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CONTENTS OF NO. II., VOL. XV.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE
I. ELEMENTS OF COMMERCIAL LAW. By J. K. ANGELL, of Rhode Island, author of several standard Law Works.....	131
II. OPENINGS FOR THE EXTENSION OF AMERICAN COMMERCE. Embracing brief notices of the Present State, Productions, Commerce, &c., of the Comoro Islands, Abyssinia, Persia, Burmah, Cochín China, the Indian Archipelago, and Japan,.....	137
III. THE NAVAL FORCE AND COMMERCE OF THE WORLD. By JAMES H. LANMAN, of Pennsylvania,.....	146
IV. QUARANTINE LAWS AND REGULATIONS. By ABIJAH INGRAHAM, M.D., of N. York,.....	152
V. TRADE AND COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS. St. Louis—Its Early History—Population—Location and Commercial Advantages—Shops and Buildings—Value of its Commerce, Manufactures, &c.—Wheat, Flour, Tobacco, Beef, Pork—Arrivals and Clearances of Steamboats and Tonnage—Imports into St. Louis—Lumber Trade—Importance of improving the Harbor, &c. 162	162
VI. CHEMISTRY APPLIED TO COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. A New, Simple, and Accurate Method of ascertaining the Commercial Value of Potash and Soda. Translated from "Annalen der Chemie und Pharmacie," of MM. Fresenius and Will,.....	171
VII. A HAMBURGH MERCHANT IN HIS COUNTING-HOUSE. Translated from the German, by THOMAS PRENTICE KETTELL, of New York,.....	177
VIII. THE NATIONAL FAIR AT WASHINGTON,.....	181

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

Law of Beef and Pork Inspection, (Louisiana),.....	185
Bills of Exchange—Bankruptcy, &c.....	186
Broker's Commission on Houses sold for Advance on Mortgage,.....	187
Auctioneers and Sureties,.....	187

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW,

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

State of the Money-Markets in England—British Exports from January to May, 1846—Import of Raw Materials—Tropical Products entered England for Consumption—Sugar, Tea, Coffee, &c.—Ability of Nations to Manufacture—Modification of European Tariffs—The New Tariff Bill of the United States—Import of Goods from Great Britain, in 1845, with the Ad Valorem rate of Duty paid, and the rate chargeable under the proposed Tariff—Provisions to prevent Fraud—Bank Facilities and Credits—Prospect as to Prices—Port of New York, Imports and Exports—Exchanges—Amount and Location of the United States Deposits—Revenue and Expenditure of the United States Government—Its Effect upon the Market—The Sub-Treasury—Opposition to the Warehousing Bill, &c. &c.....

VOL. XV.—NO. II.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

Quarantine Regulations for the Port of New York, embracing the Act of the State, passed 1846,	194
Tobacco Inspection Law of Louisiana, for New Orleans and Lafayette,	197
Semaphoric Telegraph, adopted by the United States Treasury Department,	200

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Shoal in the Sooloo Sea,	201
French Islands of St. Peter and Miquelon,	201
Light-house on the Gronskars,	201

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

Coinage of the United States Mint and Branches, in 1845,	202
Deposits and Coinage of Silver and Gold at the Mint of the United States and Branches, in 1845,	202
Copper Cents coined in 1845,	203
Deposits of Gold at the United States Mint and Branches, for Coinage, from Mines in the United States, in each year, from 1824 to 1845,	203
Amount of Coinage at the Branch Mints, from the commencement of their operations, to Dec., 1845,	204
Value of the Whole Coinage of Gold, Silver, and Copper, and Number of Pieces coined in each year, from 1793 to 1845,	205
Banks of the State of New York—Comptroller's Report,	206
Finances of the United States—Statement of the Secretary of the Treasury,	208
Receipts from the Customs, for the Fiscal Years ending 30th June, 1845 and 1846,	208

RAILROAD AND CANAL STATISTICS.

Capacity of Railroads for business.—Reading Railroad, Receipts in 1844 and 1845,	209
Erie Canal and Western Railroad, Receipts compared,	209
Comparative cost of Railroads in the Southern and Northern States,	210
Transportation of Milk on the Erie Railroad, from 1842 to 1845,	210

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

Immigration into the United States, first six months of 1846,	210
Progress of Population in Boston, from 1742 to 1845,	211
Population of Boston by different Censuses, from 1742 to 1845,	211
Proportions of White and Colored Population of Boston,	211
Population of the Austrian Monarchy, by the last Census,	211

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

Wages of Women in Factories in New Hampshire and Massachusetts,	212
Amount of Deposits in the Savings' Bank at Lowell, from 1841 to 1842,	212
First Cast-Iron Manufactured in Michigan,	212
American Iron and Steel Manufactory,	213
Enterprise of Manufacturers of Massachusetts.—Mineral Resources of Alabama,	213

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

Price of Flour, Wheat, and Corn, at Baltimore, on the 1st of each month, in each year, from 1839 to '46,	214
Export of Teas from China to the United States and Great Britain,	215
Exports of Lard and Cheese from the United States to different countries in 1844 and 1845,	216
Quantity of Grain taken out of Bond, in the United Kingdom, for the last twenty years,	216
Wheat entered for Consumption in the United Kingdom, for the last eleven years,	216

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

A Commercial Absurdity—Exchange on England,	217
Love of Money in America.—The Rich and the Poor,	218
A British Creditor's Liberality to a Fraudulent Debtor,	218

OUR CORRESPONDENCE.

Questions of the Correspondent of the London Morning Chronicle answered,	219
Taxation in New York.—Exports from Great Britain.—Canadian Imports,	219
Montreal Free Trade Association.—Canadian Economist,	220
Letter from the Montreal Free Trade Association, to the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine,	220

THE BOOK TRADE.

Notices of twenty-two new Books, &c.	221-224
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HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1846.

Art. I.—ELEMENTS OF COMMERCIAL LAW.

"Together let us beat this ample field,"
Try what the open, what the covert, yield."—POPE.

It is an impressive development of the graciousness of the Creator, so to have ordained, that the propensity to acquire wealth, so generally implanted in the bosom of His creatures, should, under moral and religious restraint, be made instrumental, through the medium of Commerce, in diffusing inestimable blessings. That Commerce and civilization go hand in hand, in their progress, is proverbial. But perhaps the fact was never more strikingly exemplified, than by the commercial municipalities which eventually constituted the confederacy of the "Hanse Towns." The cities which gave birth to that confederacy were the nurseries of social amelioration; while in strong contrast, was the sad picture of Europe in general, exhibiting intellectual apathy and moral degradation. The history of Commerce is a very essential portion of the history of the ancient and modern world, and the history of commercial law, affording a rich treasure of scientific and practical knowledge, is of course embraced by it.

Commercial law is the production of time and experience. The basis upon which it rests, is the ethical maxim of measuring the rights of others, by the standard of our own; or, as it is expressed by scriptural injunction, of doing to others as we would have others do to us. With such a basis for support, it is no cause of wonder that it should have survived the surprising number of civil and political convulsions that are faithfully and vividly depicted upon the pages of ancient and modern history.

In a savage, and even in a pastoral condition of mankind, no systematic mode of commercial traffic can reasonably be looked for. The utmost extent to which trade can be prosecuted, in either of those conditions, is an exchange of one of the necessities of life for that of another. The use of money is indispensable to a *system* of trade, the effect of which is to divide personal property into minute parts,* and thereby afford a chance of

* Dr. Johnson, in describing the simple manners of the inhabitants of the Hebrides, says, "In towns, he who has a shilling, may have a piece of meat; but where there is no Commerce, no man can eat mutton, but by killing a sheep."

profit, and provoke a spirit of hazard and adventure. When that point is arrived at, the following are the consequences:—1. Matters of dispute arising out of commercial transactions. 2. The establishment of tribunals for the determination of such matters of dispute. 3. Precedents to be thereafter followed. 4. COMMERCIAL LAW.

Commercial law is either *positive* or *prescriptive*. It is proposed to treat of the former as primordial.

Positive commercial law is the progeny of legislative policy and action. In other words, it consists of legislative enactments, like the statutes of the British Parliament, and those of the American Congress, and of those of our respective State legislative assemblies. It has ever been, and ever must be, an unfortunate fatality attending positive law, indispensable as it is in affording the greatest facility to the operations of Commerce, to open a capacious avenue to litigation. This proceeds both from the short-sightedness of the human intellect, and the indigence of language. Digested and framed even by the judgment, and under the supervision of men conspicuous for deep sagacity and eminent for profound professional learning, positive law is still beyond exemption from the cause of complaint just mentioned. In evidence of this, it is only necessary to refer to the highly extolled statutes of frauds, bankruptcy, and insolvency. The controversies that have proceeded from legislation upon each of those subjects, and which have been adjudged and determined by the tribunals of judicature, are almost countless. It is nevertheless true, that such statutes, especially after revision, modification and alteration, from time to time, to suit exigencies at first unforeseen, are of inappreciable value in rendering encouragement to commercial enterprise, and in sustaining at the same time the predominance of the universally recognized principles of justice and equity. Still, the lamentable fact stated, makes it a duty imperative upon legislative functionaries, in digesting and arranging commercial enactments, to study to avoid, as much as is practicable in accomplishing such work, giving occasion for doubt and disputation, after they are promulgated.

A more provocative infiction upon a merchant cannot well be conceived, than when he is in the haste of business, and has occasion for a reference to a commercial act of Congress, or of a State, to determine him how to proceed in a particular negotiation, to be at a loss to comprehend what it all means. It becomes indeed a very serious matter with him, when he is thus constrained to suspend his wonted mercantile promptitude of action, for professional consultation, and then ultimately find himself in the meshes of an expensive lawsuit. Upon the importance of lucidness of language and plainness of expression of intention, in the framing of positive commercial ordinances, a great degree of stress was placed by Lord Mansfield. That illustrious and astonishingly astute judge, (though he has been, at times, captiously objected to, as being too great a latitudinarian, in the discharge of his judicial functions,) frequently remarked, it has been said, that the *certainty* of a rule was often of more importance, in mercantile cases, than the *reason* of it. A settled rule, he maintained, should be preserved for the security of property. This is an admonitory suggestion to those who constitute the legislative department, which they are bound by their peculiar duty to respect and observe. Professional men are well aware that many of the acts promulgated from the halls of legislation are so incautiously and crudely prepared, that to determine with any tolerable degree of accuracy, of the intention which dictated them, is a task of ex-

treme difficulty. The lawyer of experience in courts of justice, is sensible that if the causes of expensive litigation, proceeding from this source, found no place upon the docket, the number of civil causes ordinarily found there, would be very materially diminished.

There appears to be no good reason why the directions for interpreting the meaning of a legislative act should not be deemed strongly analogous, if not strictly applicable, to the directions to be observed in the construction of written mercantile contracts. The intention of the act, in the one case, and the intention of a written contract, in the other, is the important object to be attained; and, in effecting that intention, the law, under particular circumstances, will view the literal language used, as subservient to the purpose plainly manifested.* Many cases, we have the high authority of the author just named in the note below, for saying, are given in the books in which the plain intent has prevailed over the strict letter. In the case of a statute, and in the case of a written contract, it is considered that plain and unambiguous words shall not be sacrificed to a refinement of terms which would defeat the true and obvious sense. The whole legislative act, like the whole written contract, is to be studiously weighed, and every part compared in connection with every other part, that the act or the contract may be stamped throughout with lucid and imposing consistency. If, in a mercantile case, the contract be so drawn up that its true import is questionable, the established usage of trade will exercise a control in ascertaining the certainty of intention; and the same is applicable to a legislative enactment. The modern, and more reasonable practice, is, to give to the language its just sense, and to search for the precise meaning, and one requisite to give due and fair effect.†

The parliamentary acts of England, and the acts of the legislative tribunals of the United States, upon commercial subjects, have been referred to, as illustrative of the meaning of positive commercial law. Between the extent of the powers of legislation existing in the one country, and the extent of those powers existing in the other, an important difference is presented, which may here be appropriately noticed, though it conflicts not at all with what has been advanced in explanation of the nature of positive law. The positive acts of the English Parliament, as is stated in the commentaries of Blackstone, are the exercise of the highest authority that the Kingdom of England acknowledges upon earth. In the United States, no such paramount legislative authority is known. Here, there are *written* Constitutions, prescribing the limits of legislative action, both to Congress, and to each one of the States; and a judicatorial tribunal is established, to declare void all such action as transcends the limits designated.

"The courts of justice," says Kent, in speaking of the courts of this country, "have a right, and it is their bounden duty, to bring every law to the test of the Constitution, and to regard the Constitution, first of the United States, and then of their own State, as the paramount or supreme law, to which every inferior derivative power and regulation must conform. The Constitution," says he, "is the act of the people speaking their original character, and defining the permanent conditions of the social alliance; and there can be no doubt on the point with us, that every act of the legislative power contrary to the true intent and meaning of the Constitution, is absolutely null and void. The interpretation or construction of the Con-

* See Kent's Com. in treating on the subject of contract.

† Ibid.

stitution," he proceeds to declare, "is as much a judicial act, and requires the exercise of the same legal discretion, as the interpretation or construction of a law;" and, "an independent judiciary, venerable by its gravity, its dignity, and its wisdom, and deliberating with entire serenity and moderation, is peculiarly fitted for the exalted duty of expounding the Constitution, and trying the validity of statutes by that standard." To this effect, there have been repeated decisions of a commercial character, by the highest branch of the Federal Judiciary.

The nature and derivative source of positive commercial law, and the constitutional restraints imposed upon the creation of it, in this country, having been considered, that portion of it distinguished by the term "*prescriptive*," next awaits attention. This term is expressive of prolonged usage. The term "positive," on the other hand, it will be borne in mind, is employed to denote commercial law, issuing from an apprehension or a surmise of the legislature, that the proposed provisions of a particular statute designed to be passed, will accomplish a certain desirable end of general policy. The distinction between the two is therefore as wide as the distinction between mere hypothesis and absolute conviction; or, as between the prospective and the retrospective. Positive commercial law involves the idea of hazard and fallibility, whereas prescriptive commercial law involves the idea of certainty and infallibility. The one is declaratory and recent in its inception; the other has been already begun, and for that reason it may be said to be historical. Shortly to describe prescriptive commercial law, it is founded upon settled custom and usage. With so much propriety may it be said to be historical in its nature, that it is to a great extent derivable even from rules of law, as settled by general suffrage and judicial adoption in ancient Rome. Cicero was bold to foretell that the jurisprudence of Rome, as it had been matured in his time, would flourish thereafter, and would, moreover, control the people of every nation to the end of time. That eminent master of the science of morals was led to reason, that whatever law was theoretically right, and had, besides, been practically ascertained to be so, must of necessity be coeval with time. It is scarcely necessary to add, that the logical merit of his conclusion has thus far been conspicuously evinced by the examples of Europe and America. Neither, one would suppose, was it necessary to assert that the utmost stretch of the human intellect to prescribe, in advance, rules of action which would be in unison with contingencies yet to come to pass, in the course of the ever fluctuating concerns of commerce, would result in entire miscarriage. An effort, indeed, such as that, would amount to a profane pretension to the prescience of Deity. In the judicial administration of courts of law, an obligation is imposed upon the judges, which they cannot conscientiously evade, to consult precedents established by their predecessors.* It is their duty, moreover, to extract from those precedents the ethical principles lying at their foundation, and clearly to point them out in the opinions they are called on to deliver. By such means has it been, that the science of pure ethics pervading the early decisions, has given tone to the judgments and the legislation of modern times.

* A solemn decision, says Kent, upon a point of law, arising in any given case, becomes an authority in a like case, because it is the highest evidence which we can have of the law applicable to the subject, and the judges are bound to follow that decision so long as it stands unreversed, unless it can be shown that the law was misunderstood or misapplied, in that particular case. If a decision has been made upon solemn argument and mature deliberation, the presumption is in favor of its correctness.

There is nothing any more surprising, in the admirable coincidence which has been stated to exist between ancient and modern judicial precedents, than the simple fact that the entire series of them, extending from the days of ancient Rome to those of modern America, constitute a uniform and perfect system of practical ethics. A total exemption from whatever is inharmonious and discordant, in a system like that, is only appropriate to it. So, among the great cluster of authors who have written upon commercial law, so far as regards their subject matter, there is no discrepancy; though in point of style and method, some have a claim to preference over others. There are examples, showing that authors upon commercial law, accomplished in those respects, have transmitted their names to remote posterity, when even the materials they made use of were culled from some less logical and classic predecessor, after his name had been consigned to oblivion.* Again, so entirely undiversified are the true principles of justice and morality, that compilers and expounders of them, of the highest order in elegance of diction, have caught at the lucubrations of another, of as high order in all respects. Cicero acknowledges that in his renowned profound work on *Offices*, he availed himself of the labors of Panactius, and long after the time of Cicero, his consummate production became the foundation of the writings of the two celebrated publicists, Grotius and Puffendorf.† As the poet has it,

“What can we reason, but from what we know?”

It is indeed true, that prescriptive commercial law has, in no small number of instances, by direction of the sovereign power, been made to assume the form of positive law, by a reduction of it into systematically arranged written codes and ordinances. But such codes and ordinances were intended only to be understood as evincive of what had already become established as prescriptive law. Hence, notwithstanding a change in form, the pristine prescriptive character was left unchanged. These remarks apply to the maritime codes of the ancients, and to those which have done credit to the middle ages, all of which have been deemed a rich legacy to modern maritime jurisprudence. As one instance of the respect paid them in the occidental world, it may be mentioned that the celebrated “Laws of Oleron,” compiled as early as the reign of Richard I., were adopted by the government of the colony of Rhode Island, in the year 1647, or about ten years from the settlement of its territory. The object, as it was expressed, was “for the benefit of seamen.”‡ It may be added, that

* As evincive of this, we give the following note from Kent's Com., vol. 3, p. 251, ed. 1832. “In the immense edition which was published at Amsterdam, in 1669, of the various works of Straccha, Santerna, and others, on nautical and marine subjects, we have laborious essays, replete with obsolete learning, on different branches of commercial law, of no less than twenty Italian civilians, whose works are now totally forgotten, and even their very names have become obscured by the oblivion of time. Subsequent civilians may have erected stately tomes from the matter which their ruins have furnished.”

† These doings are cited by Kent, (*ut supra*), in the conclusion of his remarks on *The Dissolution of the Contract of Affreightment*, to show how closely subsequent writers follow in the footsteps of those who preceded them, in ethics and in law.

‡ At Portsmouth, in the now state of Rhode Island, and upon the island of the same name, about twelve miles northerly from Newport, the representatives of the people of the colony resolved, in 1647, that the “Laws of Oleron” should be in force, “for the benefit of seamen.” See *Early Records of Rhode Island*. From the care which seems to have been taken to express the particular object in view, it is manifest that the resolution had especial reference to the humane provision of the “Laws of Oleron,” making it incum-

the case of *Sims vs. Jackson*,* as well as some others, was decided upon the authority of the "Laws of Oleron."

It is somewhat singular that an English judge (Wilmot) should have stated that the common law is nothing but statutes worn out by time; and that all law began by the consent of the legislature. Kent is of the opinion of the writer, that Wilmot laid down the origin of the common law too broadly. A great proportion of the common law, Kent thinks, grew into use by gradual adoption, and received from time to time the sanction of courts of justice, without any legislative act or interference. The latter jurist, it is plain enough, means to be understood that the most ancient written codes extant were based upon pre-existing usage, and put into written form for the sake of convenience, like the maritime codes referred to.

Prescriptive commercial law is as *expansive* in influence as it has been represented to be historical in origin. The coincidence is quite as remarkable between the commercial law of one nation and that of another, as the coincidence is between that of time past and the time present; and for the same reasons that have been assigned in treating of the latter. Cicero pronounced the law of Athens to be the same as that of Rome. With the same propriety may the commercial law of France be pronounced the same as that of England, and that of England, and of Europe in general, in principles, the same as that of the United States. This collateral relationship is worthy of the regard of the higher functionaries of government, and may be contemplated with unalloyed satisfaction by the moralist and the professed philanthropist. It tends to cement different nations by causing a consonance of feeling which begets a mutual complaisance and courtesy irreconcilable with a spirit of altercation and of war. Hence is it that commercial law has been styled, both by ancient and modern civilians, "public" and "international" law. Mr. J. Park, the first writer who reduced the precedents of the English courts on the subject of insurance to the order of a regular science, remarks in the preface to his treatise on that subject, that although he at first contemplated a distinct chapter upon the subject of insurance, in the countries of Europe generally, yet, upon consideration that the law upon that subject must necessarily be the same in all countries, he relinquished it. Marshall, who, not many years after the publication of Park, followed him on the same subject, is very explicit to the same effect. He considers the prescriptive commercial law of other countries a part of the English common law; and he says, "the custom of merchants being understood, in any one particular, being once clearly ascertained in the supreme courts, acquires, from henceforth, the force of law, without the sanction of any higher authority." It would therefore, he considers, have been a useless labor for the legislature to enact those very usages, which are already deemed as a part of the law of the land. What is or is not the custom of merchants, says he, "is much better ascertained in the investigation of particular cases, in courts of justice, than it could be by parliament, with all the information

bent upon the master of a vessel to receive back seamen whom he had discharged, provided they were penitent and ready to resume their services; and that it had also reference to the privilege conferred upon the mariner, if he had been unduly discharged, of following the vessel, and recovering his wages for the voyage, and the expenses of his return. This may be mentioned as one of the many instances of the intelligence as well as of the humanity of the very settlers of this country.

* See 1 Peters' Adm. Rep. 157.

and assistance it could obtain." Here the distinction between positive and prescriptive commercial law is clearly made to appear.

The views of Lord Mansfield upon the particular topic under consideration, carry with them too great a weight to be passed over. That renowned commercial jurist considered the law merchant as a branch of "public" law, because he considered, like Cicero, that it consisted of certain principles and usages of trade, which general convenience had established, in the traffic of merchants, in all the commercial countries of the civilized world. Kent, in treating upon the several divisions of the law of contract, has quoted liberally from the productions of foreign writers and the decisions of foreign tribunals, and in one portion of his commentaries offers the following remarks: "I am justified, not only by the example of the most eminent English lawyers and judges, but by the consideration that the law merchant is part of the European law of nations, and grounded upon principles of universal equity. It pervades everywhere the institutions of that vast combination of Christian nations, which constitutes one community for commercial purposes and social intercourse; and the interchange of principles, and spirit, and literature which that intercourse produces, is now working wonderful improvements in the moral and political condition of the human race."

Art. II.—OPENINGS FOR THE EXTENSION OF AMERICAN COMMERCE :

EMBRACING BRIEF NOTICES OF THE PRESENT STATE, PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, COMMERCE, ETC., OF THE COMORO ISLANDS, ABYSSINIA, PERSIA, BURMAH, COCHIN CHINA, THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO, AND JAPAN.

