained permission from the crown to construct works for smelting and refining copper, and offered Mr. Schuyler £100,000 for his estate, including the mine. This he refused, but proposed to join them in rebuilding the works. But the revolution defeated the project. Several similar efforts have been made to work the mine since, but failed through adverse circumstances. The ore is said to be very rich, having yielded from 60 to 70 per cent of copper. The vein it is said will produce over 100 tons of ore annually.

SMUGGLING OF GOODS IN SPAIN.

Although the Spaniards have a dislike, as we are told, to foreigners and foreign productions, yet the latter necessarily find their way into Spain, because she has no productions of her own, and must have them. But they hate custom-houses and custom-house officers as much as they do foreigners; and they also prefer a smuggled article, even if it is a foreign production; hence it is that there is no scene in Spanish life without a smuggler, at least so say the English. The peasant smuggles through necessity, the rich man through avarice, or the pleasure of cheating the revenue. Even the queen, we are told, robs her own exchequer, by wearing contraband finery. The whole southern coast, says a writer in the *Foreign Quarterly*, from Barcelona to Cadiz, is perpetually transformed, at night, into a strand for the loading of contraband goods. It is estimated that there are not less than 400,000 smugglers hovering perpetually about the mountains near the sea-coast, who descend at night to hold communion with proscribed foreign smugglers, and receive from them the materials for rendering millions of the Spanish population comfortable, free of duty. The annual amount of cotton goods smuggled into Spain, if we may believe Marlioni, a Spanish senator, is more than \$13,000,000.

INCREASE OF NATIONAL WEALTH IN GREAT BRITAIN.

In an article on the annual accumulation of capital in the *London Economist's Railway Monitor* of the 4th of October, 1845, we meet with the following extraordinary instances of extension: In 1820, the whole of the shipping belonging to the United Kingdom was 2,648,593 tons; at the commencement of last year it had increased to 3,587,387 tons, notwithstanding all the ships that during that 24 years have been worn out, or lost at sea. In 1820, Great Britain had cotton factories capable of working up 151,000,000 lbs. of cotton wool, and now they are so extended, that last year she worked up more than 700,000,000 lbs. In 1820, she had woollen factories capable of working up 7,691,000 lbs. of foreign sheep's wool, which are now increased to 59,493,000 lbs. of foreign wool, independent of the increase which has in the meantime taken place in the home growth. The silk, linen, and other manufacturing pursuits have extended in a similar way; and this has all been done by the annual investment of the savings of the country, either in absolute extension of mills, or in improvements in the productive power of machinery. The declared value of British exports in 1820, was £35,568,000, and the official value of her imports £31,484,000; but last year her exports had risen to £58,584,000, and her imports to £75,441,555.

THE FRENCH COMMERCIAL MARINE.

The following statement of the "French merchant marine," as compared with England and the United States, is from the "Paris Siecle."

"Previous to the wars of the revolution, the effective of the commercial service of France was 500,000 tons. According to the customs report, it increased to 604,000 for the year 1844. This augmentation, however, is not proportioned to the development of the industrial activity. It appears yet more moderate when compared with the enormous increase of the marines of our rivals. In 1788, the tonnage of the commercial navy of England was 1,120,000 tons; at present it is 3,000,000. The United States in 1841 had 2,130,000 tons. Thus it will be seen that our effective is but a sixth of that of Great Britain, and a quarter of that of the United States. During the last five years, the loss in our merchant service has been considerable, since its tonnage in 1844 showed a decrease of 69,000 tons when compared with 1839. In the year 1839, France possessed 15,600 vessels; she now has but 13,679. Of this number, 8,900 are under 30 tons; 2,852 from 30 to 99; and among the 1,708 which are described as vessels of from 99 to 300 tons, one-quarter at most are fit to make long voyages. Add to this number 219 large vessels of from 300 to 600 tons, and we shall have about 652 large vessels capable of carrying heavy merchandise and performing long voyages. We do not possess a single ship of 700 tons, whilst England sends to her colonies whole fleets of ships, each of 1,200 tons or more. In 1836, France had 861 ships of from 200 to 800 tons; in 1840, 726; in 1841, 658; in 1843, 655; and at the close of 1844, we had but 652 of from 200 to 600 tons. Thus our privateers have drawn from our commerce in the course of eight years, 209 of our large vessels. Those of less tonnage have undergone the same process.