MR. AARON H. PALMER, who has conducted, for the last fifteen years, an American and Foreign Agency, in the city of New York, recently addressed a letter to the Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs in the House of Representatives, which furnishes some valuable information respecting the present state, productions, trade, commerce, &c., of the several countries named at the head of this paper. He also recommends that a special mission be sent by the government of the United States, to make treaties, and open and extend our commercial intercourse with those countries. In the letter referred to, Mr. Palmer states that the object of his agency has been "to make known in foreign countries the superior skill and ability of our mechanics, machinists, and manufacturers, in some of the most prominent branches of American industry, particularly in the construction of steam vessels and engines, and machinery generally." He has, also, with great labor, and at a heavy expense, issued and transmitted throughout the West India Islands, Mexico, Central America, South America, Egypt, Turkey, Greece, Russia, the maritime countries and islands of Asia, Africa, Australasia, and Oceanica, about one hundred and fifty thousand large circulars, relating to such business, in different languages. This course has been the means of eliciting orders for many articles of American industry, including a large order from the Pasha of Egypt, and for several steamers that have been constructed here on foreign account.

In 1838, Mr. Palmer went to Europe on business connected with his agency, and in 1839 he made an extensive tour through France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Italy and Switzerland, under the immediate auspices of the Messrs. N. M. Rothschild & Sons, London, provided with their letters

of credit and introduction to the different branches of the house, and their correspondents in those kingdoms. During this tour, and an extensive correspondence thus created, and since continued, Mr. Palmer succeeded in acquiring much information respecting Asiatic affairs, and the productions, trade, commerce, &c., of many Eastern nations, much of which he has embodied in the letter addressed to the Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. As the letter of Mr. Palmer contains statements bearing upon the extension of our commerce with countries with which it is proposed to form treaties of Commerce and Navigation, we have concluded to embody the substance of the letter in a condensed form.

Comoro Islands. The principal islands are Comoro, Johanna, Mayotta and Mohilla, lying in the Mozambique Channel, of great fertility, inhabited by a friendly and hospitable race of Arabs, carrying on considerable traffic in vessels of 70 to 100 tons burden, with Madagascar, the East Coast of Africa, and Arabia; are much frequented by English and American vessels for trade, and by our whalers for refreshments. The principal products of those countries, procured in that traffic, are ebony, various dye-woods, orchilla weed, drugs and gums, indigo, coffee, dates, pepper, spices, tobacco, hides, horns, gold, amber, ambergris, cowries, ivory, elephant and hippopotamus teeth, tortoise shell, wax, ostrich feathers, &c.: in exchange for cotton and linen goods, woollen cloths, glass ware, ironmongery, lead, tin, small looking-glasses, beads, trinkets, gun-powder, muskets, pistols, &c.

Abyssinia. American manufactures have been for some time past introduced into Abyssinia by our trading vessels at Masuah, where the caravans arrive from the interior in February, and other ports on the Abyssinian coast of the Red Sea, and the ports of Tajourah, Zeila, and Berberah, of the Somaulie Arab tribes, on the Gulf of Aden.

The English have of late years turned their attention to the opening of commercial intercourse with Abyssinia. In 1841, a special embassy was sent for that purpose by the East India Company, to Ankóbar, about 370 miles from Tajourah, which succeeded in making a favorable commercial treaty with Sehalee Selasse, king of Shoa, one of the southern provinces. Among the exports of the country are gold, gold dust, ivory, civet, ostrich feathers, peltries, hides, rhinoceros horns, wax, precious gums, spices, drugs, and coffee of choicest quality; much of the best coffee shipped from Mocha, being the product of Abyssinia. The imports are chiefly salt, cotton goods, pewter, zinc, copper and brass wire, beads, small mirrors, trinkets, tobacco, snuff, &c. A late scientific English traveller in that country states, that the Gondar cotton, indigenous to the elevated regions of Ethiopia, is of a fine long silky staple, of a quality equal, if not superior, to the American sea-island.

The agent of the British government in all transactions with the Somaulie tribes, is Allee Shurmalkee, a native trader of Berberah, honest, intelligent, and faithful in his dealings, in which he has accumulated a large fortune, and is styled by foreign traders, "the Arab Rothschild."

Accurate information respecting the present state, productions, and commerce of Abyssinia, could readily be procured in the course of the mission proposed by Mr. Palmer, at Mocha, and official communications be addressed thence, accompanied with some suitable presents to the kings of Tigré and Shoa, requesting that our countrymen be permitted to trade in

their dominions upon the same footing with the English, or other most favored nations. The population of Abyssinia is estimated at 4,500,000.

Caravan Trade at Berberah. A great annual fair is held at Berberah, between September and March, where large caravans from the interior and unexplored regions of Africa, come to exchange their various and rich products for the manufactures and products both of eastern and western nations. American cotton goods are the principal articles given in exchange to the natives by the Indian Banyans of Bombay, Surat, and Cutch, who monopolize the trade at the fair. They are enabled to purchase those goods from American traders at Mocha, Masuah, and other ports on the Red Sea, cheaper than the English, which are almost entirely excluded from that market.*

Persia. The foreign trade of Bussorah and Bushire, on the Persian Gulf, is principally with British India, by which Persia is supplied with European manufactures, the products of China and the Indian Archipelago. Among the imports are cotton and woollen goods, lead, &c.; a considerable proportion of the cotton goods being of American manufacture. The exports are chiefly dates, dried fruits, pearls, precious stones, cashmere shawls, carpets, raw silk, gall-nuts, yellow dye berries, otto of roses, and various drugs. The population of Persia is estimated at 11,300,000.

Burmah. Rangoon, the principal Burmese port, is situated on the river Irawaddy, about 26 miles from its mouth, accessible to vessels of any burden. Its imports of British and American manufactures are considerable, including cotton goods, woollens, glass-ware, &c.; and among its exports, are gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, noble serpentine, catechu, stic-lac, elephants' teeth, orpiment, beeswax, teak-wood, &c. The principal foreign vessels that visit the port, are English, American and Chinese. It has also a very active and extensive commerce with British India, Nicobar Islands, the Persian and Arabian Gulfs. The climate is temperate, agreeable and salubrious. The population of the Burman Empire is estimated at about ten millions.

Cochin China. The late Emperor Ming Ming was a great despot and tyrant. He refused to give audience to our Envoy, E. Roberts, Esq., in 1833, and signalized the latter years of his reign by many acts of cruelty towards the native Christian converts, and expelled the Catholic missionaries from the country. He died in January, 1841, and was succeeded by his son Thieufri, the reigning Emperor, a more liberal and enlightened sovereign, who received his investiture from the Emperor of China, 12th April, 1842, under the title of Yuen Fusiuen. Mr. Palmer has late advices that he had received with great favor, the letter and presents sent to him last year, by the Governor-General of British India, and which appear to have wrought a favorable change in his bearing towards foreigners. This has been in part owing to the events of the Chinese war, and the increased intercourse between Cochin China and Singapore, where a number of Cochin Chinese youths, have been sent to be educated at the "Singapore Institution," for interpreters and navigators in his service. He has a number of large ships, built after European models, and several steamers, commanded and worked by native officers and engineers, for naval de-

* This statement is derived from the January number of the "United Service Journal," in which it is also stated that the American trade in cotton goods is rapidly superseding the English, in the ports of Muscat, Yemen, and the Arabian and Persian gulfs.

fence, and trade with China, British India, and the Indian Archipelago. The exports are chiefly sugar, raw silk, spices, cinnamon, dye-woods, ivory, pearls, hides, horns, gum-lac, gold dust, and the precious metals. Among the imports are coarse cottons, woollens, &c. The population of the empire is variously estimated from ten millions to fifteen millions.

Indian Archipelago. Borneo, Celebes, Papua, and the other independent islands of the Indian Archipelago, offer an immense field for the profitable extension of American trade and commerce in those seas, where Mr. Palmer recommends as one of the objects of the proposed mission to select some suitable island, or port, as a mart for American trade, and resort for American traders and whalers. The Arru Groupe, inhabited by independent native tribes, situated in the vicinity of Papua, and about 250 miles from the north coast of Australia, are represented to be in a tolerable state of cultivation, and from their favorable position and many local advantages, would seem to be peculiarly eligible for such purposes; and no difficulty is apprehended in obtaining the desired permission by amicable negotiation with the native chiefs.

The Arru Groupe is composed of the islands of Wokam, Warkey, Walada, Wammer, and Trana. The latter is the largest, and has two ports, Niagom and Terange. The valuable products of the east coast of Papua, Ceram, Goram, and Ceram Laut, and the islands east and northeast of Timor, are to be found there; consisting, among other articles, of pepper, cloves, mace and nutmegs, scented woods, ebony, ivory, horns, hides, tortoise shell, sharks' fins, edible birds' nests, gold dust, benzoin, camphor, betel, wax, cotton, wool, tripang, bird of paradise and argus-pheasant feathers, cowries, pearls, pearl shells, and the products of the whale-fishery, &c. Trading vessels from the British East India possessions, the Dutch from Java, Buji Prahus, from Celebes, and Chinese junks, together with a considerable number of American vessels, annually resort thither to procure such products in exchange for manufactures of the United States, Europe, and Continental India, chiefly for the China market. The trade is known to be highly profitable, and of increasing importance.

The English and Dutch are making unceasing efforts to control and monopolize the trade with the natives of all those islands. In Borneo, the Dutch have long had establishments at Banjarmasin, Pontiana, Sambas, and Coti; and the English, after breaking up the haunts of the pirates in those seas, have lately obtained from the Sultan of Borneo-Proprietary, the cession of the island of Labuan, one of the satellites of the northwest coast of Borneo, abounding in coal of an excellent quality, where they have established a trading mart and depot station, for a monthly line of steamers between India and China, touching at Singapore, commencing in January, 1845. The island is six miles long, four wide, twenty from the mouth of Borneo river, 707 from Singapore, and 1,009 from Hong Kong. The harbor is safe, anchorage good, and it is found to be one of the most secure ports of refuge on that coast, for vessels navigating the China seas. The Sultan has also granted permission to James Brooke, Esq., an enterprising English gentleman of fortune, confidential agent of the British government in Borneo, to form a trading settlement at Sarawak, on the same coast, extending from Tanjong Datu, to the entrance of the Samarahan river to the eastward; about sixty miles on the coast, and forty in the interior.

The principal products of the island of Borneo, are gold dust and gold, diamonds, tin, copper, antimony, coal, ebony, aloes-wood, and other woods

of the finest descriptions for ship-building and other purposes, canes, rattans, nutmegs, pepper, sago, beeswax, edible bird's nests, benzoin, camphor, and camphor oil, rice, &c. The annual amount of gold dust and gold, obtained principally by the Chinese, is estimated at about five million dollars.

Among the products of Celebes, are gold, coffee, estimated at about 80,000 piculs* annually, tortoise shell, mother-of-pearl, nutmegs, beeswax, &c. The Bujis of Waju, are the most numerous of the native tribes of the island; an active and enterprising maritime race, wholly devoted to commerce, who carry on a considerable traffic with the principal islands of the Indian Archipelago and Singapore. They have a written code of "Maritime Laws," and a court of "Admiralty Law," administered by native judges. The reigning Rajah of Waju is Laputongi, Prince of Laduka.

The English have completed their survey of Torres Straits, and marked out with buoys the channel, which they found sufficiently deep, and perfectly safe for the largest ships; and have also erected beacons for the direction of vessels sailing through it, with the view of opening steam communication between Sydney and Singapore by that route, where severe gales of wind are not prevalent at any season. The steamers are to touch at Port Essington, a British settlement, made a few years since, on the Cobourg Peninsula, northern coast of Australia, as a commercial emporium for the trade of the Indian Archipelago, and their Australasian colonies. It is about 2,160 miles from Sydney, by the east coast. The harbor is large, perfectly safe, accessible at all seasons, and one of the finest in all the east. Depots for the steamers are to be made at Serawatty Islands, at Macassar, on the island of Celebes, and at the island of Billiton—the distance from Port Essington to Singapore being about 1,890 miles. The population of the whole Archipelago is estimated at upwards of twenty-five millions.

Japan. With regard to Japan, Mr. Palmer procured from official sources in Holland, personally, in 1839—from the journals and reports of the latest Dutch residents at Nangasaki, and missions to Jeddo, and from other reliable accounts and narratives—a variety of interesting facts and particulars attesting the superior intelligence, refinement and civilization of that remarkable people, above all the surrounding Asiatic nations.

Japan is a feudal empire, the Mikado, residing at his Dairi, or Imperial residence, Miako, being the nominal Proprietor as well as Sovereign and Pontiff thereof; the Ziagoon, his Deputy, Vicegerent, or Premier, holding his court at his vice-regal residence, Jeddo. The more official routine of duties and ceremony, the rigid observance of prescribed etiquette, the receiving of homage or compliments and presents from those permitted and bound to offer both, on frequently recurring festival days, so entirely engross the time of the Ziagoon, as not to leave him leisure, if he were disposed, to attend to the business of the government, which is considered as wholly unworthy of engaging his thoughts. The real executive power is exercised by a Grand Council of State, composed of five princes of the Imperial blood, and eight princes of the highest rank; the President of the Council is styled the Governor of the Empire, and exercises the functions of Minister of the Home Department, Commerce and Foreign Affairs.

* A picul is 133½ pounds.

The present Ziogoon Teenpaou is represented to be an able, energetic, and enlightened prince. The government take great interest in the progress of science and political movements in western nations, and maintain a board of competent linguists at Nangasaki, thoroughly versed in the principal European languages, to translate and publish, in their own Japanese Encyclopedias and periodicals, all the latest discoveries in science, and improvements in the arts, together with notices of important political events, which they derive from the Dutch journals, and through the Dutch residents at that port, for the information of their people. Among their translations of the most celebrated European writers on science, are several of the works of La Place.

The language is polysyllabic, with an alphabet of forty-eight letters, soft, euphonious, and the most polished and perfect of any of the languages of Eastern Asia, and has no affinity with the Chinese, or any other Asiatic dialect, except the Corean. Their syllabary dates from the eighth century, and may be written in four different sets of characters. These are the *katakana*, appropriated for the use of men, the *hirakana*, for the use of women, the *manyokana*, and the *yematokana*, the difference between which is not explained. It is written in columns from the top to the bottom, like the Chinese, and begins from the right side. The ideographic characters of the Chinese language are, however, used by them in a certain class of their standard works, which they originally derived from the Chinese; hence a previous knowledge of that language is considered indispensable to a proficiency in Japanese literature. One of their Encyclopedias consists of *six hundred and thirty* volumes; they possess, besides, numerous works on history, Japanese and foreign, geography, voyages and travels, sciences and arts, poetry, and polite literature; and the president of the "Imperial Academy," at Jeddo, is reputed to be well versed in the higher branches of mathematics and astronomy. The Imperial library at that capital contains upwards of 150,000 volumes.

Dr. Von Siebold, the latest authority, states that at the Imperial residence, Miako, literature is most diligently and enthusiastically cultivated; the poets, historians, and philosophic moralists most universally admired by their countrymen, are to be found amongst the male and female members of the Daïri, of whose lives literature is both the business and the pleasure.

The Dutch have always found their trade with Japan to be very profitable, and in order to secure the exclusive monopoly thereof to their factory at the island of Dezima, in the harbor of Nangasaki, it has been their uniform policy to oppose and frustrate all attempts of other nations to open intercourse with that country. The people evince an increasing desire for more enlarged intercourse with foreigners, and the government has gradually relaxed its arbitrary and rigid restrictions on their trade and intercourse with the Dutch and Chinese, since the opium war with China, and the opening of the privileged ports of the latter, by treaty stipulations with Great Britain, France, and the United States. It is a well-authenticated fact that the supreme government, a few years since, consulted the chief of the Dutch factory upon the possibility of sending young Japanese to Holland, to be instructed in ship-building.

The Southern Islands teem with most of the productions of the tropics, whilst the Northern yield those of the temperate zones. The mountains

abound in mineral wealth of every description, and the volcanic regions in sulphur.

In agriculture, they are very diligent and successful. The whole country is highly cultivated, producing rice, esteemed the best in Asia, wheat, barley, beans of all sorts, culinary vegetables, a great variety of fruits, and flowers of the most brilliant hues and exquisite fragrance. The mulberry is reared solely for the silk-worm. The principal object of cultivation next to rice, is the tea plant; tea being the universal beverage of all classes, as in China. Their gardeners possess the skill of dwarfing and gigantifying trees and shrubs. The rivers, lakes and seas abound in a great variety of fish, which is the principal food of the inhabitants.

The internal trade is very considerable; by land, merchandise is conveyed on pack-horses and pack-oxen, over good roads, by which all the large islands are intersected; but the principal transportation is by water, in coasting vessels from 50 to 200 tons burden. The Prince of Satsuma, Island of Kiusiu, has a number of vessels, some of them of 100 to 200 tons burden, trading to different ports of the empire and its dependencies. At Sinagawa, the port of Jeddo, a thousand vessels are sometimes collected, some bearing taxes from different parts of the empire, others laden with produce, merchandise or fish. The great mart for foreign goods brought by the Dutch ships and Chinese junks to Nangasaki is Ohosaka, a large and populous city at the mouth of the river Yedogawa, Island of Niphon, distinguished for the great wealth, mercantile enterprise, and manufacturing industry of its citizens.

Notwithstanding the rigid prohibitions of their laws, Japanese vessels occasionally carry on trade with foreigners, covertly, at Quelpaert's Island, the Majicosina Groupe, the Philippines, and the Loo-Choo and Bonin Islands. The latter are about 500 miles from the coast of Japan, possess safe harbors, and have been recently brought into a good state of cultivation, by a small colony of English, Americans, and persons of other nations, who have made settlements there, for the purpose of trading with the Japanese, and furnishing refreshments and supplies to whalers, &c.

Among the products of Japan, may be enumerated diamonds, topaz, rock crystal, gold and silver, copper, of which it has many productive mines, iron, tin, lead, tutenag, sulphur, coal, saltpetre, salt, camphor, pearls, corals, ambergris, rice, tea, wrought silk, lacquered ware, and earthenware. Their imports comprise cotton goods, linens, woollens, raw and wrought silk, glassware, hardware, quicksilver, antimony, zinc, cinnabar, amber, hides and leathers, sandal and sapan wood, dye-woods, Malay camphor, ivory, alum, cloves, mace, pepper, sugar, coffee, seal-skins, whale-oil, &c. The exports are chiefly of copper, camphor, lacquered ware, &c. American cotton goods, carried to that market by the Chinese traders, have yielded a good profit, and are increasing in demand. The population of the whole empire, according to the latest and best authorities, is estimated at about fifty millions, exclusive of its dependencies, the islands of Matsmai, Sighalien, Kuriles, Loo-Choo, &c., and the annual revenues at about \$125,000,000.

In addition to the privileges of commercial intercourse with Nangasaki, the only port at which the Dutch and Chinese are permitted to trade with that country, it would be very desirable for our government to obtain permission for the numerous American whale ships employed in the lucrative sperm fishery, off the coasts of Japan, to enter any of the ports and har-

bors of the Japanese Archipelago, for repairs or refreshments only, and for hospitality and succor, in case of shipwreck.

The American whale ship *Manhattan* visited the port of Jeddo last year, for the purpose of returning to their country twenty-two Japanese sailors, rescued from a wreck, on a desolate island. They were very kindly and hospitably received, and the ship liberally supplied with refreshments, provisions and spars, in the name of the supreme government, free of charge. When ready to leave, it being calm, she was towed to sea by Japanese boats, and the captain told not to return again, as foreign vessels were not permitted to enter that port.

According to the latest and best authorities, the aggregate population of the countries above named, exclusive of the Comoro Islands and Madagascar, is 110,800,000.

In January, 1845, Mr. Palmer addressed a letter to the President of the United States, containing several of the details presented in the present paper; suggesting, at the same time, the expediency of sending a Commissioner with Plenipotentiary powers, similar to the missions of the late E. Roberts, Esq., to Siam and Muscat, and of the Hon. Caleb Cushing, to China, to open intercourse and make commercial treaties with those countries: "The mission to consist of a Commissioner or Envoy, with a Chief Secretary of Legation, to be fully empowered to act as Envoy, in the event of the death or other impediment of the Commissioner—a limited number of attachés, as linguists, draftsmen, &c.—a physician, who ought to be a skilful naturalist and botanist, with a suitable collection of American seeds, &c., for distribution and exchange, and to make collections of minerals, seeds and plants, of the countries to be visited; to be provided with appropriate presents, and specimens of our American products, manufactures and industry, to be selected for the mission, and adapted to the wants or trade of those respective nations; to proceed successively to Johanna, Teheran, from Bushire, Rangoon and Ameerapoorah, Hué, the ports of independent Borneo, Celebes, and the other principal islands of the Indian Archipelago, and Nangasaki and Jeddo; to touch, in the course of the mission, at Zanzibar, Mocha, Muscat, the pepper ports of Sumatra, Batavia, Singapore, Bankok, Manilla, the privileged ports of China, the Loo-Choo and Bonin Islands; and generally to protect American interests in those remote seas and countries, and open new markets for the trade of our enterprising merchants and navigators; to return by the way of Oregon, California, &c. The Commissioner to use due diligence and despatch, and conduct the respective negotiations with as little parade and ostentation as may be required for the successful accomplishment thereof."

A secret treaty of commerce, it is stated in late accounts from Batavia, has been concluded, last year, between England and Siam, by which great and exclusive privileges have been secured to the former, with the right of introducing into Siam a number of articles not heretofore permitted to any European nation; and a British Consul has been appointed to reside at Bankok. The foreign goods for which there is the greatest demand there, are cottons and silks, glass and glassware, fire-arms, perfumery, and trinkets.

The "Royal Economical Society of the Philippine Islands," was established at Manilla, 27th August, 1780, by Royal Charter, for the promotion of science, arts, agriculture and commerce in those islands. It is liberally endowed by the government, of which it is, in fact, the official organ in all

matters pertaining to the objects of its institution ; the Captain-General, Intendant-General, Archbishop, and other high functionaries, together with a few of the principal merchants and planters, being the officers and members thereof. The islands, which form an extensive archipelago, are of great fertility, producing sugar, tobacco, hemp, cotton, indigo, coffee, rice, and most of the productions of the tropics, in great abundance. Manilla, the principal port, has an extensive and increasing commerce with China, British India, Australia, Europe, and the United States. In 1843, Mr. Palmer sent out to the society, by its order, a considerable quantity of the best American cotton-seed, the culture of which they are desirous of introducing into those islands, chiefly for the China market ; he also sent several parcels of Havana, Varinas, and American tobacco-seeds, of the best qualities.

The Philippines, including their dependencies, the Marian Islands, are divided into thirty-two Provinces, under the local administration of Governors, or Deputy-Governors. Most of the native Tagalos and Horaforos, have been converted to the Catholic faith. Manilla is the metropolitan See of an Archbishop, and there are three Suffragan Bishops in the Provinces. One of the number, Bishop of New Segovia, Island of Luzon, wrote to Mr. Palmer in 1837, "that his diocese consisted of upwards of six hundred thousand Christian souls."

The government has contracted for three armed steamers for naval defence, to be completed in 1847 ; and a company of merchants of Manilla are in treaty to procure two steamers, to accelerate communications between that port and the Provinces.

The colony is in a very flourishing condition, and yields a large annual surplus to the mother country. Its seas had long been subject to the piratical depredations of the natives of the Sooloo Groupe, and the Illanuns of Majindano, until last year, when they were effectually suppressed, and possession taken of those islands, by a naval armament sent against them by the present energetic Captain-General. The entire population is about 4,200,000.