The following table, embracing a period of five years, will show that whilst our merchant service has continued gradually to decrease, that of foreign nations has augmented in a proportionate ratio.

	FRENCH COMMERCE. Tons.	FOREIGN COMMERCE. Tons.
1840,.....	907,000	1,683,000
1841,.....	871,000	1,886,000
1842,.....	811,000	1,901,000
1843,.....	698,000	1,941,000
1844,.....	770,000	2,031,000

"These facts speak for themselves. It is an incontestable fact, that since the accession to power of the present deplorable cabinet, the losses of our commercial navy may be added to the *desaveux* of the war navy. If the Chambers of Commerce of our great ports were charged to reply to the assertion contained in the speech from the throne respecting the increase of public prosperity, we are well assured what that language would be."

LOUISIANA LAW OF ARREST FOR DEBT.

A principle relative to the law of arrest, of some interest to strangers visiting New Orleans, has recently been decided by Judge Buchanan, of the District Court, in the case of *D. Prosky, vs. D. Hansborough*. The defendant, who had been arrested, took a rule on the plaintiff to show cause why he should not be released from custody, and the writ of arrest be quashed, on the ground that the plaintiff, being a non-resident creditor, had no right to arrest the defendant, who was a citizen of another state, viz., Mississippi. It was proved on the trial, that D. Prosky, the plaintiff, had removed from Rodney, in Mississippi, to New Orleans, about two months previous to the institution of the suit, where he had rented a room, and opened business as a broker and commission merchant. The domicile of defendant was admitted to be in Mississippi. Upon these facts the court decided: First—That the plaintiff was not a resident of Louisiana, the acts of 1816 and of 1818 requiring an "uninterrupted residence of twelve months," to give a legal domicile to any stranger coming into Louisiana. Second—That the defendant being a citizen of another state, viz., of Mississippi, could not be held to bail under the act of 1840, by a non-resident creditor. The judgment of the court was accordingly rendered, making the rule absolute, and discharging the defendant from imprisonment.

TRICKS IN THE TOBACCO TRADE.

The New Orleans Commercial Times has recently published several communications from correspondents, exposing dishonest tricks in the tobacco trade of that city. In that valuable commercial journal of the 30th January, we find an article on the subject, which the editor informs us "is from a source of the highest respectability." The writer states it as a well known fact that many lots of tobacco were sold in the New Orleans market, during the last season, which, when compared with the samples, showed a difference in quality of from one to four cents per pound. One small lot of cigar leaf was shipped to Richmond, which cost $7\frac{1}{2}$ c. When opened in that market, it was found to be common factory lugs, not worth more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ c. per pound. Another parcel was sent to Marseilles, which resulted in the same manner. "Such gross, mysterious errors," adds the writer, "could not have originated with the inspectors; unless, indeed, they were imposed upon by the knowing ones of the warehouse. By this epithet, is understood, the person who draws the sample from the hogshead, on which the inspectors pass their judgment. An individual who is blessed with a faculty of drawing from the hogshead under inspection, the best portion of the tobacco, and thereby misrepresenting its quality, is denominated *par excellence*, 'a fine sampler.'"

The closing remarks of the writer in the "Commercial Times," are mostly of the consideration of the appointing power in every state, where inspectors of merchandise are required or authorized by law. He says:—

"With regard to the appointment of inspectors, there is no great diversity of opinion. They should be chosen for their abilities for the office, and not as the political friends of the party that may happen to be in power. Political faith cannot be deemed a good reason why a man should be a competent judge of tobacco. Commerce and politics have little sympathy for each other. We require men who know their business, it matters not to what political party they belong, or whether they belong to any party. The tobacco trade of this city is immense, and yearly increasing in importance. The whole management of the business, at this port, is radically wrong, and requires a thorough reform. That enormous frauds have been practised, none will deny. Let us guard against the abuses for the future. Let the merchants take this matter in hand—vindicate the character of our city from the imputations cast upon it, and establish this important branch of commerce on a basis that will insure justice to all."

 THE HOP TRADE OF NEW ENGLAND.

Returns are received from four of the principal inspectors in the New England States, one in Massachusetts, and three in New Hampshire; these returns foot up 3,240 bales, against 3,108 bales in the last year. From five other inspectors no returns have as yet been received. The whole crop of the New England States last year was 4,350; this year it will vary but little from that amount. The crop of the State of New York last year was 6,000 bales, thus making the whole crop of the United States 10,350 bales. There was exported in 1844 6,000 bales, which left the consumption of this country 4,350 bales—just the growth of the New England States. The principal part of the 6,000 bales exported in 1844, was from New York; the exports from Boston were chiefly to Havre, London, Gottenburg and Hamburg—invoiced generally at 14c. per pound, and the result of the shipments, a loss of about one-half. Now, calling the crop of the New England States this year 4,250 bales—3,800 bales have already passed for consumption, and there now remain, chiefly in second hands, 450 bales only. The crop in New York last year was 6,000 bales, against an estimated crop of 4,000 this year—which shows a deficiency of 2,000 bales. There have been exported this year, to the present time, 380 bales, which leaves on hand 3,620. Deduct therefrom 700 bales, the quantity which is still wanting for home consumption, and there remains 2,920, which, added to the 450 bales now remain-

ing in Boston, and there are left 3,370 bales over the consumption of last year. Prices of hops commenced in 1844, at 9½ a 10½c. per pound, which advanced by speculation to 14c. Duty in England, same year, £143,000. This year prices commenced at 9½ a 10½c., and have been advanced by speculation, in Boston, to 25c., and New York to 30 a 35c. per pound—English duty now estimated at £160,000.

PORT OF LAFAYETTE, LOUISIANA.

Lafayette City, the capital of Jefferson parish, is situated on the north side of the Mississippi river, but two miles west by south of the city of New Orleans. Though the capital of another parish, it is virtually a continuation of New Orleans, which joins it on the north-east. The New Orleans Commercial Bulletin says there is scarcely a visible line of demarcation between the two cities, for the suburbs of each absolutely come in contact, the houses respectively being on the same line, though at intervals more or less great; and before many years shall elapse, the eye will not be able to detect a break in the dwellings, warehouses, and other erections along the river front, from the Triangle Buildings, to the uppermost part of Delassise.

Lafayette, a few years ago, adds the Bulletin, was almost a waste. By the skill, public spirit, indomitable energy and enterprise of her citizens, she has emerged from the swamp, cleared herself from the forest timber, which trammelled her in every part, and organized herself as a worthy compeer of New Orleans, under whose very shadow she has risen, progressed and prospered. In 1833, the first year of her incorporation, the revenue of the city of Lafayette, from all sources, amounted to only \$1,450. Three years ago, the receipts had increased to \$55,000; last year to \$73,000; and the income of 1846 is now estimated, on data sufficiently accurate to lead one to believe in it, as a fixed fact, at \$100,000! Here is an increase of nearly 70 per cent in the revenue of a city whose existence only dates from a period of thirteen years back.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURE IN FRANCE.

The Commerce publishes the following details relative to the manufacture of cotton twist in France :—