Mons. Isidore Hedde, an attachée of the late French mission to China, who was sent out to make researches in the silk department regarding mulberries, silk-worms, and the manufacture of silks, has attentively observed the mode of cultivation, seeding, planting and grafting those interesting trees ; and last autumn examined at the different establishments the ingenious apparatus for avoiding double cocoons ; the simple process for reeling the peculiar fine white silk, and the well-known seven cocoon thread ; and the several processes of dyeing silk, and weaving, painting, embroidery and sewing of the singularly woven figured silk, exhibiting figures of men, flowers, gardens, &c., peculiar to Suchau, the Lyons of Eastern China. Mons. Hedde has also made a collection of silk-worm-seeds, mulberry-trees, and the *ma* plant, from which the fine grass-cloth is made, together with drawings and pictures, apparatus and looms. He intends to publish an account of his interesting excursion, and give translations of the different Chinese works on mulberry-trees, the rearing of silk-worms, and weaving of silk, on his return to France.

The suggestions of Mr. Palmer are of great importance to the interests of American commerce, and deserve the consideration of the government of the United States. Aside from the commercial value of new openings for the enterprise of our people, the moral and social advantages to be de-

rived from free intercourse with these countries, can scarcely be too highly estimated. Let our government, then, by a liberal policy, diffuse abroad its products and the blessings of its free institutions, and reap a golden harvest, in the returns of a lucrative trade, and in the consciousness of having done something for the advancement of the race.

Art. III.—THE NAVAL FORCE AND COMMERCE OF THE WORLD.

THE comparative naval force and commerce of the principal nations of the earth, is a subject of especial interest, as well as value, in estimating the actual position of those nations with respect to their most prominent interests. Constituting, as it does, a topic which exercises a direct bearing upon national prosperity, whether it is regarded as a branch of enterprise, or a means of defence, we propose to consider it in a very brief form, using those materials which are furnished by recent public documents. The principal of these is a report of the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Bancroft, communicated to the Senate during the month of March last, with accompanying documents, in answer to a resolution which had been passed by that body, calling for such information.

We shall first describe the forces of the respective countries, in the order involving the strength of their naval armaments, and then proceed to the consideration of their proportionate commerce in the same order. Pursuing this plan, we of course commence with that of Great Britain. In the strength of her navy, as well as in the amount of her commerce, the British empire stands at the head of the list of nations. With a commerce encircling the globe, and with colonies planted in almost every clime, requiring, perhaps, in the present state of society, a strong navy for their defence, that nation has, in commission, building, and in ordinary, six hundred and thirty-six vessels, mounting, when armed, seventeen thousand six hundred and eighty-one guns, and employing a force of forty thousand men. There are likewise seventy-two revenue vessels, commanded by officers of the royal navy, belonging to that government, thirty-six vessels belonging to the Indian navy, and one hundred and ninety-nine vessels constituting the effective steam navy of the empire. Besides these, are nine East India mail steamers, employing the total number of nine hundred and twenty-two, officers and men. The entire number of vessels in the French naval establishment is three hundred and forty-six; the total number of guns, when all are armed, being eight thousand nine hundred and twenty-eight; and the total number of persons employed in 1845, was twenty-seven thousand five hundred and fifty-four. It has been recently proposed by the French minister of marine, to increase this force to the amount of two hundred and seventy vessels, of which two hundred are to be kept ready for sea, and seventy on the stocks, and of that number one hundred are to compose the steam navy alone.

Next in force is the navy of the Russian empire. The Emperor Nicholas, it appears, has recently directed his particular attention to that subject, having, in about fifteen years, remodelled and created two large fleets, one of which is in the Baltic, and the other in the Black sea. The fleet of Constadt now consists of thirty sail of the line, besides those laid up, twenty frigates, about forty sloops, brigs and gun-boats, and several very powerful armed steamers. Russia has also a large force in the Black sea,

and the Baltic fleet has a complement of thirty-five thousand men, and costs the government more than twenty-eight millions of silver rubles. This nation has, moreover, a large force in the Caspian sea. The total naval force of Russia is comprised of one hundred and seventy-nine vessels, mounting five thousand eight hundred and ninety-six guns, and it employs an entire force of fifty-nine thousand men, exclusive of the naval force upon the Caspian sea. The naval force of Turkey, during the year 1844, comprised sixty-six vessels, mounting two thousand six hundred and sixty guns, and employing twenty-six thousand eight hundred and twenty men.

The navy of our own Union is a subject which perhaps calls for a more particular description than that which we have devoted to the other powers. To its patriotic spirit we are indebted for much of the reputation of the country in war, for its devotion to the public service, and for its tried courage in frequent engagements upon the ocean and the lakes. Its origin may be traced to the period when the command of the army had devolved upon Washington, and to that important juncture of the war of the revolution, in which supplies were transported from England, Nova Scotia, and the West Indies, as well as other places, for the British troops in Boston, who, from their insulated position, were dependent upon transportation by sea for their materials of war as well as for their provisions. During the year 1775, and on the 1st of March, he ordered two schooners to be equipped in Beverly, in the state of Massachusetts, for that object, and other vessels were soon fitted out. The small naval force thus created by Washington was soon organized into a squadron of four schooners. On the 10th of October, 1775, a committee was appointed by the Continental Congress, to equip two swift sailing vessels of ten and fourteen guns, and during the same month two more vessels were ordered to be fitted out for the defence of the American colonies. Thirteen vessels were subsequently directed to be built; and after the independence of the country had been acknowledged, and especially since the constitution has been established, the increase of the navy has been encouraged, not only by the construction of vessels on the part of the government, but by reserving a portion of the timber upon the public lands for the purpose of supplying the materials for naval ships. The naval establishment of the United States is now composed of the following force:—

Classes of Ships.	In Commission.		Building.		In Ordinary.	
	No.	Guns.	No.	Guns.	No.	Guns.
Ships of the line,.....	4	374	5	420	2	164
Frigates and razees,.....	7	374	3	150	5	260
Sloops of war,.....	15	314	2	40	6	120
Brigs of war,.....	6	60	2	20
Steamers of war,.....	3	23	1	4	3	12
Schooners,.....	1	10				
Small unarmed vessels, and store ships,	11	1	...
Aggregate,.....	47	1,155	11	614	19	576

The total number of the vessels of the government, of all classes, is seventy-seven, mounting, when armed, two thousand three hundred and forty-five guns, and employing a force of eight thousand seven hundred and twenty-four men. Although this branch of the public service has not increased in the same proportion as the naval forces of other countries, yet it has gradually advanced with the growing commerce of the Union, although it

now sustains a greater disproportion to the actual amount of this commerce than that of any other nation.*

In order to exhibit the present state of the American navy, we subjoin the following table, for which we are indebted to the Navy Register for 1846, showing the various classes of vessels in the service, as well as their present condition, etc.

VESSELS OF WAR OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY.				
Name.	Rate.	Where built.	When built.	Situation.
<i>Ships of the Line.</i>				
Pennsylvania,.....	120	Philadelphia,.....	1837,	In commission.
Franklin,.....	74	do.	1815,	In ordinary.
Columbus,.....	74	Washington,.....	1819,	In commission.
Ohio,.....	74	New York,.....	1820,	do.
North Carolina,.....	74	Philadelphia,.....	1820,	do.
Delaware,.....	74	Gosport, Va.,.....	1820,	In ordinary.
Alabama,.....	74	On the stocks.
Vermont,.....	74	do.
Virginia,.....	74	do.
New York,.....	74	do.
New Orleans,.....	74	do.
Independence (razee),..	54	Boston,.....	1814,	In ordinary.
<i>Frigates, 1st class.</i>				
United States,.....	44	Philadelphia,.....	1797,	Preparing for sea.
Constitution,.....	44	Boston,.....	1797,	In commission.
Potomac,.....	44	Washington,.....	1821,	do.
Brandywine,.....	44	do.	1825,	In ordinary.
Columbia,.....	44	do.	1836,	In commission.
Congress,.....*	44	Portsmouth, N. H.,..	1841,	do.
Cumberland,.....	44	Boston,.....	1842,	do.
Savannah,.....	44	New York,.....	1842,	do.
Raritan,.....	44	Philadelphia,.....	1843,	do.
Santee,.....	44	On the stocks.
Sabine,.....	44	do.
St. Lawrence,.....	44	do.
<i>Frigates, 2d class.</i>				
Constellation,.....	36	Baltimore,.....	1797,	In ordinary.
Macedonian,.....	36	Capt'd 1812, rebuilt,	1836,	do.
<i>Sloops of War.</i>				
Saratoga,.....	20	Portsmouth, N. H.,..	1842,	In commission.
John Adams,.....	20	Charleston, '99, reb't	1820,	do.
Boston,.....	20	Boston,.....	1825,	In ordinary.
Vincennes,.....	20	New York,.....	1826,	In commission.
Warren,.....	20	Boston,.....	1826,	do.
Falmouth,.....	20	do.	1827,	do.
Fairfield,.....	20	New York,.....	1828,	In ordinary.
Vandalia,.....	20	Philadelphia,.....	1828,	do.
St. Louis,.....	20	Washington,.....	1828,	do.
Cyane,.....	20	Boston,.....	1837,	In commission.
Levant,.....	20	New York,.....	1837,	do.
Portsmouth,.....	20	Portsmouth, N. H.,..	1843,	do.
Plymouth,.....	20	Boston,.....	1843,	do.
St. Mary's,.....	20	Washington,.....	1844,	do.
Jamestown,.....	20	Norfolk,.....	1844,	do.
Albany,†.....	20	Preparing for sea.
Germantown,.....	20	On the stocks.
Ontario,.....	18	Baltimore,.....	1813,	In commission.

* For many of the facts upon the subject of the navy and commercial strength of the various maritime powers, we are indebted not only to the documents accompanying Mr. Bancroft's report, but also to the United States Nautical Magazine.

† Launched at Brooklyn, June 27th, 1846.

VESSELS OF WAR OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY—CONTINUED.

Name.	Rate.	Where built.	When built.	Situation.
Decatur,.....	16	New York,.....	1839,	In ordinary.
Preble,.....	16	Portsmouth, N. H....	1839,	do.
Yorktown,.....	16	Norfolk,.....	1839,	In commission.
Marion,.....	16	Boston,.....	1839,	do.
Dale,.....	46	Philadelphia,.....	1839,	In ordinary.
<i>Brigs.</i>				
Boxer,.....	10	Boston,.....	1831,	In commission.
Dolphin,.....	10	New York,.....	1836,	do.
Porpoise,.....	10	Boston,.....	1836,	do.
Somers,.....	10	New York,.....	1842,	do.
Truxtun,.....	10	Norfolk,.....	1842,	do.
Bainbridge,.....	10	Boston,.....	1842,	do.
Perry,.....	10	Norfolk,.....	1843,	In ordinary.
Lawrence,.....	10	Baltimore,.....	1843,	In commission.
<i>Schooners.</i>				
Shark,.....	10	Washington,.....	1821,	do.
Experiment,.....	..	Washington,.....	1831,	do.
Flirt,.....	..	Tr'd from War Dep.	In ordinary.
Wave,.....	..	do.	In commission.
Phenix,.....	..	do.	do.
On-ka-hy-e,.....	..	Purchased,.....	In ordinary.
<i>Steamers.</i>				
Mississippi,.....	*10	Philadelphia,.....	1841,	In commission.
Fulton,.....	4	New York,.....	1837,	In ordinary.
Union,.....	4	Norfolk,.....	1842,	do.
Princeton,.....	9	Philadelphia,.....	1843,	In commission.
Michigan,.....	1	Erie, Pa.....	1844,	do.
Alleghany,.....	On the stocks.
General Taylor,.....	..	Tr'd from War Dep.	Tender.
Water Witch,.....	..	Washington,.....	1845,	do.
Engineer,.....	..	Purchased,.....	do.
<i>Store Ships and Brigs.</i>				
Relief,.....	6	Philadelphia,.....	1836,	In commission.
Erie,.....	8	Baltimore,.....	1813,	do.
Lexington,.....	8	New York,.....	1825,	In ordinary.
Southampton,.....	6	Norfolk,.....	1845,	In commission.

Egypt, although we are accustomed to regard it as a country sunk in barbarism,† possesses a navy consisting of thirty-eight vessels of war, when in commission, mounting one thousand seven hundred and sixty guns. The number of government vessels, besides sloops and brigs of war, are twenty, mounting, when armed, one thousand four hundred and sixty guns. The naval force of Holland, at the present time, consists of forty-eight ships in commission, mounting three hundred and two guns, the total number of government vessels, besides sloops and brigs of war, being one hundred and thirty-four, mounting, when armed, one thousand six hundred and forty-six guns. Sweden has a naval force consisting of three hundred and thirty gun-boats, carrying six hundred and sixty guns, and the number of its government vessels, besides sloops and brigs of war, is three hundred and eighty, mounting one thousand eight hundred and fifty-six guns. Denmark possesses one hundred and eight government vessels of all classes, carrying, when armed, the total number of one thousand and seventy-six guns. Austria has a naval force consisting of four ships of the line, nine frigates, and sixty-one smaller vessels, com-

* Paixhan guns.

† We do not think that a navy is any very decisive indication of a high state of true Christian civilization.—ED. MER. MAG.

prising a total of seventy-four government vessels, with two or three war steamers, while Brazil has forty-two vessels belonging to the government, carrying seven hundred and seventy-five guns.

The naval establishment of Sardinia possesses a force consisting of fifteen vessels of war, armed with four hundred and forty-six guns; the number of government vessels, besides sloops and brigs of war, being eight, mounting, when armed, three hundred and thirty-six guns. The two Sicilies possess a naval force consisting of two ships of the line, five frigates, and ten smaller vessels; comprising a total number of seventeen government vessels, and two or three war steamers. The kingdom of Spain owns a naval force of twenty-one vessels, carrying three hundred and forty-eight guns; and Portugal, fifty-nine vessels of war—the number of guns not being ascertained, but the naval peace establishment amounts to about four thousand five hundred men. Mexico possessed a naval force, recently in commission, which consisted of three brigs and two steamers, as well as eighteen smaller vessels, the whole mounting forty-two guns. We have exhibited a condensed view of the respective naval forces of the principal maritime powers of the world, and we now proceed to a consideration of the comparative commerce of those nations.

Great Britain exceeds every other nation, not only in the amount of its naval force, but also in its commerce. During the year 1843, there were twenty-three thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight merchant vessels belonging to that empire, and during the following year it was ascertained that it possessed nine hundred steam vessels, with a tonnage of one hundred and thirteen thousand six hundred and seventy-seven tons. At the present time she has twenty-four thousand and sixteen vessels, with a tonnage of three millions forty-four thousand three hundred and ninety-two tons, employing one hundred and seventy-five thousand six hundred and ninety-one men. The United States, which stands next in the amount of its commerce, possesses nineteen thousand seven hundred and twenty vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of two millions four hundred and sixteen thousand nine hundred and ninety-nine tons, those employing one hundred and eighteen thousand seamen. We have seven hundred and forty-five vessels in the whale fishery, a tonnage of three hundred and sixteen thousand and nineteen tons employed in steam navigation, the total number of vessels upon the lakes being seventy—fifty-six of which are steamboats.

The commerce of France employs thirteen thousand seven hundred and eighty-two vessels; Sweden, five thousand four hundred and fifty, with a tonnage of four hundred and seventy-one thousand seven hundred and seventy-two tons; Holland, one thousand one hundred and ninety-five; Russia employs about two hundred and thirty-nine thousand tons in the foreign and coasting trade; the two Sicilies have nine thousand one hundred and seventy-four; and Austria, perhaps, six thousand one hundred and ninety-nine vessels of all descriptions. Turkey has two thousand two hundred and twenty vessels, which are employed in the foreign and coasting trade, embracing a tonnage of about one hundred and eighty-two thousand tons. The kingdom of Sardinia, including Genoa and the island of Sardinia, possesses, moreover, three thousand five hundred and two vessels, which are employed in the foreign and coasting trade, embracing an aggregate tonnage of one hundred and sixty-seven thousand three hundred and sixty tons. Denmark possesses in the foreign and coasting trade, three thousand and thirty-six vessels, comprising a tonnage of one hun-

dred and fifty-three thousand four hundred and eight. Portugal has seven hundred and ninety-eight vessels, and a tonnage of eighty thousand five hundred and twenty-five; and finally, Spain possesses two thousand seven hundred vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of eighty thousand, including vessels of every description which are employed in the foreign and coasting trade.

Having given this condensed view of the comparative naval forces and commerce of the principal maritime powers of the world, we subjoin the following statistical tables, exhibiting the relative naval power of each nation, and the amount of commerce belonging to each, in the order of their naval and commercial strength, from which we may learn the proportion which the naval force of each government bears to the actual amount of commerce which it possesses.

RELATIVE NAVAL POWER OF EACH NATION.

Countries.	In commission.		Build'g, ordin'y, &c.		Total.		No. of War	
	Vessels.	Guns.	Vessels.	Guns.	Vessels.	Guns.	Men.	Steam's.
Great Britain,....	332	4,583	304	13,098	636	17,681	40,000	141
France,.....	215	4,293	131	4,635	346	8,928	27,554	68
Russia,.....	179	5,896	179	5,896	59,000	32
Turkey,.....	62	2,636	4	24	66	2,660	26,820	9
United States,....	47	1,155	30	1,190	77	2,345	8,724	5
Egypt,.....	35	1,448	3	312	38	1,760	1
Holland,.....	48	302	86	1,344	134	1,646	4
Sweden,.....	330	669	50	1,196	380	1,856	2
Denmark,.....	96	344	12	732	108	1,076
Austria,.....	74	686	74	686
Brazil,.....	31	450	11	325	42	775	8
Sardinia,.....	11	226	4	220	15	446	2
Spain,.....	21	348	21	348	4
Two Sicilies,....	17	338	17	338
Portugal,.....	59
Mexico,.....	23	42	23	42

NATIONS, IN THE ORDER OF THEIR COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE, WITH THE NUMBER OF GUNS TO EACH ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND TONS OF COMMERCE.

Nations in the order of their commercial importance.	No. of vessels in commerce and fisheries.	Tonnage.	No. of guns to each 100 000 tons.
United Kingdom of Great Britain,.	23,898	3,007,581	588
United States,.....	19,666	2,416,999	97
France,.....	13,782	839,608	1,063
Sweden and Norway,.....	5,450	471,772	224
Holland,.....	1,528	241,676	683
Russia,.....	Not known.	239,000	2,466
Two Sicilies,.....	9,174	213,198	158
Austria,.....	6,199	208,551	321
Turkey,.....	2,220	182,000	1,461
Sardinia,.....	3,502	167,360	265
Denmark,.....	3,036	153,408	709
Portugal,.....	798	80,525	..
Spain,.....	2,700	80,000	..

By the tables which we have here given, it is perceived that the naval force of the United States is smaller than that of any other nation, compared with the actual amount of our own commerce. Besides the vessels employed in this service, we have thirteen sailing and eight steam vessels in the revenue department, embracing a tonnage of four thousand five hundred and fifty-three tons, mounting sixty-six guns, and manned by seven hundred and sixty-nine officers and men. This force is, we suppose, liable, in an extraordinary emergency, to be called into the naval service of the government.

The navy is generally considered an important arm of the public defence, and recommendations have been offered from time to time, regarding the increase as well as the reduction of this branch of the public service, the merits of which we do not propose to discuss. We hope, however, that the moral sense of the more civilized nations of modern times, will be disposed to adjust their differences by the sober judgment of reason, as disputes between individuals are quieted before judicial tribunals, rather than through the trial by battle, the relic of a barbarous age.

Art. IV.—QUARANTINE LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

THE propriety of quarantine regulations is both acknowledged and denied by a large number of medical men, and men of large commercial experience. The public press, also, enters into the controversy, and contradictory sentiments and opinions are entertained and expressed by men who seem equally well-informed upon the subject, and who can, or ought to have, no personal or private interests to advocate, except those which operate for the general good. For years, the subject has been agitated in this State, and the result is the present quarantine law, one of the acts of the last Legislature of New York.*

All quarantine laws or regulations ought to accord with the progress of medical science, with the knowledge derived from commercial experience; or they ought to be as little burdensome to commerce as a proper regard for the health of the community will admit of. All will agree to the soundness of these general principles, and that all restrictions upon commerce, in the nature of quarantine, that are not necessary to the safety of the public health, ought to be abolished.

The House of Assembly of 1845, appointed a committee of three to examine the then existing quarantine laws applicable to the port of New York, and to report the result of such examination, as well as to suggest such alterations in the laws as they should deem expedient, at the next session of the Legislature. This committee met in the city of New York, last summer, examined the quarantine grounds, visited the vessels at quarantine, and also the wharves, docks, shipping, and their cargoes, in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. They addressed notes to merchants, physicians, and others, who were supposed to possess valuable information on the subject of their appointment, and solicited replies from them. They personally examined many practical merchants, with a view to learn such facts, a knowledge of which has been the result of long experience.

The result of their labors was a voluminous report, which, with the accompanying documents, consisting chiefly of replies from physicians and others whom they interrogated, occupies some three hundred octavo pages. They also framed an act, which they recommended in the place of the then existing quarantine laws; and which act, with some little alteration, affecting no important principle, has now become the law of the State.

The new law is in some respects more restrictive, and in others less so, than the law it abrogated. All vessels having had on board, during the voyage, a case of small-pox, or infectious or contagious disease, are sub-

* A correct copy of this law will be found under the head of "Commercial Regulations," in the present number of the Merchants' Magazine.—Ed.

ject to such quarantine as the health-officer may prescribe. This regulation is to be enforced at all seasons of the year, and constitutes a new feature in the quarantine laws applicable to this port. No one having the least regard for the public health will object to this restriction. Hundreds of our citizens are annually attacked with this terrible and loathsome disease. It is admitted that the small-pox originates principally from foreign sources. A single ship having the small-pox on board, may be the means of spreading the disease throughout the city, State, and a great portion of the Union. Those emigrants who arrive at New York, and proceed directly to the interior, along the line of our canals and railroads, would, had they been exposed to the contagion which produces small-pox, be the cause of spreading the disease through densely populated sections of the country. Therefore, we consider this part of the new quarantine law to be founded upon the wisest principles of humanity; and whatever burden it may impose upon commerce, is necessary to the safety of the public health.

A statement of Dr. Richard Fraser, who was a passenger in the ship *Hottinguer*, from Liverpool, in May, 1845, has recently been under consideration of the Committee on Commerce in the House of Representatives. It appears from this statement, that the *Hottinguer* sailed from Liverpool with three hundred and ninety-seven steerage passengers, a crew of twenty-two sailors, four officers of the ship, and six cabin passengers. A large proportion of the passengers were children, and only a small proportion, of both children and adults, had ever been vaccinated. On the eighth day after departure, two children were attacked with small-pox, which soon developed itself in a virulent form, and both cases terminated fatally. The infection had been, of course, imbibed previous to their coming on board. Great dismay prevailed throughout the ship, for fear that the voyage would be a long one, and that many would fall victims to the disease before their arrival into port. Every precaution was adopted, with a view to the safety of the passengers. The dead bodies, beds, bed-clothes, and linen, were thrown overboard, the instant life had ceased, and their berths were purified with burnt tar. Yet, after all these precautions, and even after the arrival of the vessel, some eighteen or twenty days after the deaths mentioned, several were attacked with the disease. Dr. Fraser then says, "Were this a solitary case, less importance would attach to it; but I have made the subject a matter of inquiry, and find that it is of constant and daily recurrence, in all the emigrant vessels on the Atlantic."