“It is not long since our manufacturers have succeeded in spinning cotton thread sufficiently fine for tulle and fine muslins. The greater part of the twist used in those manufactures was smuggled into France from England, and it became necessary to permit them to be imported on the payment of a duty. An ordinance of the year 1834, sanctioned by the bill of the 2nd of July, 1836, admitted spun cotton of No. 143 (170 English) and over, on payment of a uniform duty of 7f. 70c. the kilogramme (2lb. weight) plain thread, and 80f. 80c. twisted thread. It is against this duty that the French spinners remonstrate, alleging the change in manufactures that has arisen since the year 1836. Since that period, several factories for producing fine cotton thread have been established in Lille, and not only do we spin finer thread, but we are enabled to sell it at a reduced price. For example, at the exposition of 1827, No. 180 was sold at 20f. the pound weight. It fell successively to 18f. in 1834, to 16f. in 1839, and at present it is sold at 10f. 50c. to 11f., which represents a reduction of three-fifths within fifteen years. It is on account of this improvement that the spinners demand a modification of the existing tariff, and they further state that the fixed duty does not sufficiently protect the higher numbers. In 1836 the fixed duty was framed with a view of reaching the numbers from 143 to 190, as our spinners at that period could not produce anything superior. But at present we produce the numbers 180 to 200, and there are some establishments which produce the numbers from 200 to 300. Our manufacturers, therefore, desire that a graduated scale of duties be formed proportioned to the fineness of cotton thread, in the same manner as it is applied to flaxen thread. The manufacturers of fine muslin and of tulle are opposed to this arrangement. They assert that the present tariff has produced such favorable results that it would be injurious to the manufacturers to make any change. Such is the state of the question which has been referred to the councils-general for their consideration.”

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Contributions to the Edinburgh Review*. By FRANCIS JEFFREY, now one of the Judges of the Court of Sessions in Scotland. Four volumes complete in one. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The "Edinburgh Review" has, for nearly half a century, sustained very high rank, and has, unquestionably, been conducted with more learning and ability than any similar work. Its contributions have been drawn from the leading minds of England; Scott, Sydney Smith, Brougham, Macaulay, Stephens, Carlyle, and a host of brilliant names too numerous to be mentioned, have, from time to time, added to the value and interest of its pages. Jeffrey, whose contributions to the Review are embraced in this volume, wrote the first article in the first number, which appeared in October, 1802, and sent his last contribution to it in October, 1840. He was sole editor from 1803 till late in 1839, and during that period was a large and regular contributor. During all that time he has sustained the reputation of the first review writer of the age. His contributions include a wide range of topics, embracing general literature, literary biography, history, and historical memoirs, poetry, philosophy of the mind, metaphysics and jurisprudence, novels, tales, and prose works of fiction, general politics, &c. The papers of Jeffrey are not confined to the task of pronouncing on the mere literary merits of the works reviewed, but he goes deeply into principles, and takes large and general views of all the important questions to which the works under review relate. We cannot better express our opinion of these collections of essays, than in the language of the author, in one of his reviews. "This, on the whole, is an excellent book; and we venture to anticipate that it will be an enduring one. Neither do we hazard this prediction lightly, or without a full consciousness of all that it implies. We are perfectly aware that there are few modern works that are likely to verify it; and that it probably could not be extended with safety to so many as one in a hundred, even of those which we praise."

2.—*Journey to Ararat*. By DR. FRIEDRICH PARROT, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Dorpat, Russian Imperial Counsellor of State, Knight of the Order of St. Anne, &c. With Map, and Wood-cuts. Translated by W. D. COOLEY. Harper & Brothers' New Miscellany.

The publishers of this work have been singularly successful in the selection of the eight first volumes of the series. It is thus far composed of works of a permanent and standard value, and the extraordinary low price at which they are afforded, places them within the reach of persons of moderate means. The sacred associations, and the interest attaching to the first ascent by a modern traveller, is acknowledged by all. Ararat, though high, is yet inferior in altitude to many of the passes of the Himmaleh; its icy head may be steep, but yet, that resolute man can climb the narrowest ridge of the steepest ice, was proved in the ascent of the Jungfrau by M. Agassiz, Mr. Forbes, and others, in 1841. The result of M. Parrot's scientific investigations are here given complete, and the work abounds with the observations and statements of a learned, patient and philosophical mind, intent on the objects of its researches. The large and handsome map in front, and the neatly engraved illustrations scattered over the volume, add much to the beauty of the book, while they enhance its value to the student.

3.—*Theology Explained and Defended in a Series of Sermons*. By TIMOTHY DWIGHT, S. T. D., L. L. D. With a Memoir of the Life of the Author. In four volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author of this system of theology, the text-book in most orthodox colleges at home, and in many abroad, claims a high rank among men of that class. These volumes, comprising his systematic sermons, contain their author much labor and research, and were, at the time of their delivery, favorite discourses with the public at large, and with his pupils; many of whom, as we learn from his memoir, took notes of them every Sabbath. Their primary object is to explain and prove what he deemed the great truths of theology; and their second, to enforce them on the conscience, and show their practical influence on the heart and life. They are written in a clear, bold, and forcible style, and show how a mind naturally fond of the imagery can, when required by circumstances, bring itself into subjection to a severe discipline. The character of Dr. Dwight, as exhibited in the memoir, at the commencement, must commend itself to the good and true of all sects and parties. The purity of his sentiments and language was equally remarkable and exemplary. But this is not the place either to discuss his character or review his theology. We may add, however, that the publishers have produced a very handsome edition of his works in four large octavo volumes, each containing about 600 pages, which they afford at \$6, being greatly reduced in price from any former edition.

4.—*Lives of Distinguished American Naval Officers*. By J. FENNIMORE COOPER, Author of the "Spy," "The Pilot," &c. Vol. I. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This volume contains the lives of Bainbridge, Somers, Shaw, Shubrick, and Preble, written with apparent impartiality, and with the distinguished ability of the author. It is well, perhaps, to preserve these memorials of "naval glory," as matter of history; but the triumphs of peace, and progress in the art of saving men's lives, is far more to our taste.

5.—*The Farmer's Dictionary; a Vocabulary of the Technical Terms Recently Introduced into Agriculture and Horticulture, from Various Sources, and also a Compend of Practical Farming; the latter chiefly from the works of the Rev. W. L. Rham, London, Lons, and Jonatt, and the Most Eminent American Authors.* Edited by D. P. GARDNER, M. D., Honorary Member of several Agricultural Societies. With Numerous Illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There is an unceasing demand for works of this class; and there is not, perhaps, a better method of communicating knowledge in relation to the various arts of life, than through the medium of the encyclopædia or the dictionary. They are easy of reference, and we turn at once to the subject on which we require precise information. The present work appears to be well adapted to the wants of the agriculturist. It is not voluminous, but furnishes, in a clear and comprehensive form, just that kind and amount of information, that every person who tills an acre of land, plants an orchard, keeps a cow or a horse, &c., will find almost indispensable. The compiler has availed himself of the labors of the most recent and distinguished practical and scientific agriculturists in Europe and America.

6.—*Notes of a Journey from Cornhill to Grand Cairo, by Way of Lisbon, Athens, Constantinople, and Jerusalem; Performed in the Steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company.* By Mr. M. A. TITMARSH, Author of the "Irish Sketch Book," &c. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading, No. 53.

Whether this journey was actually performed by Mr. Titmarsh, *alias* Thackeray, in his own proper person, or only in imagination, in the author's *etude*, is a matter of little moment, so long as it is an interesting book, and which we venture to anticipate will be a popular one. Indeed, it is so already; as all in the circle of our acquaintance who have read, uniformly pronounce it a delightful book, and every way worthy a place in the "Library of Choice Reading."

7.—*History of the English Revolution of 1640, commonly called the Great Rebellion, from the accession of Charles I. to his death.* By F. GUIZOT, Prime Minister of France, author of "History of Civilization in Europe," etc. etc. Translated by WILLIAM HAZLITT. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

M. Guizot has long been regarded one of the most distinguished men of France. A professor of History in a prominent institution of that country, he formerly earned a wide reputation in a series of lectures which were afterwards published under the title of the "General History of Civilization in Europe," and he has since gradually advanced to his present commanding position as prime minister of France. The peculiar cast of Guizot's character as a historian, is marked by acuteness, condensation of style, comprehensiveness of view, and a logical precision by which he accurately follows out general causes to their consequences, as well as by high moral principle. The present work exhibits the peculiar traits of this historian, and presents the leading events in that great revolution which occupies so large a space in the history of England. The present volume is embraced in the admirable series of books in course of publication under the general title of "Appleton's Literary Miscellany."