We do not know what action, if any, the Committee of Commerce have taken upon the subject. But so far as the port of New York is concerned, the existing quarantine law of this State will do much to remedy the evil. Could we be equally positive respecting the propriety of quarantine laws, with a view to prevent the introduction of yellow and other malignant fevers, as we are in relation to the small-pox, few would be found to deny their necessity. The contagiousness of small-pox is beyond dispute; not so with yellow fever. Intelligent men cannot, therefore, oppose all quarantine laws, and will only be found to disagree respecting the *extent* of the restrictions it may be necessary to impose upon commerce, in order to guard properly the public health. It is the duty of the public authorities to dissipate, as far as practicable, all local causes of disease, and to prevent, as far as practicable, their introduction from abroad.

The periodical visitation of yellow fever in this city, was the cause which led to the enactment of former quarantine laws in this State. No w,

if yellow fever, or the morbid malarious matter that causes it, cannot be imported, there can be no necessity for quarantine laws to prevent its introduction from abroad. So far as the object of quarantine laws is to prevent the introduction of malignant fevers, and particularly the yellow fever, they must be utterly useless, if these fevers, or the causes that engender them, cannot be imported. The important question then is, "Can yellow fever be imported by sea into this port?"

This was one of the interrogatories put to several medical men by the committee appointed by the Assembly of New York, to examine the quarantine laws. A reply to this question involves, in some measure, the question of contagiousness or non-contagiousness of yellow fever. Hence, another question was put to certain medical men by the committee, "Is the yellow fever communicated by personal contact, or by an infected atmosphere, or both?" Among some eight or ten medical men of considerable experience and high reputation in their profession, but one was found who did not admit the necessity of quarantine laws with a view to guard the public health; yet they were nearly unanimous in their opinion, that yellow fever could not be communicated by visiting the sick, out of a district in which the atmosphere was infected with the contagious malaria. In other words, it could not be communicated by personal contact; and hence, that it is not contagious in this limited sense of the term. It is necessary to understand what is meant by the term contagious, when applied to disease, before we can assert whether yellow fever, or any other disease, is contagious. No controversy can be profitable, or be likely to elicit truth, unless those engaged in it give to important terms a like definition. What, then, is the definition of the term contagious, when applied to disease? Perhaps the most perfect definition is—a disease that may be communicated, either by contact with the person who has it, his clothes, or other articles coming from his person; by breathing the atmosphere containing the morbid exhalations that emanate from his system, or by coming in contact with, or handling certain articles of merchandise coming from the country or place in which the disease exists.

Every disease that can be conveyed in this manner is said to be transportable, or importable, from one country into another. In order to avoid the sterile discussions which the terms contagious and non-contagious have occasioned, some medical writers have employed the terms *transmission* and *transmissible*. It is denied by no one, that the origin of yellow fever, in its native climate, that is, where it is endemic, or peculiar to the country, is caused by breathing an atmosphere containing the morbid malarious matter capable of generating it. That this morbid matter, whatever it may be, is transmissible from place to place, from country to country; that it can be imported in the holds of vessels, the baggage of seamen and passengers, in the merchandise on board, is a question decided by such an array of positive affirmative testimony, that the contrary opinion is abandoned by all intelligent men. Yet yellow fever cannot be communicated by visiting the sick. Upon this point, there is very little difference of opinion. "If," says Dr. Vache, "by contagion, is meant prepagatia from one person to another by contact, then I unhesitatingly say it is not contagious." "The evidence that yellow fever is not a contagious disease," says Dr. Hort, "and therefore cannot be communicated by personal contact, is overwhelming."

It is evident that both these gentlemen use the term contagion in a lim-

ited sense. Now, it matters not, so far as the necessity of quarantine regulations is concerned, whether yellow fever is contagious in this limited sense, or not. Personal contact with the sick will not engender yellow fever; but this is but one of several methods by which it is contended that the morbid agent that generates the disease may be communicated. If the infecting agent can be imported in the holds of ships, their cargoes, or the baggage of passengers, the propriety of quarantine regulations cannot be doubted. In the sense we have used the term contagious, that is, synonymous with *transmissible*, yellow fever is a contagious disease. The definition we have given it best accords with medical science, and it is understood in that sense by the best medical writers.

Dr. Hort is the most strenuous opponent of quarantine laws whose views have been made public; and he admits that the cause of yellow fever is transmissible; that it can be imported in vessels and merchandise. In a pamphlet written by Dr. Hort, and published by the committee appointed by the House of Assembly of this State to examine into our quarantine laws, he says, "infectious air from the hold of a ship, or from clothes or goods, or from a trunk," would communicate the fever. This is an admission from one of the ablest opponents of quarantine laws, that the causes of yellow fever may be imported.

It is of no consequence, so far as the necessity of quarantine regulations are concerned, whether yellow fever can or cannot originate in a city, so long as it can be imported. If we grant that local causes can generate the fever in New York—an opinion supported by a majority of medical men—or that its origin may be domestic, it is no proof that it cannot be, or has not been, imported. The numerous extracts from the official records of the New York Board of Health, submitted by Dr. Vache, and published by the committee of investigation, seem to be of too positive a character to deny that yellow fever may be imported. Innumerable instances, quoted by Dr. Hort, of persons visiting those sick out of the infected district, prove that yellow fever cannot be communicated by personal contact. Yet this is no proof that merchandise put on board a vessel in a port where the atmosphere is infected with the morbid agent, may not convey the causes of yellow fever to this port. Who knows the nature of this morbid effluvia? You may sleep in the same bed with, handle or wear the clothes of persons who died of yellow fever, out of the district in which the atmosphere is infected with the malaria that generates it, and not be attacked. Yet this is no proof that you may, with equal impunity, handle or wear the clothes of those who died of the fever in the place or country in which the infecting agent pervaded the atmosphere. You may inhale the morbid exhalations emanating from the person of one sick with yellow fever, out of the district in which the atmosphere is contaminated with the morbid miasm that causes the disease, and be wholly exempt from an attack; yet you would not be similarly exempt should you inhale the noxious exhalations emanating from the cargo of a vessel from a yellow fever port, or from the baggage of the seamen or passengers that had been exposed to an atmosphere containing the infecting agent. The subtlety of the morbid agent that produces yellow fever, has hitherto eluded all chemical analysis. It is not known whether the atmosphere is merely the medium of conveying the miasm to those attacked, or whether it holds it in chemical solution. To an unphilosophic mind it may appear strange that a malignant fever could be communicated by going on board a vessel from

a yellow fever port, or handling the merchandise put on board there, and that it could not be communicated by wearing the clothes of those who died of the same fever, when out of the infected district. Such a supposition is not, however, at all absurd. A cargo taken in at a yellow fever port, where the atmosphere is infected with the malaria that originates yellow fever, may, on breaking bulk on its arrival at this port, emit a far more deleterious and infecting agent than that which emanates from the persons of those sick with yellow fever, whether residing in or out of the infected district. Who knows the extent of the change produced upon the morbid matter that causes yellow fever, in consequence of its passage through the human system? That effluvia which is eliminated from the bodies of the sick may not possess one particle of the peculiar infecting agent that existed in the atmosphere which originated the fever. The small-pox virus, after its passage through the system of the cow, will no longer produce the small-pox. It has evidently undergone an important change, by which it is deprived of much of its deleterious properties. Well authenticated cases are recorded, where persons have drank the black vomit ejected from the stomachs of those having yellow fever, sleeping in the same bed with them, and wearing their clothes, and yet not take the fever. The inference to be drawn from these cases is, that the peculiar morbid agent that causes yellow fever loses its infecting properties, is totally changed, in passing through the human system. You cannot take yellow fever by visiting the sick who are removed from the place where the atmosphere contains the infecting agent.

Among the medical men who replied to the interrogations of the committee of investigation, appointed by the House of Assembly of this State, we would notice, particularly, Dr. Vache of this city, and Dr. Hort of New Orleans. The former is in favor of, and the latter opposed to quarantine. The former is of the opinion that yellow fever can never originate in this city, that it is exclusively an imported disease. The latter contends that its origin is domestic, that it is not an imported disease. The following is taken from the able letter of Dr. Vache to the committee of examination :

“The domestic or foreign origin of the disease, wherever it has appeared, has occupied the attention of the most distinguished men in the medical profession, and has frequently led to controversies as little profitable to science as to the characters of the contending parties. The subject, at this day, is as doubtful as it was at the commencement of the discussion, and will probably continue so, as long as physicians identify honor with pride of opinion, and partisans suit facts to theories, with predetermination not to be vanquished. Much has been published on both sides of the question worthy of consideration; each party has collected with unwearied labor all the information to be obtained with equal talents and equal learning, and still, the origin of yellow fever out of Africa is a theme on which volumes will, doubtless, be written for years to come, and perhaps until the end of time.

“I am aware it is alleged that yellow fever has spontaneously appeared on different occasions in several interior portions of our country, and I am also aware it is said to have exhibited itself in the cities and towns of seaports, when not traceable to any vessels connected with it; but I dispose of the one with the opinion, that the disease arose from local miasm of so fatal a character as to lead to the conclusion of its identity with yellow fever, especially as it is well known to practical physicians that the general symptoms of acute malignant fevers are very similar, and frequently require the nicest judgment of the most experienced practitioner to decide one type from the other. Of the other, I say, it is but negative testimony when the contrary has been so frequently established, and of

doubtful accuracy, where the desire of health-officers, to avoid censure, and the interests of owners and officers of suspected vessels, are taken in consideration. In New York, yellow fever has always appeared in the vicinity of shipping; while in other portions of the city, where human beings are piled on each other, in the most degraded and miserable condition, amidst heaps of accumulated filth, and loads of animal and vegetable putrefaction; where hunger and nakedness stalk abroad at noonday, exposed to the fiercest rays of a summer's sun, and where the unfortunate inhabitants are driven to their damp, ill-ventilated and loathsome rooms, for partial shelter, and temporary protection, during the pitiless storm, it has never been known.

* * * * *

"Its very exception to all other forms of fever, in being arrested by frost, seems to me conclusive, at least of its tropical origin. But, admit it can be endemic, or local, and will prevail whenever the combination of causes essential to its development exists, does it establish that the disease cannot be conveyed from other portions of the globe, and disseminated wherever the pestilence is transmitted, distributing devastation and death to those within its fatal influence? Of this, however, enough.

"To enter into the argument in extenso, would lead to a lengthened analysis of the subject, too voluminous, perhaps, for the occasion. Be it, therefore, as it may, the object of the committee, I apprehend, is not to enter into the controversies of medical men, or to know whether yellow fever can be of domestic origin in this state, but to ascertain if the quarantine laws are in accordance with progressive science, and whether they can be repealed, or so modified with safety to the health of the community, as to be less oppressive to the commercial interests of the country.

"That yellow fever can be brought to the city from abroad, or, in other words, that vessels arriving at this port from places where yellow fever prevails at the time of their sailing, may give the disease by the liberation of the specific poison, on opening the hatches, and especially, on breaking out the cargoes or ballast, to persons communicating with them, or extend it to those on shore, whether the crew be in health or not, few persons acquainted with the history of our quarantine, would be willing to deny. The instances are too positive, and too numerous to be disputed."

Though Dr. Vache is no believer in the domestic origin of the disease, yet so far as quarantine is concerned, he deems this fact of very little importance. It is an established fact, that its origin is not *exclusively* domestic. It can be, and has been imported, though it may originate here. Therefore it is not important, so far as the necessity of quarantine is concerned, whether it can originate in this port or not. The important question is, are our quarantine laws in accordance with medical science, commercial experience, or can they be made less oppressive to the interests of commerce, without endangering the public health? All laws that are necessary to the security of the public health, are not burdensome to commerce. A malignant epidemic raging in this city for thirty days, would prove more burdensome to commerce than all the necessary quarantine regulations for ten years. It is certainly beneficial to the interests of commerce that the health of the city should be properly guarded. In the language of Dr. Vache—"The pecuniary loss of a hundred years by a proper quarantine establishment, cannot equal that occasioned by the ruin and desolation occasioned by a single season of the pestilence." Yet all unnecessary burdens upon commerce, all quarantine regulations obstructing the commerce of this city, not necessary to protect the health of the city, are unjust, and ought not to be tolerated.

We must now give a short extract from the pamphlet of Dr. Hort, published in the report of the committee. The principal object of Dr. Hort,

is to prove that yellow fever is not a contagious disease ; and, therefore, he concludes there can be no necessity for quarantine laws. After a few preliminary observations, he says :—

“ My remarks will be confined to the questions of contagiousness and importation of yellow fever, on which the expediency and necessity of quarantine laws in Louisiana alone depends. Of the origin of diseases called endemic, or those of local origin, and confined to a certain section of country, (as the plague in the Grecian camp, so beautifully described by Homer,) and of epidemics, which travel from country to country, and from continent to continent, and from one hemisphere to the other hemisphere, apparently controlled by no fixed laws, we know nothing more, strictly speaking, than what was known in the time of Hippocrates.

* * * * *
 “ If it is maintained that a disease originates in a certain country, and causes or circumstances are pointed out which are supposed to produce it, then, wherever we find in other places and parts of the world the same causes or circumstances, we cannot see why the same disease should not be produced in the one, as well as in the other place. If such causes, however, do not exist, the disease cannot exist, unless the doctrine of contagion be admitted.

* * * * *
 “ Infectious air from the hold of a ship, or from clothes or goods, or from a trunk, might destroy a few individuals exposed to its influence, but it could not go far ; it would soon be diluted so as to become innocuous ; or should it become modified in some way in an impure atmosphere, then it would no longer be the same disease. One fact is here introduced to illustrate this position. In 1817, a barge left this city with goods for a store-keeper at Bayou Sara ; during the passage up the river, and shortly after the arrival of the barge, every one of the crew and passengers died of yellow fever. The goods were landed and conveyed to the store ; and the store-keeper who opened the packages, although he was warned not to do so, sickened and died of yellow fever ; but no other person in the neighborhood contracted the disease. The whole subject is then narrowed down to the question of contagion. It is asked, why do we hear nothing of the yellow fever having prevailed on this continent, and in the West India islands, before they were discovered and inhabited by Europeans ? Why, then, would we ask, do we hear nothing of bilious and congestive and typhus fevers, and divers other diseases, unknown to this continent anterior to that period ? Will any one say that bilious and congestive and typhus fevers are imported ? Yet there was a time when they were not more known on this continent than yellow fever.

“ Disease follows in the track of civilization, not carried by the people from one country to another, but developed by the great physical changes brought about by industry and agricultural pursuits. The surface of the earth, once sheltered from the sun's rays by luxuriant vegetation, is laid bare to the action of those rays ; the surface of the earth is turned up by the plough ; exhalation and evaporation follow ; vegetable matter is decaying in large quantities, or large cities are built, and people become crowded together within a very limited space, and filth and offal accumulate ; the marshes are exposed, and great changes must be going on in the atmosphere near the surface of the earth ; and is it at all strange that, under such circumstances, new diseases should be developed ?”

Dr. Hort is an able writer, and asserts that it is now more than twenty-two years since his attention was first directed to the subject of yellow fever. Yet there is not in the whole range of medical history, a stronger case to prove the necessity of quarantine regulations, than that we have quoted above from his pamphlet. He gives an instance where the yellow fever was communicated by opening a package of goods from a yellow fever port. He quotes the case to prove that yellow fever is not contagious ; not contagious, because, he says, “ no other person in that neighborhood contracted the disease.” It appears that no one who attended upon the

man who died of the fever was attacked. Now, every one must admit that if a cargo of merchandise was to arrive at this port from a yellow fever port, and all who handled that merchandise would be exposed to yellow fever miasm, the necessity of quarantine regulations would be obvious. All medical men of experience agree with Dr. Hort that yellow fever is not contagious in the sense in which he uses the term; but personal contact with the sick is but one of the methods of conveying contagious matter. We have already stated that yellow fever is never communicated by visiting the sick out of the infected district.

The ability with which Dr. Hort has treated the subject, induces us to give a summary of his whole argument, as it appears at the conclusion of his pamphlet. It is as follows :—

“ I have now endeavored to prove :—

“ 1st. That yellow fever, like the other malignant diseases of the south, is of local origin.

“ 2d. That it is not an imported disease.

“ 3d. That it is not contagious.

“ 4th. That civilization has developed diseases, which a higher grade of civilization, aided by changes of climate, may modify or abolish.

“ 5th. That there is a yellow fever region, in any part of which the fever may at any time originate.

“ 6th. That on this continent, the yellow fever region has receded greatly.

“ 7th. That the yellow fever has been abating in New Orleans in a ratio with the improvement going on in the city.

“ 8th. That there is no occasion for quarantine laws. That experience has shown them to be useless here : while they would be very expensive, highly injurious to our commercial interests, and onerous to passengers.”

The remark that “ yellow fever is not an imported disease,” and “ that it is not contagious,” as stated by Dr. Hort, will be understood in its proper sense by the reader. The doctor is unfortunate in stating the summary of his arguments. He proves, conclusively, in his pamphlet, that yellow fever is both an imported and a contagious disease. He admits that it can be imported in the holds of vessels, their cargoes, in the clothes and baggage of seamen and passengers; and he admits that the contagious matter can be communicated by handling the clothes or baggage containing the miasm, or by visiting the vessel from a yellow fever port. These admissions prove the necessity of quarantine regulations, with a view to guard the public health.

As the necessity of quarantine regulations are obvious to most men, it might be asked, what is the cause of so much diversity of opinion on the subject? It is simply a difference of opinion as to the *extent* to which those regulations should exist. Quarantine laws have been, at times, in nearly the entire commercial world, very oppressive, unnecessarily burdensome to commerce, greatly affecting the interests of merchants and others, by diverting trade from places where it naturally belonged, to places less convenient. Enlightened governments have seen the folly of these too restrictive regulations, and they have been, from time to time, modified, giving greater freedom to commerce, and that without the least endangering the public health. We should not be behind in this spirit of enlightened progress, but should make such changes in our quarantine laws as are demanded by the progressive state of medical science, and commercial experience.

As we have stated, the late quarantine law is less restrictive, except in

cases of small-pox, yet we believe that time and experience will demonstrate other modifications, by which greater freedom to commerce will result. We believe that the clause in the present law, prohibiting "all persons arriving in vessels subject to quarantine, from leaving quarantine until fifteen days after the vessel left her port of departure, and fifteen days after the last case of pestilential or infectious fever that shall have occurred on board, and ten days after her arrival, unless sooner discharged by the health-officer," to be unnecessary to the security of the public health. There can be no danger in allowing passengers in such a case, to proceed directly to this city, or elsewhere, so soon as their clothing which they take with them is thoroughly purified by washing. If they are afterwards taken sick with the fever, it cannot be communicated to any one else. This is an incontrovertible fact, beyond dispute. And this fact will apply to all malignant or pestilential fevers, except eruptive fevers, such as small-pox, and others that are admitted to be contagious by personal contact.

There are other parts of the new law that we believe too restrictive upon commerce, and not necessary to guard the public health, but we feel disposed to give it a fair trial, and leave to time and experience to show the necessity of still greater modifications. In the language of McCulloch, we would say, that "quarantine is not a matter in which innovations should be rashly introduced; whenever there is doubt, it is proper to incline to the side of security." Yet we must not be frightened into the adoption of unnecessary restrictions upon the trade of our people. Our legislation must vary as our intelligence and experience would dictate.

The present law has increased the discretionary powers of the health-officer; and we believe the legislature has acted wisely in this respect. So long as that office is filled by a professional man of large experience, of unquestioned integrity, and medical ability, this discretionary power will be exercised in a manner that will give the greatest freedom to commerce compatible with the security of the public health.

The following tables may be interesting to many of our readers. They are taken from the official records of the board of health, in this city.

DEATHS IN NEW YORK CITY, BY SMALL-POX, YELLOW FEVER, AND CHOLERA, FROM 1805 TO 1845, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Small-pox.	Y'w Fever.	Cholera.	Years.	Small-pox.	Y'w Fever.	Cholera.
1845	413	1824	394
1844	20	1823	18	1
1843	117	1822	240
1842	181	1821	3
1841	209	1820
1840	231	1819	23
1839	68	1818	19
1838	91	1817	14	1
1837	164	1816	179
1836	173	1815	94
1835	351	1814	2
1834	233	971	1813	2
1833	25	1812	21
1832	89	3,513	1811	117
1831	224	1810	4
1830	176	1809	66	13
1829	16	1808	62
1828	93	1807	29
1827	149	1806	48
1826	58	1805	62	270
1825	40				

THE NUMBER OF PASSENGERS FROM FOREIGN PORTS, ARRIVING IN NEW YORK, SINCE 1827, (NO RECORD BEING PREVIOUSLY KEPT,) AND ALSO THE NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED, ETC., IN THE MARINE HOSPITAL, SINCE 1799.

Year.	Passengers arriving at New York.	Patients admitted into Marine Hpl.	Deaths in Hospital.	Cases of typhus or ship-fev'r.	Remitt'nt and bil's remitt'nt.	Intermittent.	Yellow fever.	Small-pox.
1845	82,969	*.....
1844	61,002
1843	46,302
1842	74,949
1841	57,337
1840	62,797	830	65	144	93	111	3	135
1839	48,152	750	57	80	144	93	25	66
1838	38,213	400	23	6	89	71	4	59
1837	51,677	1,100	79	518	150	49	...	64
1836	58,597	724	64	100	189	73	5	68
1835	32,716	526	60	46	196	66	2	57
1834	46,053	463	47	41	145	58	3	67
1833	39,461	448	63	72	178	48	12	55
1832	38,815	447	53	99	90	48	1	35
1831	14,821	526	43	27	105	75	...	96
1830	9,127	506	59	24	131	45	2	90
1829	15,036	333	27	...	125	55	4	16
1828	19,958	311	36	13	46	68	1	10
1827	10,412	439	51	4	134	96	6	35
1826	489	49	28	74	167	2	22
1825	319	44	6	85	83	2	13
1824	362	37	...	61	85	28	4
1823	391	47	1	68	128	8	22
1822	454	90	3	115	86	103	...
1821	340	46	5	81	84	26	...
1820	308	28	1	69	119	2	...
1819	303	43	25	71	83	26	...
1818	222	23	13	34	46	5	16
1817	312	48	20	82	65	41	14
1816	243	45	6	39	50	2	57
1815	262	39	55	53	54	19	22
1814	5	4
1813	19	4	...	5	...	1	1
1812	27	6	5	8	5	1	...
1811	84	20	21	27	10	8	...
1810	95	11	...	20	25	5	...
1809	115	18	...	45	29	6	...
1808	107	19	...	15	25	25	...
1807	132	24	2	39	15	3	...
1806	136	20	3	39	27	2	...
1805	209	54	6	52	35	43	7
1804	159	24	6	46	19	8	6
1803	257	83	...	36	24	141	1
1802	325	43	41	24	36	7	...
1801	944	198	15	35	8	35	19
1800	234	45	2	61	30	36	11
1799	348	98	...	28	13	163	...

In 1832, there were treated for malignant cholera, 27; for infectious and malignant fever, in 1804, 7; in 1801, 703; in 1800, 1; and in 1799, 69.

* The blanks in this table, since 1840, are not filled, and consequently that part is deficient.