8.—*The Book of Peace; a Collection of Essays on War and Peace.* New York: M. W. Dodd.

This volume is well-timed, and the arguments and considerations in favor of peace principles are exhibited in a clear and convincing light. The contents of the volume are culled from a wide as well as luxuriant field—from the gardens of intellect and learning in both hemispheres, from some of the best and purest writers in the last three centuries, from men of every faith, Protestant and Catholic, Orthodox and Unitarian. The subject is itself a sort of Delos, whither the best spirits of every party, creed and clime, gather, to blend in sweet and hallowed sympathy; and the volume exhibits a constellation of the peaceful pleiades, pouring their mingled splendor on this common theme of beneficence, humanity, and Christian patriotism. We commend it to such of our statesmen as would embroil this nation in a foolish and wicked war with England.

9.—*The History of Ireland, Ancient and Modern, taken from the most Authentic Records, and dedicated to the Irish Brigade.* By the Abbe MACGEOGHEGAN. Translated from the French, by PATRICK O'KEELLY, Esq. New York: D. & J. Sadlier.

This is a labored and extended history of Ireland from the pen of a learned divine of that country. It embraces much of interest to those who are of the Emerald Isle, as well as the general scholar. Written in a clear style, it is judiciously arranged, and gives us some of the most prominent circumstances connected with a people which possesses many very noble and estimable traits of character, and from which our own country has derived a considerable portion of its population and its productive industry. The work is comprised in about seven hundred royal octavo pages, printed on a clear, bold type, and a very substantial white paper; and, altogether, forms one of the handsomest books produced in this country.

10.—*Philanthropy; or, My Mother's Bible. Founded on an incident which happened in New York.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

Whatever objections may exist in the minds of many honest and good people to tales of the imagination intended for the amusement and instruction of the young, they will not apply to this little volume, because it is founded on fact, and is so simple in narrative and so truthful in detail, and, withal, so full of love and kindness, that its influence cannot be otherwise than salutary on all those who may chance to read it; and we hope the number will not be small.

11.—*Forecastle Tom; or, the Landsman turned Sailor*. By MARY S. B. DANA, author of the "Northern and Southern Harps," "The Young Sailor," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The life of the sailor, so full of daring and adventure, and his character, a mixed one, of course, with many noble and generous traits, and not without his foibles and vices, the latter too often the result of unfavorable circumstances, affords materials out of which to work up the most amusing, and at the same time, the most instructive narrative. Mrs. Dana's story is well told, and the lessons of wisdom and goodness it inculcates, are well worth remembering.

12.—*Goodrich's National Geography*. New York: Huntington & Savage.

This work appears to have been got up with great care on the part of the author, and liberal expense on that of the publishers. It may be commended as a model in respect to all the mechanical departments, paper, printing, engravings, &c. In respect to the contents of the book, we may state that it appears to us to be prepared with skill, taste, and knowledge of the subject. The author has displayed his usual tact in selecting what is to be taught, and the manner of teaching it. As the work is designed as a manual for teaching, and is all to be learnt by the pupil, superfluous matter is rejected, especially in the maps; so that, while much time and trouble will be saved to the scholar and teacher, the subject will be more thoroughly mastered, more clearly considered, and more indelibly impressed on the memory. The globe map attached to the work is a happy contrivance, so simple and yet so useful, that we are astonished it has never been thought of before. We regard this feature of the work as an invaluable endowment to our schools and the cause of education.

13.—*Artists of America*. By C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Baker & Scribner.

This serial has reached its third number, and embraces comprehensive sketches of the lives of Washington Allston, Henry Inman, Benjamin West, and Gilbert Stuart, with beautiful outline portraits of each. Mr. Lester is an ardent and enthusiastic admirer of every thing American, and besides, he brings to his present enterprise a highly cultivated mind, and a just and discriminating taste. The numbers of the work now before us, are simple and chaste in design, and highly finished in execution. The object of the work, as we have before stated, is a more general diffusion of the most authentic information relative to our artists and their works, to make them better known at home. The publishers have expressed their determination to spare no pains or means requisite to make this a work which no artist or friend of American art will be unwilling to favor.

14.—*Elocution; or, Mental and Vocal Philosophy: Involving the Principles of Reading and Speaking; and designed for the Development and Cultivation of both Body and Mind, in Accordance with the Nature, Uses, and Destiny of Man, Illustrated by Two or Three Hundred Choice Anecdotes, Three Thousand Oratorical and Poetical Readings; Five Thousand Proverbs, Maxims, and Locomies, and Several Hundred Elegant Engravings*. By Prof. BRONSON, A. M., M. D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The copious title-page to this volume, which we have quoted entire, is a very good index of its contents and character. That Professor Bronson has made some important discoveries in the philosophy of elocution, and been singularly successful as a teacher, throughout the United States, is very generally admitted by all who have any knowledge of the subject. This volume is designed to explain and illustrate the principles of his system; and is the fifth edition or sixteenth thousand published. Aside from its value as a work of instruction, it is one of the most entertaining books of the class ever published.

15.—*Perrinsabuloe, the Lost Church Found; or, the Church of England not a New Church, but Ancient, Apostolic and Independent, and a Protestant Church, Nine Hundred Years before the Reformation*. By Rev. C. T. COLLINS TRELAWNEY, A. M., late Rector of Timsbury, Somerset, and formerly Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. New York: Stanford & Swords.

This is the first American, from the fifth London edition of a work that has attracted considerable notice in England. The design of the author, as may be gathered from the title-page quoted, and more fully from the volume that follows, is to show the antiquity of the Episcopal Church in that branch of it now known as the English. The pretensions of Rome are discussed with as much charity as we should expect from one who holds to a different church. The work presents, in a comprehensive form, many interesting historical notes, and the positions of the author are sustained by an array of data, that will, no doubt, prove entirely satisfactory to the American Churchman.

16.—*A Debate on Slavery; held in the City of Cincinnati, on the First, Second, Third, and Sixth Days of October, 1845, Upon the Question: Is Slavery in itself Sinful, and the relation between Master and Slave a Sinful Relation?* New York: Mark H. Newman.

We have, in this volume of nearly five hundred pages, a discussion on the subject of slavery, by two members of the Presbyterian denomination. The affirmative was supported by the Rev. J. Blanchard, pastor of the Sixth (new school) Presbyterian Church, Cincinnati, and the negative by N. L. Rice, D. D., of the Central (old school) Presbyterian church of that city. The subject is ably discussed on both sides. The debate was conducted with constant reference to publication, and everything pertinent to the subject, was urged in as concise a manner as the mode of debate would admit. Two reporters of eminence, A. J. Stansbury, of Washington city, and E. P. Cranch, of Cincinnati, were employed, and the report was written out by them, and revised by the parties, and is here with a complete index.

17.—*The Fairy Book; Illustrated with Eighty one Cuts by Adams.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

This book will answer well its design, not the highest, but innocent, perhaps, that of amusement for the young. It contains some of the old fairy stories we read with pleasure in our boyhood, and some of more recent date, translated expressly for this work. The engravings by Adams are exquisite—not surpassed by any that we have before seen.

18.—*A Manual, Analytical and Synthetical, on Orthography and Definition.* By JAMES M. McELLI-GOTT, Principal of the Mechanics' Society School, New York. New York: Mark H. Newman.

This manual of instruction appears to possess considerable merit. It has been examined by such men as Chancellor Frelinghuysen, Dr. Reese, and other eminent friends of education, who have each expressed a decidedly favorable opinion as to its general excellence, and adaptation to the purpose for which it is designed. The Young Analyzer, a smaller volume, presents an easy outline of the course of instruction more fully developed in this (larger) work.

19.—*Elements of Moral Philosophy, on the basis of the Ten Commandments; containing a Complete System of Moral Duties.* By LEICESTER A. SAWYER, President of Central College, Ohio.