Art. V.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

ST. LOUIS—ITS EARLY HISTORY—POPULATION—LOCATION AND COMMERCIAL ADVANTAGES—SHOPS AND BUILDINGS—VALUE OF ITS COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.—WHEAT, FLOUR, TOBACCO, BEEF, PORK—ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES OF STEAMBOATS AND TONNAGE—IMPORTS INTO ST. LOUIS—LUMBER TRADE—IMPORTANCE OF IMPROVING THE HARBOR, ETC.

ST. LOUIS,* the capital of the county of that name, and now the commercial capital of the state of Missouri, and formerly its seat of government, was settled, in 1664, by a company of merchants, to whom M. D'Abbadie, the director-general of Louisiana, had given an exclusive grant for the commerce of the Indian nations on the Missouri. The company built a large house and four stores here; and in 1770, there were forty private houses and as many families, and a small French garrison. In 1780, an expedition was fitted out at Michilimackinac, consisting of one hundred and forty British and fifteen hundred Indians, for the capture of St. Louis, and other places on the west side of the Mississippi, which was successfully repelled by the aid of an American force under Gen. George Rogers Clark, who proceeded from their encampment on the opposite side of the river. In May, 1821, the place contained six hundred and fifty-one dwellings, two hundred and thirty-two of which were brick or stone, and four hundred and nineteen of wood. The population, in 1810, was sixteen hundred; in 1820, four thousand five hundred and ninety-eight; in 1830, it had increased to six thousand six hundred and ninety-four; and in 1840, to sixteen thousand four hundred and ninety-six, of whom fifteen hundred and thirty-one were slaves. According to the census of 1840, the number of persons employed in commerce was eight hundred and forty-five; in manufactures and trades, two thousand and twelve; in navigating rivers, eight hundred and ninety-one, and in the learned professions, one hundred and eighty-eight.

The city is admirably situated for commerce, and already surpasses in its trade every other place on the river, north of New Orleans. The site is elevated many feet above the floods of the Mississippi, and is protected from them by a limestone bank, which extends nearly two miles; an advantage rarely enjoyed on the Mississippi, which is generally bounded by high perpendicular rocks, or loose alluvial soil. This spot has an abrupt acclivity from the river to the first bottom, and a gradual one to the second bottom. The first bank presents a view of the river, being elevated twenty feet above the highest water; the second bank is forty feet higher than the first, and affords a fine view of the city, river, and surrounding country, and contains the finest residences. The place was originally laid out on the first bank, and consisted of three narrow streets, running parallel with the river. Fortifications were erected on the second bank, as a defence against the savages. Soon after the American emigration commenced, four additional streets were laid out, back of the first, on the second bottom, which is a beautiful plain, and these streets are wide and airy. There are eight principal streets parallel to the river, crossed by over twenty running from the river, and crossing them at right angles. The

* St. Louis is in $38^{\circ} 27' 28''$ north latitude, and in $90^{\circ} 15' 39''$ west longitude from Greenwich, and $13^{\circ} 14' 15''$ west longitude from Washington. It is twenty miles, by water, below the mouth of the Missouri; one hundred and ninety-six miles above the mouth of the Ohio, and eleven hundred and forty-nine above New Orleans.—HASKELL'S GAZETTEER.

whole length of the place extends in a right line five and a half miles, and by the curve of the river, six and a half miles. Its breadth may ultimately extend six miles back from the river, but is at present about one-half of that distance. The thickly settled parts are confined within much narrower limits, and extend a mile and a half along the river, with half that breadth. Front-street is open on the side toward the river, and on the other side is a range of warehouses, four stories high, built of limestone, which have a very commanding appearance, and are the seat of a heavy business.

In First-street, the wholesale and retail dry-goods stores are located, and in the streets immediately back of this are the artizans and tradesmen. The buildings are generally neat, and some even elegant. The more recent houses are built of brick, of an excellent quality, made in the immediate vicinity; some are of stone, quarried on the spot, and are generally whitewashed. Among the public buildings of the city, the city hall is a splendid edifice of brick, the basement of which is occupied as a market, at the foot of Market-street, on a square reserved for that purpose.

The Mississippi and Illinois to the north, the Ohio and its tributaries to the southeast, and the Missouri to the west, afford St. Louis a ready access to a vast extent of country; while to the south the Mississippi furnishes an outlet to the ocean for its accumulated productions. It is the principal depot for the American Fur Company, who have a large establishment, with a large number of men in their employ. A vast amount of furs is here collected; and ten thousand dried buffalo tongues have been brought in a single year.

According to the official returns of the census of 1840, there were in St. Louis at that time, one commercial, and twenty-four commission houses in foreign trade, with a capital of seven hundred and seventeen thousand dollars; two hundred and fourteen retail dry-goods and other stores, with a capital of three millions eight hundred and seventy-five thousand and fifty dollars; seventeen lumber-yards, with a capital of two hundred and eighty-seven thousand five hundred and twenty-nine dollars; forty persons employed in internal transportation, together with thirty-seven butchers, packers, &c., employing a capital of one hundred and forty-one thousand five hundred dollars; furs, skins, &c., exported, were valued at three hundred and six thousand three hundred dollars; one hundred and sixty-seven persons manufactured machinery to the amount of one hundred and sixty-nine thousand eight hundred and seven dollars; thirteen persons manufactured three hundred and five small arms; nine persons manufactured the precious metals to the amount of five thousand and fifty dollars; sixty-five persons manufactured various metals to the amount of fifty-four thousand dollars; sixty-nine persons produced granite and marble to the amount of thirty thousand dollars; two hundred and forty-nine persons produced bricks and lime to the amount of twenty-two thousand five hundred dollars; thirteen persons manufactured tobacco to the amount of three thousand five hundred and fifty dollars, with a capital of nine thousand two hundred and fifty; twenty-eight persons manufactured hats and caps to the amount of seventy-seven thousand six hundred dollars, with a capital of twelve thousand; two tanneries employed fourteen persons, and produced eight thousand sides of upper leather, with a capital of fifty-four thousand five hundred dollars; twelve manufacturers of leather, as saddlers, &c., produced to the amount of one hundred and sixteen thousand

six hundred dollars, with a capital of fifty-four thousand eight hundred and fifty; fifteen persons produced one hundred and thirty-eight thousand pounds of soap, and two hundred and forty-three thousand pounds of tallow candles, with a capital of sixteen thousand seven hundred dollars; one distillery produced thirty thousand gallons of distilled spirits, and six breweries three hundred and seventy thousand seven hundred gallons of beer, the whole employing thirty-eight persons and a capital of forty-eight thousand eight hundred dollars; eight persons produced paints and drugs to the amount of fifteen thousand five hundred dollars, with a capital of seven thousand; one rope-walk, employing three persons, produced cordage to the amount of five thousand dollars, with a capital of ten thousand; seventy-eight persons manufactured carriages and wagons to the amount of fifty-four thousand five hundred dollars, with a capital of twenty-five thousand two hundred and fifty dollars; two flouring-mills produced thirteen thousand six hundred and fifty-six barrels of flour, and with six saw-mills and one oil-mill, produced to the amount of one hundred and eighty-five thousand six hundred and eight dollars, with a capital of one hundred and six thousand five hundred; twenty-two printing offices, six daily, seven weekly, and five semi-weekly newspapers, employed eighty-two persons, and a capital of forty-nine thousand six hundred and fifty dollars; two hundred and ten brick or stone, and one hundred and thirty wooden houses were built, employing three hundred and ninety-seven persons, and cost seven hundred and sixty-one thousand nine hundred and eighty dollars. The total amount of capital employed in manufactures was six hundred and seventy-four thousand two hundred and fifty dollars. There were in the city ten academies or grammar-schools, with five hundred and seventy-seven students, and seven common or primary schools, with seven hundred and thirteen scholars.

In January, 1844, at a meeting of the citizens of St. Louis, at which the mayor of the city presided, a committee of eight persons was appointed to collect and prepare a report setting forth, as far as practicable, the trade and commerce of that city, and the resources of the surrounding country, and all such facts as would tend to demonstrate the necessity of removing the obstructions to the navigation of the western waters. At a subsequent meeting, the committee submitted a report which was unanimously approved and adopted. From this report we gather a few statistics of some of the leading exports of that city.

Wheat and Flour. Within seven years past, flour has been brought to St. Louis, for the supply of that market; now it furnishes a considerable portion of the supplies for the Atlantic market. In 1841, the chamber of commerce reported the exports of wheat at one million one hundred and seven thousand bushels. The exports of 1843, exceeded those of 1841 more than two hundred thousand bushels. This includes ground and unground—the flour being estimated at five bushels to the barrel.

Tobacco. In 1841, the whole crop of Missouri was estimated at nine thousand hogsheads, worth about nine hundred thousand dollars. The crop of 1845 is estimated, by Edmund Burke, Commissioner of Patents, at thirteen million seven hundred and forty-four thousand pounds. There were exported from the port of St. Louis, during 1843, nineteen thousand seven hundred and thirty hogsheads, and seven thousand seven hundred and seven boxes manufactured. This amount does not include that part of the crop raised in Missouri, south of St. Louis, on the Mississippi. The

crop of 1842 was set down by the committee of merchants as worth two and a half million dollars.

Pork, Bacon and Lard, formed another important item of St. Louis exports, but the report furnishes us with no data of the shipments at St. Louis.

Beef. This article forms a heavy item of internal commerce. It is stated by houses engaged in the purchase of hides, that from one hundred thousand to one hundred and fifty thousand hides were shipped from St. Louis during 1843. This item is set down as equal to one million of dollars. To these, add corn, beeswax, beans, butter, oats, oils, tallow, and a variety of other articles, which constitute important items of this trade; and also furs, skins and peltries, and the products of the American Fur Company, which alone employs a capital of half a million of dollars, giving employment to several steamboats, and several thousand men, and several other companies, each having large capitals, and employing a large number of men, ranging the country from the British Possessions to the Mexican Provinces, and from the States' boundary to the Pacific, bringing the fruits of their trades to St. Louis, for sale or shipment.

Another important item of exports is made up of horses, mules, neat cattle, live hogs, etc., transported on the river. In 1841, there were fifteen hundred horses, two thousand three hundred mules, and six thousand neat cattle, sent to the south. The increase since that period has been large, but we have no means of ascertaining the exact amount.

The mineral resources of Missouri are known to be immense. The lead sent forward from St. Louis in 1843 is set down at six hundred and nine thousand one hundred and eighty-six pigs, and three thousand six hundred and twenty-four boxes of bar lead. To which may be added a large amount from manufactured shot, white lead, and lead pipe, all of which is the product of the Galena mines, and the mines on the Missouri river. The mines in Missouri south of St. Louis, are to be added to the above, and are estimated to produce about one quarter the amount produced at Galena, and make the value of the lead and copper trade equal to from one and a half to two millions of dollars.

The St. Louis Republican, of March 7, 1846, furnishes us with some important evidence of the extent of the trade concentrating at St. Louis—its connection with other points, east, north, west and south, by means of the different rivers—the shipping trade of that port—and the number and tonnage of the steamboats which were employed during the year 1845. The editors of the Republican clearly show, what it is their object to, by the details of their commerce, that St. Louis, in every respect, “whether it be the number of vessels and tonnage it employs, the number of trips made, the amount of merchandise imported and exported, or any other element of public utility and general necessity, is as important to the nation as any other port, whether situated on the seaboard, the lakes, or inland; that its protection and preservation is not merely a matter of local and private concern, to the people of St. Louis or the surrounding country, but that it is a subject in which the nation is interested, to as great an extent as it is in the protection of any portion of the commerce of the country, or any harbor within her jurisdiction; and that it is, therefore, a legitimate object of expenditure by the general government.”

By a regulation of the city government, there is an officer duly commissioned and qualified, called the harbor-master, to whom is assigned the

duty of designating the position which boats shall occupy at the wharf, the collection of the wharfage dues, &c. He is further required to keep a register of the boats arriving, their tonnage, where from, and their departure. From his books and monthly returns, the editors of the Republican prepared the annexed statements, which may, therefore, be relied on.

During the year 1845, there were two thousand and fifty steamboat arrivals in the harbor of St. Louis, with an aggregate tonnage of three hundred and fifty-eight thousand and forty-five tons, and three hundred and forty-six keel and flat-boats. The monthly list is as follows:—

Arrived.	Steamboats.	Tons.	Flats, etc.	Arrived.	Steamboats.	Tons.	Flats, etc.
January,.....	65	13,431	16	August,.....	201	35,556	37
February,.....	67	11,167	17	September, .	182	30,570	32
March,.....	215	40,985	51	October,.....	174	27,498	45
April,.....	207	38,396	11	November,..	214	32,252	96
May,.....	300	50,024	27	December,..	15	2,829	...
June,.....	218	39,271	9				
July,.....	192	36,066	5	Total,...	2,050	358,045	346

The trade of the city during that year, was carried on by two hundred and thirteen steamboats, with an aggregate tonnage of forty-two thousand nine hundred and twenty-two tons, viz:—

Boats.	Tons.	Boats.	Tons.	Boats.	Tons.
Amaranth,	220	Columbiana,	124	Inda,	360
Alps,	112	Champion,	320	Iowa,	109
Alleghany,	188	Clermont,	121	Ione,	170
Algonquin,	226	Cumberland Valley,	168	Iatan,	173
Annawan,	214	Confidence,	139	Iowa, (new,)	249
Alex. Scott,	487	Dove,	150	Iron City,	118
Ambassador,	474	Die Vernon,	212	John Aull,	240
Albatross,	298	Domain,	132	John Golong,	144
Atlas,	135	Denizen,	326	Jasper,	83
Archer,	118	Dr. Franklin,	281	J. M. White,	498
Amulet,	56	Defiance,	135	Julia Chouteau,	318
Boreas,	157	Dial,	139	James Ross,	149
Brunswick,	294	Dr. Watson,	141	James Madison,	285
Balloon,	154	Eagle,	26	Joan of Arc,	337
Bertrand,	146	Empress,	306	Josephine,	125
Bridgewater,	67	Eclipse,	530	Little Ben Franklin,	85
Brunette,	207	Express Mail,	245	Little Dove,	76
Brazil,	167	Empire,	446	Lancet,	184
Boreas, No. 2,	222	Falcon,	142	Lasalle,	109
Blue Ridge,	138	Fortune,	101	Lexington,	157
Belle of Attakapas,	247	Felix Grundy,	166	Little Pike,	227
Big Hatchee,	195	Frolic,	126	Levant,	225
Belle of Red River,	246	Galena,	135	Lebanon,	141
Belle of Miss.,	305	Gen. Brooke,	143	Lehigh,	146
Batesville,	178	Gen. Warren,	103	Lynx,	126
Bunker Hill,	271	George Washington,	303	L. F. Linn,	162
Belmont,	115	Highlander,	346	Laclede,	239
Brownsville,	100	Harry of the West,	490	Louisiana,	631
Caspian,	318	Henry Bry,	347	Luella,	...
Cambria,	203	Huntsville,	138	Little Mail,	82
Champlain,	428	Hannibal,	464	Lady Madison,	148
Congress,	334	Hibernian,	152	Lancaster,	124
China,	82	Herald,	163	Lucy Long,	82
Cecilia,	128	Harkaway,	288	Louisville,	295
Clinton,	268	H. Kenney,	130	Manhattan,	242
Cincinnati,	374	Helen,	61	Missouri,	689
Cutter,	144	Independence,	274	Maid of Iowa,	60
Columbia,	150	Importer,	199	Mountaineer,	213
Charlotte,	254	Iola,	84	Mendota,	157

Boats.	Tons.	Boats.	Tons.	Boats.	Tons.
Monona,	174	Ohio Mail,	118	Sultana,	527
Mungo Park,	95	Odd Fellow,	96	Susquehanna,	242
Maria,	692	Ocean Wave,	205	Swallow,	160
Mermaid,	158	Pearl,	42	Star Spangled Banner,	275
Mary Tompkins,	225	Panama,	97	St. Landry,	242
Majestic,	222	Plymouth,	158	Tobacco Plant,	207
Maid of Osage,	64	Potosi,	115	Time,	119
Mail,	411	Palestine,	172	Tioga,	170
Mo. Mail,	209	Putnam,	108	Tuscaloosa,	340
May Queen,	92	Planet,	121	Tributary,	149
Metamora,	297	Patriot,	214	Triumph,	121
Mill Boy,	63	Pickaway,	115	Uncle Toby,	110
Nodaway,	203	Prairie Bird,	213	Uncle Sam,	432
New Haven,	86	Queen of the South,	198	Valley Forge,	221
Nimrod,	210	Queen of the West,	238	Vesta,	92
North America,	248	Red Rover,	381	Warsaw,	155
North Carolina,	190	Radnor,	163	White Cloud,	262
North Bend,	120	Republic,	148	West Wind,	208
North Queen,	108	Richmond,	347	Wapello,	248
North Alabama,	173	Revenue Cutter,	101	Western Belle,	137
Nathan Hale,	135	Richard Clayton,	108	Walnut Hills,	216
New Hampshire,	125	Revenue,	146	Wing and Wing,	210
Neptune,	227	Rose of Sharon,	48	War-Eagle,	155
National,	198	Robert Fulton,	199	Wheel of Fortune,	165
Nebraska,	149	St. Louis Oak,	109	Wave,	237
Omega,	144	Sarah Ann,	162	Wm. N. Mercer,	97
Ohio,	122	St. Louis,	387	Wiota,	219
Osprey,	128	Superb,	536	Windsor,	195
Ohio Belle,	310	St. Croix,	159	West Wood,	250
Olive Branch,	293	Sea-Bird,	261	Western,	117
Oregon,	182	Swifsure, 3,	199	Yucatan,	141
Orpheus,	117	Sam Seay,	191	Zanesville Packet,	74

The above statement embraces only steamboats, barges and keels being admitted, many of which are towed by steamboats, and in which a large amount of freight is transported.

From the same report, we have compiled the following table of the places from whence these vessels came, showing the arrivals from each quarter for each month, as follows:—

In	N. Orleans.	Ohio riv.	Ill. riv.	Up. Miss.	Missouri.	Oth. p'ts.
January,.....	17	5	15	15	5	8
February,.....	13	13	20	12	2	7
March,.....	27	42	57	67	11	8
April,.....	24	39	36	75	23	10
May,.....	35	49	52	102	49	13
June,.....	27	33	29	66	42	81
July,.....	16	46	26	58	29	18
August,.....	20	44	26	63	25	22
September,.....	25	38	7	60	22	19
October,.....	22	45	13	48	20	16
November,.....	21	47	17	74	20	24
December,.....	3	5	..	3	1	1
Total,.....	250	406	298	647	249	167

From the foregoing, it appears that, during the year 1845, there were two hundred and fifty steamboat arrivals at St. Louis, from New Orleans; four hundred and six from different ports on the Ohio river, including arrivals from the Cumberland and Tennessee; two hundred and ninety-eight from ports on the Illinois river; six hundred and forty-seven from ports on the Mississippi above the mouth of the Missouri, not including

the daily trip of the Alton packet; two hundred and forty-nine from ports on the Missouri river, and one hundred and sixty-eight from other points, chiefly from Cairo, and intermediate ports between that point and St. Louis.

In her commerce, St. Louis presents a spectacle which, we believe, is not equalled by any other interior port in the world. Five great arteries, or highways, of inland commerce, all centre at that point; and, although the settlement of the country cannot be said to be half a century old, nor the trade more than twenty-five years, yet she requires the equivalent of two thousand vessels to carry it on. What other inland city can exhibit such a commerce—all dependent on it—all profiting as it prospers, and all affected by whatever injures it? This trade, it has been shown, reaches into five distinct channels—employs two hundred and thirteen vessels, exclusive of barges, keel and flat-boats, forming a tonnage of forty-two thousand nine hundred and twenty-two tons, which, estimated at an average cost of fifty dollars per ton, gives a total value of two millions one hundred and forty-six thousand one hundred dollars. This is the mere cost of the vessels.

But these vessels do not ply from point to point without a purpose. They carry thousands of persons, travelling for business or pleasure, and they transport freights of many times more value than the vessels themselves. The persons who travel on them, and the commodities they carry, are subject to the delays, danger and expense which arises from the insecure condition of the harbor, at the termination of their voyage.

There is no custom-house regulation for the port of St. Louis, by which absolute certainty may be attained in estimating either the number of passengers who arrived in these boats, or the amount of freights which they carried. By the city ordinance, the harbor-master is required to keep a record of the imports and exports of a number of articles of commerce, but every effort has been found to be unavailing to make these reports correct. Of the exports, it has been found impossible to make a return under existing regulations. Boats receive freights until the very moment of departure; and, as they are under no obligation to give a statement of what they have on board, no correct account can be obtained. The imports are principally made up from the manifests of the boats upon their arrival, but these are necessarily imperfect, for there are many articles carried for which no bill of lading is executed, and in numerous instances freight is transported without the officers knowing of what it consists. Notwithstanding these imperfections in the returns, the editors of the Republican furnish a list of the imports into St. Louis for the last two years, by boats, as they appear on the harbor-master's books.

	1844.	1845.		1844.	1845.
Apples, green,.....bbls.	7,233	6,314	Beeswax,.....bbls.	337	319
dried,.....	1,892	2,989boxes	139	102
".....sacks	2,388	2,147	Bagging,.....pcs.	3,120	4,217
Axes,.....boxes	772	1,696	Beans,.....bbls.	1,518	2,091
Beef,.....bbls.	4,280	5,264sacks	389	1,320
.....half bbls.	63	99	Barley,.....bush.	8,478	32,231
Bacon,.....casks	19,225	6,180	Buffalo robes,.....No.	33,670	14,475
.....boxes	484	149	Boots,.....bxs.	5,729	6,699
bulk,.....lbs.	89,725	94,274trunks	316	65
Butter,.....bbls.	618	558	Corn,.....bu-h.	56,720	107,927
.....kegs	2,660	3,120	Castings,.....tons	937	1,590
.....firkins	439	304	Cheese,.....casks	550	221
Beeswax,.....sacks	698	529bxs.	9,337	8,822

TABLE—CONTINUED.