We can conceive of no better or higher standard of moral philosophy or ethics, than that embraced in the summing up of the ten commandments, viz: to love God supremely, and our neighbor as ourselves; and just in the degree the writer of the present treatise has embraced this standard of moral excellence, must all pure-minded, honest men, approve and adopt it. There is much in the volume that meets with our most hearty approval, while there are some things that we consider irrelevant to the subject, and which belong rather to the popular theology, than to a work devoted to moral philosophy, and designed as a text-book for colleges, and other seminaries of learning.

20.—*The Churchman's Reasons for his Faith and Practice.* By REV. N. S. RICHARDSON, A. M., author of "Reasons Why I am a Churchman." New York: James A. Sparks.

The volume with the above title will commend itself to Churchmen generally. It seems not to have been written in a controversial spirit, and agitates neither the questions of Puseyism or Low Churchism, but recommends the principle of "*Laissez faire*" sufficiently to bring those points which are most settled and important more and more before the Church; urging the necessity of rather regarding the true purpose of a Churchman to do good, as far as his knowledge extends. The author earnestly recommends a return to the principles which the Church, in all its divisions, must have in common. Although the book cannot claim the credit of originality, still it will doubtless please every true Christian to see that, among the agitations and commotions of the Church, its great end, and that of all sects—the furtherance of pure religion—is not wholly lost sight of.

21.—*The Matricide.* By JOHN K. DUER, U. S. N. New York: W. H. Graham.

In this story all the elements of the Monk Lewis school of romance, love, murder and seduction are combined and worked up. This, to us, seems not the most valuable kind of production, and however much it may bear the marks of genius, we think it could be far better directed than it is here.

22.—*"The Harbinger; devoted to Social and Political Progress,"* published by the Brook Farm Phalanx, aside from the beneficent principles it advocates in a truly catholic spirit, is, in our opinion, the best literary journal in the country. Its articles are singularly able, and leave the impress of minds filled with the highest inspiration of goodness and genius. The notices of new books are discriminating and just.

BOOKS IN PAPER COVERS.

23.—*Mary de Clifford, a Novel.* By SIR EDGERTON BRYDGES. Complete in One Volume. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

24.—*Wild Sports in Europe, Asia and Africa.* By LT. COLONEL E. NAPIER, (late 45th Regiment,) author of "Scenes and Sports in Foreign Lands," "Excursions along the Shores of the Mediterranean," "Reminiscences of Syria," etc. E. Ferrett & Co's Cabinet Series of Entertaining Books, No. 1.

25.—*The Half-yearly Abstract of the Medical Sciences: being a Practical and Analytical Digest of the Contents of the Principal British and Continental Medical Works Published in the preceding six Months. Together with a Series of Critical Reports on the Progress of Medicine, and the Collateral Sciences During the Same Period.* Edited by W. H. RANKIN, M. D., Cantab Physician to the General Hospital. Part 2, Vol. July to December, 1845. New-York: J. & H. G. Langley.

26.—*The Incognito: or, Sins and Peccadilloes.* By DON T. DE TRUEBA, Author of "Romance of History, Spain," "The Castilian," etc. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

27.—*Count Julian; or, The Last Days of the Goth. A Historical Romance.* By The Author of "Guy Rivers," "The Yemassee," etc. Baltimore: William Taylor & Co.

28.—*Guy Rivers: A Tale of Georgia.* By The Author of "Martin Faber," "Atalantis," etc. Harpers' Pocket Editions of Novels, No. 14.

29.—*The Step-Mother, a Romance.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq. In 2 Parts. Nos. 74 and 75 Harper's Library of Select Novels.

30.—*The Elves. Translated from the German of Tieck.* By THOMAS CARLYLE. With other Tales and Sketches. No. 73 Harper's Library of Select Novels.

31.—*The Adventures of a French Gentleman.* By the author of "Pickwick Abroad." With numerous Illustrations. New York: Wilson & Co.

32.—*The Treasury of History, No. 9.* New York: Daniel Adee. [This number concludes the History of Spain, with a brief description of Portugal, Austria and German States, and Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Russia, and her tyranny over Poland, the Cantons of Switzerland, Italy, and the Bridge of Sighs of Venice, are also pictured.]