	1844.	1845.		1844.	1845.
Cider,.....	bbls. 711	763	Pork,.....	bbls. 29,945	15,702
Candles, sperm,.....	boxes 1,035	3,442	half bbls. 73	89
tallow,..... 1,199	2,068	bulk,..... lbs. 136,333	261,754
Coffee,.....	sacks 38,731	46,204	Peaches, green,.....	bbls. 382	735
Cattle,.....	No. 478	522	dried,..... 356	1,000
Cotton yarn,.....	packages 5,354	10,756	"..... sacks 445	826
Flour,.....	bbls. 88,881	139,282	Potatoes,..... 21,272	12,045
.....	hf. bbls. 530	563 bbls. 3,915	2,449
Furs,.....	packages 973	2,555	Peltries,..... packages 540	917
Fish,.....	kegs 243	620	Powder,..... kegs 8,100	11,556
.....	tubs 350	317 canisters 813	1,950
.....	boxes 1,559	7,071	Paper, wrapping, reams 11,758	11,623
.....	bbls. 1,508	3,996	writing,..... 2,330	4,448
.....	half bbls. 1,011	1,403	Queensware,..... crates 1,925	1,728
Feathers,.....	sacks 471	816 casks 1,968	1,168
Flax-seed,.....	bbls. 2,741	2,136	Rice,..... tcs. 670	869
Dry-Goods,.....	boxes 41,315	17,665 bbls. 163	34
.....	pack'ges 71,632	22,626	Rye,..... 61	3,054
.....	bales 11,208	12,014	Rope, hemp,..... coils 12,525	8,890
Ginseng,.....	sacks 34	63	tarred,..... 532	31
.....	bbls. 75	20	Manilla,..... 1,002	1,514
Glass,*.....	boxes 4,697	23,563	Shot,..... kegs	28
Hemp,.....	bales 59,292	30,997 bags 88	2,112
Hides,.....	No. 55,572	70,102	Soap,..... bxs. 3,731	12,165
Hay,.....	bales 104	315	Starch,..... 852	138
Horses,.....	No. 428	572	Skins,..... 32,859	25,205
Hogs,..... 624	209	Segars, foreign, boxes, 1,000 each,.....	1,266
Hemp-seed,.....	bbls. 1,010	906	Segars, domestic, boxes, 1,000 each,.....	554
Iron, bar,.....	tons 1,981	2,282 554	490
.....	pigs 1,469	1,480	Salt, domestic, fine, bbls. 25,257	21,157
Lead,..... 595,012	750,879	"..... coarse,.....	2,479
bar,.....	lbs. 19,300	88,650	L. B.,..... sacks 7,368	10,797
Lard,.....	bbls. 12,293	7,652	G. A.,..... 105,139	88,475
.....	kegs 12,949	6,559	T. I.,..... 11,727	13,412
Whiskey,.....	bbls. 24,510	29,798	Sugar,..... hhds. 9,070	10,797
Gin,..... 450	359 bbls. 1,912	3,721
Brandy,..... 1,477	1,886 boxes 1,530	516
Rum,..... 161	181	Sheep,..... No. 926	451
Wine,..... 2,611	3,600	Shoes,..... boxes 5,785	9,595
Malt liquor,..... 1,450	2,096 trunks 712	442
Lead, white,.....	kegs 5,256	3,466	Tallow,..... casks 32	75
red,..... 188 bbls. 810	688
Mules,.....	No. 98	25	Tar,..... 528	1,630
Molasses,*.....	bbls. 3,270	11,788 kegs 2,011	4,128
Nails,.....	kegs 23,703	21,587	Tin-plate,..... bxs. 2,836	4,214
Oil, sperm,.....	bbls. 353	316	Tobacco,..... hhds. 9,707	11,564
linseed,..... 140	695	manuf'd,..... boxes 7,380	7,777
tanners',..... 160	577	Teas,..... chests 1,361	434
castor,..... 106	78 half chests 979	1,652
lard,..... 867	284	Vinegar,..... bbls. 1,373	1,032
Onions,.....	sacks 2,351	1,893	Wheat,..... bush. 720,663	971,025
.....	bbls. 1,449	217			
Oakum,.....	bales 681	1,104			

The foregoing is not only imperfect in reference to the importations by the boats, but it includes none of those articles which are brought to the city by land. But it affords some evidence, and from the number, character and quality of the articles, an estimate may be formed, how far the commerce of St. Louis is identified with the commerce of the nation, and with the foreign trade.

* Incomplete.

From the lumber-master's books, for the year 1845, we learn that there was received and measured—

Wood,	22,646	Lumber,.....	feet	10,389,332
Shingles,	13,927,500	Cooper's stuff,.....		441,700
Laths,	2,328,600	Hewn timber,.....	feet	2,000
Timber axletrees,....	pieces	Saw logs,.....		788
Mulberry posts,.....	5,263	Cedar logs,.....		276
Clapboards,.....	1,000	Stone coal,.....	bush.	16,560

It may be proper to remark, that the vessels engaged in transporting wood, lumber, &c., to St. Louis, are not embraced in the reports of the harbor-master.

We have already extended this article to a much greater length than we designed, and must therefore conclude with a few remarks from the Missouri Republican :—

“It may be properly assumed, that trade, shipping, or business, cannot be diverted, to any considerable extent, by mere artificial means, from channels which nature, the country, population and their necessities, have given it. If St. Louis, then, commands at this early day, (early at least in her commercial history,) a large commerce, and this, too, without artificial aid or national encouragement, it is but a rational conclusion, that it cannot be diverted, nor can any amount of capital supply the place of the rivers which constitute her great highways.

“It is useless to discuss this point. The position and natural advantages which New York enjoys, give her a commercial pre-eminence: the want, or absence of these advantages, have caused other cities on the seaboard, once her superiors in wealth, population and trade, to become her tributaries. A nation, justly appreciating the advantages given to particular localities, by nature, whilst it should not neglect any, should certainly feel bound to protect and foster those in which the greatest number are interested. Without vanity, we think we may claim for St. Louis, that she is *one of those great points* designed to constitute a commercial depot for the whole country. Her position is as essential to the east, as it is favorable to the people who live in its vicinity. Her commerce furnishes supplies for foreign trade, and a home consumption of the products of that trade. Why, then, is her harbor, its improvement and protection, placed beyond the pale of constitutional assistance from the general government?

“If the harbor of New York were in imminent danger of being destroyed—if vessels could not enter or depart without grounding, and being subject to much peril, delay and expense—would any one say it was not the business of the general government immediately to remove the difficulty, and, as far as practicable, prevent its recurrence? The constitutional power, and the duty of the United States government, to protect and improve harbors looking out upon the sea, we believe, has never been questioned or doubted by the most ultra abstractionist. Yet New York, and many of the harbors on the coast and upon the lakes, are better situated for their own protection, than the city of St. Louis. If an obstruction should occur in the harbor of New York, the jurisdiction of the city, or state, would probably reach far enough to remove it—at least, we suppose it would reach to the Jersey shore on one side, to the sea indefinitely, and quite across East river. The same might be said of Boston, Baltimore, and other ports. But St. Louis is differently situated; the jurisdiction of the city, or state, extends only to *the middle of the main channel of the Mississippi river*. With the jurisdiction of Illinois over the other half of the river, no power but that of the United States government can interfere. The Mississippi is a national highway, beyond the jurisdiction of states or cities. New York, Boston, or Buffalo harbors, are no more nor less free to the nations of the world than this river. Yet, will it be contended, that the people of New York, Boston and Buffalo, should protect or improve these national harbors, at their own expense, when all nations may enjoy their benefits? Upon the seaboard and the lakes, the people directly interested in the preservation of the harbors, have jurisdiction, which gives a power which this city has not over the Mis-

Mississippi river. They can, of themselves, improve their harbors; we cannot, because of a want of jurisdiction on both shores of the river. Can it be, that the Constitution of the United States is so framed, that Congress may, with the authority of that instrument, assist those having full power to help themselves, and yet that it cannot constitutionally help those who are stripped of all authority to do so? The proposition appears to be too absurd for argument."

Art. VI.—CHEMISTRY APPLIED TO COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES:

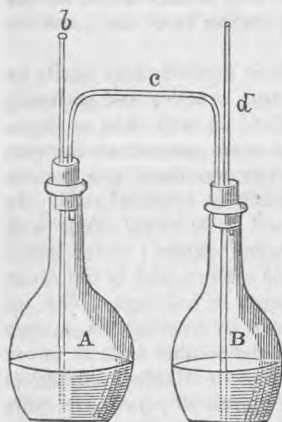
A NEW, SIMPLE, AND ACCURATE METHOD OF ASCERTAINING THE COMMERCIAL VALUE OF POTASH AND SODA.

THE various methods for ascertaining the amount of *potash* and *soda* contained in commercial pearlsh and soda, or rather the *carbonate* salts of these bases, have been collectively termed *alkalimetry*. Their importance in commerce, to manufactures and consumers, has induced many chemists to direct their attention to this subject. All have, however, followed the same principle, first laid down by Descroizelles, of which the methods of Gay-Lussac, and other chemists, are only modifications, having for their object to render the execution of the operation more easy, and the results more certain.

The conditions requisite for the success of these methods may easily be satisfied by careful manipulation, correct apparatus, practice and patience, when the potash or soda to be tested are not mixed up with salts or impurities which neutralize the sulphuric acid in the same manner as the carbonate alkalies. But salts of this kind are always contained, to a greater or less amount, in all ashes of plants, and especially in artificial soda. In the former, these consist of alkaline silicates and phosphates, along with carbonates, silicates and phosphates of the alkaline earths; in the latter, of sulphite and hyposulphite of soda, sulphuret of sodium, and in the crude soda, moreover, of carbonate of lime and sulphuret of calcium. The insoluble salts of the earths may be easily removed by treating the sample with water and filtering, but the separation of the soluble salts is either very difficult, (those sodas which contain sulphites or alkaline sulphurets must, before they can be tested, be fused with chlorate of potash,) or quite impossible; such is the case when the impurities consist of hyposulphites, silicates and phosphates. The presence of these salts, when they occur in any quantity, renders the examinations of potashes and sodas by the methods hitherto in use far from accurate: the per centage amount of carbonate alkalies in the pearlshes and sodas is always indicated too high, to the disadvantage of the buyer. The importance of this objection will be most clearly evident from the fact, that most of the commercial sodas contain such amount of sulphite and hyposulphite of soda, that only approximate results can be obtained with the methods hitherto in use, (sometimes 3, 4, 6, and more per cent too much,) a circumstance which increases its importance, as the artificial soda has now nearly driven that obtained from plants entirely out of the market.

The mode of testing which we have adopted, and which we will now describe, is founded on a principle not less simple than the old method, but is exactly the reverse of it. To find the amount of a compound body, the constituents of which are in a known, definite and invariable proportion, it is not requisite to determine the amount of all the constituents; a know-

ledge of the quantity of the one or of the other allows of finding out the amount of the whole. The object of the examination of potashes and sodas is the determination of the carbonated alkalis contained in them. According to the old method, the amount of *alkali* was determined by measuring off the acid required for neutralization; in our method, it is the carbonic acid which is in combination with the alkalis, which is determined. For this purpose, we have constructed a new apparatus, in which the drying of the carbonic acid is not effected, as in former ones, by means of chloride of calcium, but in the most simple manner by the same sulphuric acid which expels the carbonic acid from its combinations. It admits of a considerable quantity of substance being decomposed, and there need be no fear of having employed too little acid. The water is absorbed more completely than with chloride of calcium, and it is not requisite to employ heat, as the sulphuric acid itself performs this office. The accuracy and constancy of results, even with an ordinary balance, and the ease with which the results may be obtained by every one, have far exceeded our expectations; and lastly, the apparatus is so simple, that it may readily be constructed by any person, as will be evident from the annexed wood-cut.



A and B are two wide-mouthed bottles, of which A contains from 4 to 5 ounces of water; B is of somewhat smaller capacity, (from 3 to 4 ounces.) These vessels are closed with corks, each of which is bored twice, and into which the glass tubes, *b*, *c* and *d* are fitted in the manner shown in the wood-cut. The extremities of all the tubes are open; when in use, the tube *b* is closed at its extremity with a piece of wax. A weighed quantity of the substance is conveyed into A, which is then filled one-third with water; B is filled one-half with ordinary sulphuric acid. The corks are now fitted into the apparatus, which is then weighed. Some air is sucked out by the tube *d*, in consequence of which the air in the entire apparatus becomes diluted, and the sulphuric acid in B ascends the tube *c*, and a portion flows over into A; but as soon as this comes into the solution of the carbonate salt, a violent evolution of carbonic acid gas ensues. This, from the arrangement of the apparatus, is forced to pass through the sulphuric acid in B before it can escape through the tube *d*, the only opening in the apparatus, and in its passage, all moisture is perfectly absorbed and retained. When the sulphuric acid reaches the liquid in A, this becomes hot and expands, and also the air above it; on cooling, both reassume their original volume; and the result is, that a fresh portion of sulphuric acid flows into A as soon as the evolution of gas ceases; this is, moreover, assisted at the commencement of the operation, by some of the carbonic acid contained in A being absorbed by the still undecomposed carbonated alkali. However, to save time, it is far more simple, each time after evolution of gas has ceased, to draw more air through the tube *d*. In this manner, the operation may be finished in a few minutes. When the carbonate salt is entirely decomposed, which is immediately seen from no more evolution of gas resulting on the addition of fresh acid,

a somewhat large quantity of the sulphuric acid still contained in B is made to pass over into A by suction, which heats the liquid so much that the whole of the carbonic acid which had been absorbed escapes. When all evolution of gas has ceased, the wax is removed from the end of the tube *b*, and air drawn through at *d*, until the whole of the carbonic acid with which the apparatus was filled, is replaced by air. The apparatus is then allowed to cool, wiped dry, and weighed. The loss in weight indicates the amount of carbonic acid which was contained in the sample, with the greatest accuracy, and from this, the amount of carbonated alkalis contained in the pearlash or soda may be easily ascertained, as will be subsequently shown.

Before proceeding to describe the details in the practical execution of this method, we will take into consideration the influence which the foreign salts, such as chlorides, sulphurets, sulphites and hyposulphites, have when the above apparatus is employed for determining the value of commercial potash or soda. The presence of chlorides gives rise to no error, as from the diluted state of the solution of the sample not a trace of the liberated muriatic acid escapes. The injurious effects which would result from the presence of sulphurets, sulphites, and hyposulphites, are easily obviated by adding a small quantity of neutral chromate of potash to the solution of potash or soda under examination. Both the sulphurous acid and the sulphuretted hydrogen are decomposed on their liberation into water and sulphur, with formation of sulphate of the oxide of chromium, all of which remain in the solution.

The sources of error arising from the presence of foreign salts are therefore easily obviated; but there is still one other circumstance which must be taken into consideration. Can the commercial value of pearlash and soda be actually determined with accuracy from the ascertained amount of carbonic acid, or is the amount of carbonic acid in the soluble parts of the pearlash and soda in proportion to the quantity of alkali which is rendered caustic by treatment with lime, (which consequently determines their value,) in a definite and constant proportion, or is it indefinite and varying?

Were the latter view correct, then the new method would be false in principle; if, on the contrary, the proportion is constant and invariable, or, in case it is not, can be rendered so, then we can conceive of no objection that can be made to our mode of examination.

Pearlash and soda are universally considered to contain neutral carbonate of alkali; opinions contrary to this have been recently asserted by some chemists. According to one statement, the carbonic acid is said to be sometimes in smaller proportion to the alkali than in the neutral carbonate; according to others, it is sometimes higher. According to some, many potashes and sodas contain caustic alkali, together with the neutral carbonate; according to others, bicarbonate, sesquicarbonate, &c. We have examined into the truth of these statements, and have shown how the injurious influence of the anomalies may be obviated. But there is one source of error which our method has, in common with all the others; it is that carbonate of soda, supposing it to be present in pearlash, is calculated as carbonate of potash, and *vice versa*. If, however, it is a question only of the definite equivalents of alkali, which are to be employed, as it were, merely as the bearer of a force to produce certain chemical effects, then a perfectly correct result is obtained; for by so much the smaller the equiva-

lent number of soda is to that of potash, just that quantity of potash is brought into calculation, instead of soda. Or, in other words, we may say that the carbonic acid is proportional to the force and effect of the potash as well as of the soda, or of a mixture of the two.

With respect to *caustic potash*, this certainly occurs in the North American pearlshes, but we have never been able to detect it in the Illyrian, Bohemian and German kinds. *Caustic soda* occurs very frequently in the commercial sodas. The method of detecting these, and ascertaining their quantity, will be subsequently described.

Bicarbonate, or rather *sesquicarbonate of potash or soda*, is formed in pearlsh and soda by the absorption of carbonic acid from the atmosphere, when they are exposed for a long time in contact with the air.* We have found its quantity, in our experiments, to be generally very small, in most cases scarcely to be detected. To ascertain its presence, the solution of the pearlsh or soda is treated with solution of chloride of calcium in excess, filtered, and ammonia added to the clear liquid, which will become immediately turbid, if it be present. It has, however, no influence on the result, for it is converted by a gentle heat into the neutral carbonate; and according to our method, the sample is always heated before being tested.

Herrmann has recently denied the accuracy of the generally-received opinion, that the sesquicarbonate or bicarbonate of potash is converted by ignition into neutral salt. Numerous experiments and analyses which we have made, have proved the incorrectness of his results. Our experiments showed, in fact, that no combination containing more carbonic acid than the neutral salt could exist at a high temperature.

Special Directions for examining Pearlsh and Soda.

To estimate accurately the commercial value of pearlsh and soda, we must determine their amount of water, and the quantity of the carbonated alkali. In the first place, it is, however, requisite to ascertain whether they contain any caustic alkali, sulphites or hyposulphites, sulphurets or earthy carbonates, in order that the injurious influence which they would have on the result of the examination may be obviated.

1. *Carbonates of the Alkaline Earths.* A sample of the pulverized potash of soda is treated with hot rain-water; it should dissolve entirely; if a white powder remain behind, which effervesces with acids after edulcoration, it will indicate the presence of carbonate of lime or carbonate of magnesia. In this case, the weighed sample must be treated with hot rain-water, the solution filtered, the residue well washed, and what has passed through, after having been somewhat evaporated, is brought into the bottle A.

2. *Sulphites and Hyposulphites.* These salts occur only in soda, never in potash. Their presence is most readily detected by coloring about two ounces of dilute sulphuric acid reddish-yellow with some chromate of potash, and then adding some of the soda to be tested, with this precaution, however, that the liquid always remains acid. If the reddish-yellow color is converted into green, then the above salts are present. Sulphuret of sodium gives rise to the same change of color, but wherever this is found, it may be admitted with certainty that hyposulphite of soda is also present. The alkaline sulphurets are most easily detected, by moistening the potash or soda with a solution of common (sesqui) carbonate of ammonia. When they are present, sulphuret of ammonium is given off, which is easily recognized by its smell, and its property of blackening paper moistened with

solution of acetate of lead. When either one or the other of these mixtures is present, a small quantity of neutral chromate of potash is added in the determination of the carbonic acid.

3. *Caustic Potash and Caustic Soda.* One part of the pearlash or soda under examination is mixed with about three parts chloride of barium, and treated with hot water, well stirred, and some of the filtered liquid tested with dahlia or curcuma paper. If the former becomes green, or the latter brown, caustic potash is present. It need hardly be mentioned that the chloride of barium should be perfectly neutral, and that it should be in excess; of this it is easy to be convinced, by adding to the filtered solution some more chloride of barium, which should give rise to no further precipitate. This mode of testing deserves the preference to all others, on account of its simplicity and certainty. If sulphuret of potassium or of sodium, which would likewise cause an alkaline reaction, is present, it is unnecessary to test for the caustic alkalis, for we may be certain that they are then present.

In case caustic alkali should be present, the sample weighed off for the determination of the carbonic acid is rubbed up with three or four parts of quartz-sand, and from one-fourth to a third of the amount of sample of pulverized carbonate of ammonia mixed with it; the powder is brought into a porcelain dish, and so much water dropped on the mass as it can absorb; it is allowed to stand for a time, and then heated until the whole of the water and carbonate of ammonia are expelled. If the potash or soda contain, besides caustic alkali, an alkaline sulphuret, then solution of ammonia should be employed to moisten the mass, in order to convert the sesquicarbonate of ammonia into neutral salt, otherwise sulphuret of ammonium would be disengaged, and a portion of the alkaline sulphuret be converted into carbonate. When cooled, the mass is brought into the vessel A, the dish washed with some water, and proceeded with as described below. The sand serves to prevent the caking together of the mass, and also any loss in the drying.

For determining the amount of water of the pearlash or soda, a small crucible of iron or porcelain is placed with its lid on the one plate of a common but accurate hand-scale, which is then loaded with a 10-gramme piece, and the balance brought, by means of shot and tinfoil, into equilibrium. Samples are now selected from various parts, and pulverized, the 10-gramme piece removed from the balance, and in its stead powder conveyed into the crucible until equilibrium is perfectly established. In this way we have exactly 10 grammes of potash or soda in the crucible.

This is now heated over a good spirit-lamp until the whole of the water is expelled, and after cooling, is brought on the scale, when the number of decigrammes which must be added to restore equilibrium will indicate the per centage amount of water.

6.29 grammes of the anhydrous pearlash thus obtained are weighed off, but of the anhydrous soda ash 4.84, and conveyed into the bottle A of the apparatus, which is then filled above one-third with water.* The apparatus is now arranged, dried and weighed, and some sulphuric acid caused to pass by slight suction at *d* from the vessel B into A.† After complete

* Some neutral chromate of potash is added to the water in the case of soda, or a solution of bichromate of potash saturated to excess with ammonia.

† The first drops of the concentrated sulphuric acid produce a violent evolution of gas, which has, however, not the least influence on the result.

decomposition, the wax stopper at *b* is removed, and air drawn through the apparatus, in which operation a tube filled with moist hydrate of lime may be employed, if the taste of the carbonic acid is found to be disagreeable; it is then cooled, which may be hastened by immersion in cold water, dried, placed on the scale, and weights substituted for the carbonic acid which has escaped.

The number of centigrammes which have to be added to the apparatus to restore equilibrium, divided by 2, gives directly the per centage amount of anhydrous carbonate of potash or soda. Suppose, for instance, with 6.29 grammes pearlash, the apparatus had lost 1.60 grammes in weight of carbonic acid, then it would contain $\frac{1.60}{2} = 80$ per cent of carbonate of potash.

The determination of the amount of caustic soda or potash which may be contained along with the carbonated alkalies in pearlash or soda ash, is not only important in a commercial point of view, and to the manufacturer, but is of considerable scientific interest. Our alkalimetric method affords the simplest means of ascertaining this.

According to whether it is pearlash or soda, 6.29 or 4.84 grammes of the anhydrous residue are weighed off twice; the one portion is employed to determine the carbonic acid direct; the other, after previous treatment with carbonate of ammonia. From the difference in the weights obtained, the amount of caustic potash will be found by multiplying it by 34.101; for soda, it must be multiplied by 29.38, in order to find the per centage of caustic soda. The authors then detail a numerous series of experiments, made with a view to determine the accuracy of their method both with commercial sodas and pearlashes, as well as with some prepared kinds in which the amount was accurately known. The three following examples will suffice:—

1. *a.* 4.84 grms. of a mixture of equal parts of anhydrous carbonate of soda and anhydrous sulphate of soda afforded 1.002 grm. carbonic acid.

b. 3.185 of the same mixture saturated 57.5° of Gay-Lussac's testing acid.

c. 3.185 saturated in a second experiment 58.4°.

2. *a.* 4.84 grms. of a mixture of 2 parts of carbonate of soda and 1 part sulphate of soda gave 1.33 grm. carbonic acid.

b. 3.185 saturated 80° testing acid.

c. " " 79.5° "

d. " " 79° "

3. *a.* 4.84 pure crystallized soda gave 0.745 grm. carbonic acid.

b. " " " 0.753 " "

c. 3.185 pure crystallized soda saturated 46° testing acid.

d. " " " 45° "

100 parts of the analyzed mixtures contain, therefore, of anhydrous carbonate of soda—

	According to our method.		According to Gay-Lussac's process.		Calc.
1.	50.1		48.9	49.7	50.0
2.	66.5		68.1	67.7	66.6
3.	37.2	37.6	39.1	38.2	37.2

ART. VII.—A HAMBURGH MERCHANT IN HIS COUNTING-HOUSE.

It was not six o'clock, yet I was already pacing my room with hasty and anxious strides, and my fellow lodgers must certainly have regretted my vicinity, in that I was the indiscreet disturber of their morning repose. Was ever poor author, through unforeseen circumstances, betrayed into a more vexatious dilemma than was I at that moment, in the free Hanse Town of Hamburg? My exchequer was exhausted, and my departure yet to be effected, with not a red cent left in my pocket. Mr. Marr, my friendly host, is good and kind-hearted, and not the man to cut an unpaid account immediately from one's skin; but the Prussian Schellpost takes no passengers on credit, and on the next day, without fail, I must forth to Berlin. For the twentieth time had I rummaged through my letter-case, in the hope that some shrinking treasure-certificate, some modest letter of credit, might have crept into a corner, but in vain! Stop! what paper is that? It is a letter which a well-wishing patron has given me, and which I have negligently omitted to present. The address is quite simple—"Herr Mohrfeld, Deich-street." I breathed aloud, "Perhaps this is the man from whom help is to reach me." I remembered that my patron had described him as the head of a very eminent mercantile house, whose acquaintance would greatly advantage me. Speedily did I come to a decision—dressed myself, and with the stroke of eight left the hotel for Deich-street, where I expected my rescuing angel to appear to me. Stop! here, at the hop-market, I must pause a moment. Yonder is a short, thick-set man, in a blue overcoat, with badly combed brown hair, and whose ruddy face has a blunt and taciturn expression. He has bought a good fish, sent a porter away with it, and pursues his walk. He has his hands crossed behind him—his eyes cast upon the ground—and with a low humming, turns into the Deich-street. Without his taking any notice of me, we strode together, and at last both stood still before the same house. There he recovered from his thoughtful manner, and looking steadily at me, asked in a suppressed tone, "Do you wish to speak with any one here?" Vexed that so ordinary-looking a man should address me with so little ceremony, I answered with some haughtiness, "I have business with the house of Mohrfeld." He smiled, and then said earnestly, "I am Mohrfeld!" What! and from this man, who buys his own fish, and appears in a threadbare coat, am I to expect help? Is this mean-looking personage the only dependence, in respect of his purse, of his novel-writing guest? But he was the only anchor of hope to which I could cling. With lightning haste I removed my hat, and said, with a most respectful air, "Pardon me! I had till now not the honor—I have"—here I drew the letter from my pocket—"a commission to deliver this letter." Herr Mohrfeld interrupted me, "Not now; by and by I will speak with you in the counting-room; you must, however, wait awhile. Come"—he stepped into the house, and I followed. In the great hall, all was activity. There were two great scales, on which workmen were weighing coffee, as a clerk stood by with his memorandum book. Mr. Mohrfeld looked on silently for a few moments, and was passing on, when a laborer threw down a bag of coffee in a manner to burst it, and scatter the berries upon the floor. "What gross carelessness!" tartly exclaimed the merchant; and stooping to collect the scattered coffee, continued, "Gather it all up, and put it again in the sack. Then have it

properly mended, and you, Mr. Moller, see that the bag is weighed afterwards, and if there is a loss, charge the amount to this improvident man. It shall be deducted from his week's pay."

"That is hard," said the man. "Only a little coffee!"—

"Only a little coffee!" answered the merchant, quickly. "He who despises trifles, is not worthy of great things; out of eight and forty shillings is composed a thaler; and to one good vintage many warm days are necessary. So! not worth the trouble! Negligence is a great failing, and ruinous to ordinary business. Mr. Moller, when this man again, even in the smallest particular, displays his carelessness, discharge him on the spot. I make you answerable."

"Great God!" thought I, "for a handful of coffee, will he deprive a man of his bread? How hard! how cruel! how will it go with me?"

A young man, dressed with great elegance, came now out of the office, bowed to the merchant, and was about to pass out of the door, but at a look from his employer, stood still.

"What an appearance you make," said Mohrfeld, disdainfully. "Is there to be a ball in my counting-house? and where were you yesterday evening? If I am not in error, you were curvetting on a palfrey out at the Damn Door, and had no time to observe your employer, who passed you on foot."

"I beg a thousand pardons," answered the young man, turning blood-red in his face. "I"—

"So good!" interrupted Mohrfeld. "I have nothing to do with that which my people do out of business hours, if they perform their duties punctually. But with you it is different. You have a poor mother who suffers for necessaries; three uneducated brothers, two of whom I met yesterday barefoot, and that at a time of life when they should be in school. It would be more honor to you to attend to that, and to take care of your brothers, instead of dressing in the latest fashion, and capering upon a saddle-horse. Go to your business, sir."

The young man became purple in the face, withdrew himself backwards like a crab, and vanished through the door. The merchant strode through the store, and entered the counting-room, where I followed him. What a sight! a long and rather gloomy hall presented itself, with numerous desks, behind each of which stood a person busily writing or reckoning, and of whom I counted thirty. In an adjoining room sat many more. Not far from the door sat a rather elderly man at a counter, and near him stood several iron chests, and the association drew from me a deep sigh.

"Well, Mr. Casten," said the merchant, as he approached his cashier, "what news?" "But little," answered he, quietly. "There is a demand for bills. We have, however, nothing to spare. In Livonia we have nothing, and on Genoa and Venice we have not more than our three ships loading for those ports require. Two value on New York, and one on Havana, that will be wanted, and I have notified them. Can you use any Copenhagen or Swedish paper at the current rates?" "No! there must be as little funds as possible locked up in paper. I shall need a large cash balance. Remember that." He passed on, and stood before a desk. "Were the goods sent yesterday on board the *Artemisia*, Mr. Kohler?" he asked. "Are the policies for the *Pleil* taken out, and has Captain Heyesen got his papers?" "It is all attended to," said the clerk. "Here is the bill of lading; here the policy, and the receipt of the captain."

“Good; your punctuality pleases me. Go on, method is the soul of business. Take care of that sand, however. It has a slovenly appearance to see it so scattered as on your desk.”

Mr Mohrfeld had now arrived at his desk, which was secluded from the main hall by a rail. He pointed me to a chair, and began to examine some letters that had waited his coming. A deep silence now pervaded the room, which was broken only by the monotonous scratching of many quills. No loud word was spoken, and seldom a suppressed whisper was heard. No notice was taken of me; not a word was addressed to me, nor was a curious glance directed towards me. The merchant read through his letters, and called several young men to him, giving directions, but receiving no answers. “At one o’clock, all must be ready for signature. You, Mr. Becker, must take care that no more errors creep into your French letters. You are too quick, too hasty. Take example of Mr. Hart—his English letters are a master correspondence. Above all, I observe lately in your letters a worthless innovation. You use a pompous, verbose style, and employ three lines where three words are sufficient. Abandon that. A flowery style is always a folly, and especially so in mercantile letters; but it comes from the senseless novels and romances that you are eternally reading, and which will yet incapacitate you for every useful employment. I have warned you—take care for the future.”

This was a brilliant prospect! What reception could a novel-writer expect from a man possessed of such views? At this moment Mohrfeld turned to me, and said rather short, “Well, sir, about our business!” “At your service,” I stammered, and reached him my letter; but he had not opened it ere we were again interrupted. “See there! good morning, Captain Heysen,” said the merchant, with animation. “You come, probably, to take leave; a lucky voyage to you, and bring yourself and crew back in good health. Pay good attention to ship and cargo, and make me no ‘general average.’ Your wife, say you? why, in any circumstances let her apply to me at once. If you have a good opportunity, and avail yourself skillfully of it, you may be back by Christmas. Well, adieu, Captain, you have”—here he glanced at the almanac—“no time to lose. It is now high water, you may lose the tide, and I am not pleased to have the ship anchored at Blankenese. Lucky voyage.” The captain vanished, and another man took his place. “Good morning, Mr. Flugge, what have you to say?” asked the merchant; “I am well pleased with that last purchase of wood. You earned your commission with honor. When you have such another lot on the same terms, let me know. My ships must be employed. There are already three lying idle. As soon as the new stock arrives, let me know. Adieu.” “I beg your pardon, sir,”—this was directed to me—“that I keep you so long waiting, but the current business takes precedence.” “Good morning, Pilot! Already back. Is my ‘Hope’ gone to sea safely?” “All as you wish, Mr. Mohrfeld,” answered a robust Elbe pilot. “The ship is a fast sailer, and not afraid of a breeze. Here is a letter from the captain. But I must to-day on board another vessel. Perhaps I can take my pilotage with me? “That’s of course, Pilot; and for the quick pilotage, ten thalers more. Go to my cashier, he will make it all right.” “What do you want!” This was addressed to a meagre-looking little man, with a bald head and snuffy nose, who, in a threadbare black coat, and stooping posture, stood before the wealthy merchant.

"I beg a thousand pardons," he answered, "I am Doctor Eck, from Frankfort. I have for a long time had in consideration the peculiar procreation of mankind, and at last have succeeded in the formation of a brilliant theory, that I intend to promulgate in a series of lectures; and I would therefore solicit"—

"I am sorry," interrupted the merchant, "but I am opposed to all theories that cannot be promptly applied to the concerns of life. Away with your air-castles, fog-projects and chimeras! I am very sorry."

The poor doctor perspired with anxiety; and scarcely able to speak, he looked pitifully at the subscription list in his hand, and stammered out something of patrons and down-trodden sons of Minerva; but his voice faded into an indistinguishable murmur. The merchant regarded him for a moment with a sarcastic smile, then took the list and wrote a line. It must have been a very important line, for the face of the doctor brightened with a heartfelt laugh as he busied himself to lay more papers upon the desk. The merchant motioned him away, saying, "No matter! It is a pleasure to me when my signature can be of use to a meritorious and learned man, even if personally I derive no profit from his talents. Your theory and my practice are very different; an interchange of ideas that are so directly opposed, leads only to endless confusion. Farewell!"

The doctor retired, and made room for a man who pressed close up, and without further ceremony began: "Mr. Mohrfeld, your 'Fortuna' is quite ready, and can be launched at any moment. I wish to know what time you will appoint?"

"Monday morning, Mr. Reich," answered the merchant. "I am well pleased with your prompt and efficient mode of business. Now, as young beginners should be encouraged, you may lay the keel of a new ship on my account. Try yourself at that. I passed your yard yesterday, and observed the order and industry with which it is conducted. Persevere in that manner. Well! remember Monday morning. Farewell! Who are you?"

This was addressed to a poorly-clad woman, with pallid cheeks and eyes red with weeping, who now stood before him. At this nearly harsh address of the merchant, she looked anxiously up, and answered, "I am the wife of Bodmer, the man who was so unfortunate as to fall from the loft and break his leg."

"Shocking! very shocking! I am very sorry for Bodmer; he was an orderly man, and ever cheerfully performed his duties. But my surgeon visited him; what did he say?"

"He gives the best hope of saving my husband's life, but it will be a tedious sickness; and who knows if the poor man will ever again be able to work? What, then, shall we, with our five poor children, do?"

"Have confidence in the man in whose service you have met the misfortune," answered the merchant. "What the patient needs of wine and strengthening food, shall be furnished from my kitchen. The weekly wages you will receive regularly on Saturday. Now go home, and remember me to your husband, whom I will soon visit."

The woman through her tears rendered speechless thanks, and the merchant began reading my letter.

"Your letter has rather an old date," said he suddenly; "I have long expected it. Your circumscribed time has probably prevented an earlier call?"

I stammered out a lie, something about my indisposition to disturb so active a business man, and that at the moment I was in great necessity. He did not let me finish, but went on.

"You are here highly recommended to me. If I can do anything for you, speak freely. Persons away from home, frequently stand in need of aid."

This was the moment to speak of the deep ebb of my purse; but oh! the false shame—the words would not leave my lips.

"Nothing?" he proceeded. "Well, on another occasion, perhaps. Come, however, on Sunday to my cottage before the Damn Door, and take a spoonful of soup with me. Men of business have on week-days but small leisure to bestow on mere conversation."

Here was my dismissal; but without money, however, I could not go. I was completely cleaned out, and must travel. At this moment there came to my rescue a clerk, who handed between the desk and myself a letter brought by an express, addressed to Mr. Mohrfeld. It was instantly opened and read, and was probably of a favorable nature, as a pleasing smile played round the lips of the merchant; but suddenly, as if betraying a weakness, it again vanished, and he laid the letter with accustomed unconcern on one side. As he did so, his glance again fell on me.

"Anything further to command, sir?"

Now must I speak, cost what it will. I stepped close to his chair, bowed my lips to his ear, and poured forth a multitude of words, among which the most emphatic were, "want of money." To an elegant construction of sentences at such a moment, would even Demosthenes have given no thought. The merchant stared at me with wondering eyes, then took my letter in hand and again read it through with close attention; after which, he wrote a line under it and handed it to me, saying, "Here, sir, have the goodness to hand this to my cashier. I shall depend on seeing you at my table on Sunday; for the present you will excuse me."

I bowed silently, and soon stood before the man surrounded with iron chests. He took the letter, and said, "You have to receive one hundred marks courant. Will you please give a receipt? Here is the money."

"And here, sir, is your receipt," cried I with a lightened heart, as I thrust the fifty-one thalers, nineteen and two-thirds shillings into my pocket, hurried out of the office into the free air of heaven, and turned towards the Alster Hall, in the elegantly-decorated rooms of which I speedily enjoyed a substantial breakfast.

Art. VIII.—THE NATIONAL FAIR OF WASHINGTON.

THE national exhibition which was held in the city of Washington, commencing on the twenty-first of May last, and closing on the third of June, for the purpose of displaying to the public the products of the various branches of the industry of the country, exceeded any of a similar kind that has ever been witnessed since the foundation of the government, not only in magnitude, but in the splendor of its decorations. It was, moreover, opened in a place peculiarly appropriate to the occasion. Washington, the political centre of the nation, during the session of the national legislature, constituting at that time the central point of political influence, and the place of assemblage of the two most prominent deliberative bodies gathered from every quarter of the Union, presented advantages for

that particular object, which were extraordinary. It is, emphatically, national ground. It is removed from local prejudices and sectional jealousies in its political position, lying especially within national jurisdiction, and beyond that of any of the states. Whatever may be the effect of such an exhibition of domestic products, it was within the immediate view, and under the cognizance of the constituted legislative power of the country, and it composed within itself a collection whose materials have constituted one of the great topics of national legislation.

Unusual efforts were made, on the part of all concerned, to render it worthy of the occasion. An edifice was erected for this purpose, at an expense of five thousand dollars, and a pavilion two hundred and sixty feet long in one direction, two hundred and forty feet in the other, and sixty feet wide, was completed for the accommodation of the fair. The fabric was provided with spacious sheds, running the whole length, upon each side, for the deposit of articles of large bulk, such as carriages, machinery, agricultural implements, and other objects of similar character. The variety of the products deposited, and the elegance with which the whole exhibition was invested, rendered it effective and imposing in a high degree. Cloth, of various colors, tastefully displayed, as well as other articles scattered throughout its various parts, decorated the interior, and during the day it was ventilated by a skylight, and at night brilliantly illuminated by gas. The whole collection appeared to the greatest advantage. Thus prepared, the hall was thronged with thousands of gratified spectators from every part of the country, attracted by the novelty of the occasion, or by a desire to behold the actual condition, and progress which had been made throughout the nation, in the various departments of useful industry.

Not only were the several branches of domestic industry here faithfully represented, but the manufacturing and mechanical enterprise and ingenuity of the various parts of the Union. The staple products of the manufacturing establishments and workshops of New England, its cotton and woollen fabrics, were found side by side with those of the extreme South. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, brought hither their products. Especially Pennsylvania exhibited the triumphs of its skill, which has a most favorable field for its development in its immense resources of coal and iron; Virginia, which has recently grown to become a state of considerable enterprise and industry in manufactures, brought its offerings, and even the cotton-growing states of North Carolina and Georgia demonstrated, by the products of their manufacturing industry, that they are already laying the foundations of the enterprise which is to work up into useful fabrics a most valuable staple of their plantations. Thus was exhibited, in one complete view, the triumphs of that useful labor which is prosecuted in most of the states of the North and South, and upon a ground which was, in every respect, broad and national.

The various manufactures of woollen, which are beginning to attract considerable attention in the country, were here faithfully represented, and their products were exhibited in such a form as to evince the rapid progress that we have made in this branch of enterprise. The mills of this sort scattered throughout New England, as well as those of Delaware, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and even Georgia, contributed products which were gratifying, in a high degree, to the spectators, as well from their excellent quality as their comparatively low price. Worst of stuff

goods, white woollens, Georgia plains and stripes, negro cloth, plaids and checks, cassimeres, felt pilot cloth, felt beaver, fine woollen cloth of various colors, mixed cotton and woollen cloths, wool scarfs, table covers, woollen hose, drabs, and various other articles of this particular species, comprised a part of the collection, and induced the conviction that this particular enterprise is beginning to flourish upon a solid basis. The exhibition of the manufactures of cotton constituted a very important part of the collection, for it will be readily admitted that the cotton interest of this nation, regarding both the production of the staple in the cotton-growing states, and its manufacture into wrought fabrics, constitute two of the most prominent enterprises of the country. In order to understand the importance of the cotton-growing interest, we have only to look at the facts as exhibited by the statistics of its production. During the last year, there were exported abroad from our own country, 872,905,996 pounds of cotton, and 60,000,000 of pounds were consumed at home; and it is estimated from the same official authority, that \$80,000,000 is the amount of capital invested in cotton factories, and that 100,000 persons were employed during the last year, in the manufacture of cotton alone. Furnishing employment for capital and occupation to industry, as well as staple products for consumption and trade, the magnitude of the interest with us will not be denied. By the recent annexation of Texas to the territory of the Union, the field for the production of this staple is vastly extended, and new markets for the raw material or the manufactured fabric, will soon be required.

The cotton goods which were displayed at the fair were of such a character as to evince marked and decided progress in this department of manufacturing industry. New Hampshire sent bleached and unbleached cotton goods, Rhode Island extra fine shirtings, New Jersey its sheetings, Virginia sheetings and shirtings, Maryland strong India drills; and the extensive manufacturing establishments of Lowell, constituting a principal seat of the manufacturing interest of the Union, were largely represented. Georgia contributed substantial osnaburgs, and Virginia stout cottons from Petersburg and Richmond. Indigo-blue calicoes were sent from New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island. There were, also, numerous finer fabrics from Lowell, as well as from the mills of Massachusetts, New York, and Rhode Island, which were exceedingly creditable to the enterprise and skill of those states. To those may be added cotton piece goods from Maryland, excellent specimens of printed goods from Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; cotton yarn and cotton goods from Maryland; superior shirtings from New York; fine goods from New Hampshire; handsome shawls and table covers from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; cotton sheeting from North Carolina; besides cotton bed tickings, Cumberland plaids, and cable twists, pilot ducks, tapes and girthings.

The display of carpets and hearth-rugs was very elegant, some of the richest specimens being contributed from Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Maryland, and Washington. There was also a rich exhibition of silk goods, consisting of cravats, vestings, ladies' dresses, dress shawls, handkerchiefs, and other articles of great beauty; fine specimens of sewing silk from Massachusetts, and silk tassels from Philadelphia. Virginia exhibited some very fine specimens of the silk manufacture fabricated from silk which was produced in the Ohio valley. Bonnets and

baskets, glass bonnets, upholstery articles, musical instruments, machines and models, clocks, agricultural implements and machines, scales and weights, stoves, machine cards, saddlery, harness and trunks, leather of various kinds, paper, gold and silver pens, books, candelabras, boots and shoes, hats, oil-cloth, and paper hangings, chemicals, military accoutrements, cutlery, coaches, and carriages, were also displayed. Among the articles which attracted peculiar attention, were a copper boat from the Novelty Works in New York, twenty-three feet long and five feet wide, composed of sheets of copper, stamped to its existing shape, by machinery, in forty minutes; and also the magnificent display of household furniture, a complete set for a chamber, the product of the skill of Philadelphia, being composed of rosewood, and the whole valued at eight thousand dollars.

The exhibition of hardware, iron and steel, and other metallic wares, was extensive and interesting. There were included in this department, articles of various sorts, such as card wire, brass and steel wire, cast iron settees, bells, dish covers, and tin-ware, mechanical implements, various manufactures of steel, nails, household articles, and cooking stoves. A cabinet of iron and its manufactures was furnished by Uniontown, Pennsylvania, and numerous specimens of bar and rolled iron, spikes, nails, and other articles, were of great excellence. There were also exhibited samples of the ores and coals of that state. Welded wrought iron tubes, sheet and hoop iron, wire-cloth, sieves, window blinds, and window shades, and various other species of this sort of manufacture, were furnished by the iron works of New England and Pennsylvania, Maryland, New York, New Jersey, and Virginia. One of the prominent impressions furnished by the exhibition, was connected with the ingenuity displayed in the variety of the objects exhibited as models of inventions and improvements in useful implements. It is to this ingenious spirit of our countrymen that we are indebted for many of those conveniences connected with the progress of the useful arts. In order to exhibit the actual measure of this inventive spirit, it is only necessary that we examine the annual report of the commissioner of patents. By this report, which was made on the 24th of February, 1846, for the year 1845, it appears that there were, in 1840, four hundred and seventy-five patents issued. During the year 1841, there were four hundred and ninety-five; in 1842, there were five hundred and forty-five; in 1843, there were five hundred and thirty-one; in 1844, there were five hundred and two; and in 1845, there were five hundred and eleven; thus demonstrating the activity of the human mind in moulding matter into improved forms, which tend to the convenience of man, and the advance of the various arts which are everywhere visible upon the face of the community.

In concluding this description of the national exhibition of the products of useful industry in Washington, we would express our deep conviction that its influence will be attended with beneficial results. If there is any advantage in acquiring a correct knowledge of the actual condition of manufacturing and mechanical industry, or if there be any benefit in ascertaining what progress we have made in that which bears most directly upon the condition of a nation, and constitutes the subject-matter of important legislation, it must be admitted that this national display of those products was the most proper mode of furnishing that information. It will tend to furnish a groundwork on which to legislate respecting those interests, and to show, also, the character of the useful enterprise which is

operating in the various parts of the Union. It may, moreover, serve to show that there is, necessarily, no good ground of sectional jealousy or discord, between the different quarters of the country. The enterprise of New England and other parts of the North, comes into no conflict with the cotton-growing interests of the South; but, on the contrary, it rather serves to stimulate them, by working up in the manufacturing establishments of those states, annually, sixty millions of pounds of the southern cotton crop. Nor do the agricultural and mineral products of the Middle and Western States, conflict with the manufactures of the North, or the cotton-growing interests of the South; for those Middle and Western States tend to supply these two sections with products which are peculiar to them, and which are there required, receiving in return those staples which they most need, and which are not produced by themselves, while foreign and domestic trade stand as a common carrier, coming in conflict with no producing interest, but ready, at all times, with their fleets of vessels and their lines of railroads, upon the ocean and the land, the lakes, the rivers, and the canals, to execute the commissions which may be entrusted to their agency, requiring only a reasonable compensation.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

LAW OF BEEF AND PORK INSPECTION.

IN the Supreme Court of Louisiana, June 22d, 1846. *Pardos v. Bozant*. Appeal from the Commercial Court, (New Orleans.)

The plaintiff purchased seven hundred barrels of pork certified to be prime inspected pork, and branded such by the defendant, in his official capacity of inspector.

The pork was shipped with the usual care, and sent to New York, where it was landed in good order, after a voyage of twenty-one days, performed in fair weather, and without accident of any kind. Before its arrival, it was sold by the plaintiff's correspondent at a certain price, to be paid on delivery, provided the quality corresponded with the certificate given by the defendant, and sent on with the bill of lading. On inspection in New York, it proved to be all sour, and so inferior in quality that the purchaser refused to receive it. It remained on hand some time, and was finally sold to other persons, at a reduced price.

This action has been instituted to recover from the defendant the difference between the two prices, on the ground of negligence in the inspection or repacking of the pork, and misrepresentation in the certificate. The case was submitted to a special jury of merchants, who gave a verdict in favor of the plaintiff, for the sum claimed. The defendant moved for a new trial, which was refused, and judgment having been rendered in conformity with the verdict, he appealed. The record contains an exception taken by him to the charge of the Judge, which is in these words: The Court in this case charges the jury that the defendant was only liable for neglect or fraud, or contravention of the law; that whether the neglect arose from unskilfulness, ignorance, inattention, or want of care, the defendant was equally liable; that the court considered that an inspector of beef or pork, when he gave a certificate that beef or pork was in a good or sound condition, was bound by such certificate to warrant not only that the beef or pork was in a good and sound condition at the time the certificate was given, but that it should remain so for a reasonable and usual length of time, if the article was handled with proper care and not improperly exposed; that our law did not fix any length of time during which the responsibility was to last and terminate; that in the absence of any fixed rule, a responsibility would attach for such length

of time as the nature of the article was usually expected to preserve good; that if the plaintiff has proved that the pork has been properly handled and taken care of, and it was found that the article was spoiled before the lapse of a reasonable and usual period, the defendant would be liable for any damage that might arise from the unsound condition of the article; and that it was for the jury to say whether—

First. The article was unsound on its arrival in New York.

Second. Whether any circumstances had occurred which relieved the defendant from his liability from the certificate which he had given, and from the liability which he was under by law.

We consider this charge to the jury a lucid and sound exposition of the law applicable to the case. One of the main advantages of the inspection of such commodities is to give security to commerce, and to increase the confidence of purchasers abroad in the soundness of provisions found in our market. If those objects are not attained, the heavy expense attending the inspection is incurred without adequate motives, and the only mode of securing them is to hold the inspectors responsible for want of ordinary diligence in the discharge of their duties. In doing this, care must, of course, be taken that the security thus given to commerce, be not abused to the injury of inspectors. In this latitude, and especially for shipments made during the summer months, their responsibility should be limited to a shorter period than that established by the laws of New York.

In this case the jury have substantially found that pork shipped with care, and well stowed in New Orleans, between the 29th and 31st of July, forming part of an assorted cargo of provisions, cotton, and tobacco, and landed in good order in New York, after a prosperous voyage, on the 28th and 29th of August next following, could not have become sour during that voyage, and that it must, therefore, have either been unsound when it was shipped, or, what is more probable, have been repacked too fast, and without proper care, after the inspection here.

A careful perusal of the evidence has brought us to the same conclusion. The amount of damages authorized by the verdict is authorized by the facts of the case, and there is nothing in the judgment which requires our interference.

It is therefore ordered, adjudged and decreed, that the judgment of the Commercial Court be affirmed with costs.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE—BANKRUPTCY, ETC.

The following decision in the "Court of Review," June 17th, 1846, is derived from the London (Eng.) Morning Herald, of June 18th:—

Ex parte Chamberlain, in re Giro.—This was a petition, the object of which was to obtain the restoration to the petitioners of four bills of exchange, amounting to £8,650. The petitioners were Messrs. Chamberlain, Phelps, & Lawrence, merchants, of New York. The respondents were the assignees of James Giro, a merchant, in London, who had formerly been largely connected with Spanish houses. It appeared that Messrs. Chamberlain & Co. had been engaged extensively in business with one Piera, of Sicily, and with other firms in the Mediterranean, and had arranged with Giro for the purpose of giving the Mediterranean consigners the necessary credits. The course of business between Mr. Giro and Messrs. Chamberlain & Company was, that the former, from time to time, gave his acceptances in payment for the consignment forwarded from the Mediterranean houses to England; that Giro advised the petitioners of the dates and amounts of such acceptances, and the petitioners remitted to him funds and acceptances necessary to meet the sums from time to time paid. Giro received £1 per cent commission for his trouble. The bills in question were remitted from New York on the 26th of February last, and were received by Giro on the 16th of the following month. On the 18th of March, Giro had advised Messrs. Chamberlain & Co. of his intention to stop payment in consequence of the failure of a house in Cadiz. The fiat in the present bankruptcy was issued on the 21st of March. The acceptances of Giro, which he had given to the Mediterranean consigners, when dishonored, were taken up by the house of Baring & Co., on behalf of the petitioners. These were the only dealings between the parties.

Mr. Russell and Mr. Cairns, in support of the petition, upon the authority of

"Jombart v. Wollett," (2 My. & Ca. 389,) and other cases, as also upon the facts disclosed upon the petition and by affidavits, contended that the bills ought not to be allowed to go to the creditors at large, but ought to be delivered up by the assignees to the petitioners.

Mr. Swanston and Mr. Rogers, on behalf of the assignees, insisted that the property in the bills had passed by delivery, there being mutual debts and credits between the parties at the time. They read the affidavits of merchants, for the purpose of showing that, according to the custom of merchants in London, Giro was justified in treating the remittances made by the petitioners from time to time, as general remittances, and using the proceeds for the general purposes of his business as a merchant, and that he was not bound to make a specific appropriation of them.

The Chief Judge said the question before him was one simply of fact, the law being clear. He was satisfied upon the evidence that the nature of the contract between the American house and the London house was such, that the bills remitted from the former to the latter did not, when received, become absolutely, in all senses, and for all purposes, the property of the latter. By the contract between the parties, Mr. Giro acquired only a limited and qualified property in them, subject to this qualification—that Messrs. Chamberlain & Co. discharged all the obligations and liabilities of Mr. Giro on their behalf. The bills in question, therefore, passed to the assignees in the same state, in point of right, as that in which the bankrupt held them. The petitioners were, therefore, entitled to have their bills, on discharging all obligations between them and the bankrupt. The general creditors, by their assignees, had entered into this contest upon insufficient grounds, although properly and without blame; and, failing, they must pay the costs.

BROKER'S COMMISSION ON HOUSES SOLD FOR AN ADVANCE ON MORTGAGE.

In the Superior Court, New York city, June 16, 1846, Judge Jones presiding. *W. C. Atwell vs. J. G. Wilson.*

This was an action to recover commission, at the rate of 1 per cent, on \$30,000, being the price of three houses and lots on the Third avenue, sold by plaintiff for defendant. It appeared that this property was sold subject to a previous mortgage, amounting to \$15,000, and it was contended that the broker should not charge commission except on the amount for which the property sold, over and above the mortgage. The Court was of opinion that the broker was entitled to charge commission on the full amount for which the property sold, including the amount of the mortgage. Verdict for plaintiff, \$300.

AUCTIONEERS AND THEIR SURETIES.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, June 15th, 1846, judgment was procured in the case of Alexander Mouton, use of W. K. Halsted, appellees, vs. J. Noble, P. B. Tyler, and T. O. Meux, appellants. Merits: J. A. Noble, auctioneer, and his sureties, the other appellants, were sued in the Commercial Court, before Judge Watts, for the recovery of \$840 60, the proceeds of a sale of property by auction, entrusted to Noble, by the proprietor, Halsted, which had not been paid over to the latter. Sureties pleaded that they had been discharged by time having been given by plaintiff to the principal defendant, Noble. It appears that on the 7th February, 1845, the date of the occurrence, when the money should have been paid over, Halsted, the plaintiff, took Noble's notes, six of them, payable at different periods, for \$790 60—the remaining fifty dollars being handed to the former, in cash.

Judge Watts held that the agreement to give time did not exonerate the sureties, and therefore cast them with costs. Their Honors of the Supreme Court were of opinion that, from the division of the debt, and plaintiff's receiving notes payable at determinate periods, resulted a valid obligation on the part of creditor not to sue on his original term, etc., and that, by thus giving time to the principal debtor, without consent of sureties, the latter are discharged. Judgment of lower court reversed, and decree given in favor of defendants, who are condemned in costs in both courts.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STATE OF THE MONEY-MARKETS IN ENGLAND—BRITISH EXPORTS FROM JANUARY TO MAY, 1846
 —IMPORT OF RAW MATERIALS—TROPICAL PRODUCTS ENTERED ENGLAND FOR CONSUMPTION—
 SUGAR, TEA, COFFEE, ETC.—ABILITY OF NATIONS TO MANUFACTURE—MODIFICATION OF EURO-
 PEAN TARIFFS—THE NEW TARIFF BILL OF THE UNITED STATES—IMPORT OF GOODS FROM
 GREAT BRITAIN, IN 1845, WITH THE AD VALOREM RATE OF DUTY PAID, AND THE RATE
 CHARGEABLE UNDER THE PROPOSED TARIFF—PROVISIONS TO PREVENT FRAUD—BANK FACILI-
 TIES AND CREDITS—PROSPECT AS TO PRICES—PORT OF NEW YORK, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—
 EXCHANGES—AMOUNT AND LOCATION OF THE UNITED STATES DEPOSITS—REVENUE AND EXP-
 ENDITURE OF THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT—ITS EFFECT UPON THE MARKET—THE SUB-
 TREASURY—OPPOSITION TO THE WAREHOUSING BILL, ETC., ETC.

THE leading features of the markets, as they presented themselves at the date of our last article, have not materially changed, other than that they may have deepened in their character—that is to say, prices for produce have been more heavy, and the prospect of an advance has become more gloomy; while the movements of the government have not been such as to warrant a speedy settlement of those great questions that have so long agitated the public mind, and retarded the free circulation of capital. In England, the bullion in the bank continues to increase, mostly in consequence of the influx of gold from Russia, from causes which we pointed out in our article of September, 1844. The quantity received in England from Russia, directly from St. Petersburg, and indirectly through Hamburgh and Holland, is near £1,000,000 in six weeks. The exchanges still are apparently in favor of England, notwithstanding the large import of corn, which has accumulated in bond to the extent of 2,000,000 quarters of wheat and flour, worth \$25,000,000—a large sum to be locked up in that article at a time when the prospects of the harvest are such as to indicate a fall in prices. This, with the demands of the cotton-market, and railway speculation, have made money dear; more particularly when the high prices of food in Europe have checked the activity of the markets for goods. The amount of private securities discounted by the Bank of England is large, being near three times as much as two years since; and the circulation of the paper of individuals is doubtless very large, perhaps larger than the prospect of prices would warrant. The cheapness of money which prevailed in the discount-markets of England, stimulated great enterprises, and promoted an increase of obligations, that now encounter some difficulty in their fulfilment. The export trade of Great Britain has been less this year than last. The values for the four months ending May 5th, for three years, have been as follows:—

DECLARED VALUE OF BRITISH EXPORTS, FROM JANUARY 1, TO MAY 5.

	1844.	1845.	1846.	Increase.	Decrease.
Cotton goods,.....	\$5,991,353	\$6,337,715	\$5,914,467	\$423,238
yarn,.....	1,558,661	1,705,485	2,138,782	\$433,297
Linen goods,.....	1,010,938	1,040,738	936,333	104,405
yarn,.....	323,842	364,611	294,257	70,354
Woollen goods,.....	2,351,884	2,483,916	1,897,494	586,422
yarn,.....	210,439	273,916	180,059	93,857
Silk goods,.....	238,097	244,331	292,878	48,547

DECLARED VALUE OF BRITISH EXPORTS, ETC.—CONTINUED.

	1844.	1845.	1846.	Increase.	Decrease.
Glass,.....	\$138,001	\$190,446	\$87,733	\$102,713
Hardware,.....	704,326	706,853	718,239	11,386
All other,.....	2,459,714	3,154,743	3,413,416
Total exports, ..	\$14,987,255	\$16,502,754	\$15,873,858	\$628,895

The exports of cotton goods, it appears, have declined nearly as much as the shipments of cotton yarns have increased; which would indicate an extension of the manufacture on the continent in excess of the increased consumption. The greatest actual decline is in woollen goods. The export of glass has largely declined, which might indicate an enhanced home consumption, consequent upon the repeal of the excise law. The imports of raw materials, for periods corresponding to the above, were as follows:—

	1844.	1845.	1846.	Increase.	Decrease.
Cotton,.....cwt.	1,314,733	2,385,054	1,534,716	850,338
Wool,.....lbs.	10,800,430	14,229,276	13,762,546	466,730
Silk, raw,.....	912,837	1,617,760	1,906,621	288,961
Flax,.....cwt.	197,818	134,303	158,761	24,458

Of wool and cotton, it would appear, there has been a decline in the whole trade corresponding to the advance in the price of food, and a reaction may be looked for when that cause shall have been removed. The quantities of tropical products entered for consumption in England, have been as follows:—

	1844.	1845.	1846.	Increase.	Decrease.
Sugar,.....cwt.	1,181,747	1,496,404	1,617,084	120,680
Tea,.....lbs.	12,545,527	14,191,359	15,214,806	1,023,447
Coffee,.....	9,452,254	11,757,881	12,121,396	363,515
Wine,.....galls.	2,344,482	2,258,743	2,218,869	39,874
Tobacco,....lbs.	7,930,810	8,776,703	9,010,004	233,301

This is a remarkable result. The increase in the quantity of sugar taken for consumption has been 50 per cent since the duties were reduced; and the consumption of tea and coffee, which are used with sugar, has increased in nearly an equal ratio, although the duties on those articles were not changed last year. Tea and sugar, and coffee and sugar, being used together, a reduction in the tax on sugar is a diminution in the cost of the drink composed of both articles. The general result of the figures is a diminution of the interchange of manufactured goods by the nations of Europe, but an increased consumption of raw material and tropical products by all. The ability of each nation to manufacture all it wants, is apparently increasing; and hence a disposition to reduce the restrictions upon raw materials and produce, manifest in each; more particularly Russia, Prussia, Belgium, and Great Britain. Each and all of these nations have modified their tariffs in relation to produce; and the results reasonably anticipated mark a somewhat enhanced international trade. The United States House of Representatives have passed a tariff bill, which in some cases greatly reduces the duties chargeable upon goods, and in other cases it has advanced the rates. The main feature of the tariff is, that it abolishes *minimums* and specific duties, and provides for the imposition of *ad valorem* duties, only. In order to observe the practical change effected, we may take from official returns the value of goods imported from Great Britain in 1845, and the *ad valorem* rate of the duties actually paid upon those imports, as compared with the rates charged in the new bill:—

IMPORT OF GOODS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845, WITH THE
AD VALOREM RATE OF DUTY PAID, AND THE RATE CHARGEABLE UNDER THE
NEW TARIFF.

		Present duty.	New duty.
Copper, in plates,.....	730,707	Free.	Free.
bars and pigs,.....	206,645	Free.	Free.
Clothes of wool,.....	3,815,853	40 p. c.	30 p. c.
Merino shawls,.....	177,464	40	30
Blankets, under 75 cents,.....	304,540	15	} 20
over ".....	581,756	25	
Worsted stuffs,.....	433,390	30	25
Wool hose, gloves, mitts,.....	682,161	30	25
yarn,.....	136,927	30	25
Other wool,.....	518,195	40	25
Cottons, dyed,.....	7,177,301	44	25
plain,.....	1,666,162	47	25
velvets,.....	} 272,075	30	20
cords,.....			
twist and yarn,.....			
hose, gloves, &c.,.....	557,439	44	25
other articles,.....	443,786	30	20
Silk and worsted,.....	535,420	30	25
Camlets, &c.,.....	394,666	30	25
Silks, floss, &c.,.....	61,207	20	25
Lace, thread,.....	540,562	30	25
cotton,.....	508,979	15	20
Linen, flax,.....	614,018	20	25
Other flax goods,.....	3,874,581	25	20
Hemp goods, shirting,.....	532,929	25	20
Clothing,.....	292,323	25	20
Iron and steel goods,.....	599,505	40	30
Saddlery,.....	3,730,407	30	30
Goods of leather,.....	266,010	20 a 30	30
Hats, straw and chip,.....	44,649	35	30
Chinaware,.....	81,628	35	30
Earthenware,.....	90,256	30	30
Watches,.....	2,149,262	30	30
Silks, pongees,.....	379,919	7 1/2	10
Flannels,..... yards	494,667	42	25
Baizes,.....	180,628	38	25
Carpets, Wilton,.....	278,409	39	25
Brussels,.....	31,156	24	30
Sail duck,.....	226,156	41	30
Cotton bagging,.....	317,833	20	20
Oil, linseed,..... gallons	911,017	53	20
Indigo,..... lbs.	221,650	54	20
Twine,.....	375,979	7	10
Glass plain tumblers,.....	341,499	31	30
Chain cables,..... \$	15,396	137	30
Anvils,.....	1,863,963	87	30
Butt hinges,.....	1,034,405	46	30
Iron, sheet,..... } hoop,..... }	80,507	42	30
pig,.....	228,592	61	30
scrap,.....	489,807	109	30
bar, rolled,.....	100,266	49	30
" hammered,.....	1,623,650	49	30
Steel, shear,.....	59,093	76	30
Books in English,.....	713,529	36	30
Salt,.....	111,212	12	15
Coal,..... tons	640,456	14 a 20	10
Total imports,.....	27,062	76	20
	\$45,600,903	67	30

It does not appear that the reduction is very great on the majority of the articles, if the cost is taxed in good faith. To prevent undervaluations, the law authorizes the collector to appraise the goods imported, and if the appraisement exceeds by 10 per cent the invoice price, the goods may be sold at auction, and the invoice price, with 5 per cent advance, paid over to the importer. It would appear that such regulations would secure effectually the revenue from frauds, by undervaluation, quite as much so as the specific levy. The duty upon cottons is nominally the same under the new, as under the old bill. The operation of the minimum, however, raised the rate actually paid to near 50 per cent, showing that a large amount of low-priced cottons are still imported. There are a great variety of fine cotton goods manufactured abroad, which do not enter into the consumption of the United States, being prohibited under the tariff, and similar descriptions not being manufactured here. Probably the uncertainty in relation to the continuance of the prohibitions, as well as the increasing difficulty of chartering associated capital, may have prevented many from embarking in the enterprise. Many cotton factories have been prevented, by the liability clause enforced upon corporations by the State of New York—from which it would appear that the manufacture of cotton, even with a protection of 100 to 150 per cent on the finer sorts, is considered so hazardous, that capitalists are afraid to be made liable for more than they put into the concern. Under the new tariff, a larger variety of goods may enter into consumption, and with the creation of new wants, a new demand upon American manufacturing skill will be felt. To produce any great increase of trade under the modified tariff, there must be an increased demand for goods; or, in other words, the means of consumers must be enhanced. No matter how low goods may become, either by removal of duties, or foreign competition; if the means of consumers are not enhanced, there can be no increased consumption. There are two ways by which consumers may enhance their purchases. These are, either by credit, or for money. The former was, in past years, effected through the operation of bank credits, by which the store-keepers were enabled to trust planters and farmers ahead; an operation by which heavy drafts were made on the products of future industry. If the results of that industry were unpropitious, it became impossible to discharge the accumulated debts, and bank failures and individual insolvency became inevitable. An increase of bank facilities was then supposed to be necessary, in order to enable dealers, in the words of Biddle, to "wait for another crop." This system of credits cannot be continued for any length of time. It contains within itself the germs of revulsion. The reduction of the tariff may stimulate a large business, in the hope of making sales, and by so doing, produce an unhealthy trade of a temporary character. The present and prospective prices of produce throughout the country, are such as to afford no indication that a large cash business can be done, either in domestic or imported goods.

The excitement which prevailed last fall and winter, in relation to the English demand for produce, enabled the farmers to obtain good prices for the products of their industry, although the speculators and shippers have been subjected to severe losses. The accumulation of stocks, the failure of the foreign demand to the extent anticipated, and the appearance of coming crops, all conspire to promise but low prices to the producer for the coming fall, an event that must affect general business; and a corresponding reduction in the prices of imported and manu-

factured goods will not enhance the quantity that may be consumed. The immediate results of the passage of the law taking effect in the first week of December, may be to diminish the import of those articles on which the diminution of the tariff is to be the greatest, and by so doing, defer the fall trade later than usual; an event that may cause money to become exceedingly plenty in the autumn, and exchanges to fall. These are now unusually low for the season of the year, being $6\frac{3}{4}a7\frac{1}{2}$ against $9\frac{1}{2}a10\frac{1}{4}$, which is usually the rate in midsummer. These low rates may partly be ascribed to the scarcity of money, but chiefly to the small foreign commercial indebtedness. The imports and exports of the port of New York have been, for six months, as follows:—

PORT OF NEW YORK—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

	1845.		1846.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
January,.....	\$6,310,159	\$1,467,955	\$5,219,809	\$2,100,849
February,.....	4,730,297	1,820,635	4,652,292	1,845,845
March,.....	6,242,457	2,385,586	9,812,496	1,909,598
April,.....	5,908,360	2,459,053	6,334,271	2,309,184
May,.....	5,464,733	2,971,270	5,488,397	3,114,549
June,.....	5,244,496	3,181,788	5,873,655	4,062,249
Total,.....	\$33,900,494	\$14,286,287	\$37,380,908	\$15,342,269
Duties,.....	8,741,200		9,494,430	

With this state of the external commerce of New York, the exchanges are now much lower than usual, and with the prospect of a small import and a fair increase of the export value of cotton and other produce, when the measures of the English government shall become so far settled as to allow business to resume its natural progress. Up to this time, the movements of the federal government have not been such as to disturb the money-market. The actual expenditure at the south has been made thus far, without producing any serious pressure upon the government banks at the north. The public deposits have been progressively as follows:—

AMOUNT AND LOCATION OF UNITED STATES DEPOSITS.

	January 1.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.
Boston,.....	\$1,118,938	\$678,683	\$723,561	\$1,167,727	\$1,570,487	\$1,563,222	\$1,249,887
New York,.....	3,584,514	3,360,255	3,873,133	4,925,811	6,432,107	5,553,528	5,105,918
Philadelphia,.....	417,557	266,682	302,941	559,027	769,582	789,089	557,888
Washington,.....	539,917	514,287	513,220	530,078	571,781	575,088	525,311
New Orleans,.....	590,864	616,864	284,578	625,534	566,388	630,644	746,373
Mints,.....	1,000,000	950,000	850,000	910,000	879,000	870,000	815,000
Other places,.....	2,569,806	2,059,895	3,203,124	3,066,216	3,220,153	3,488,492	3,484,511
Total,.....	\$9,824,965	\$8,446,655	\$9,750,557	\$11,784,393	\$14,009,898	\$13,470,063	\$12,484,888

The amount under transfer greatly increased at the close of June. They had been as follows:—

	Amount on deposits.	Outstanding drafts.	Subject to draft.	Transfers ordered From.	To.
February 1,...	\$9,546,862 67	\$1,128,664 40	\$8,418,981 02	\$241,000	\$205,000
March,.....	9,750,547 37	1,072,986 73	8,678,343 09	707,487	692,487
April,.....	11,784,393 59	783,606 37	11,001,569 67	376,000	371,000
May,.....	13,000,698 72	1,159,140 07	11,842,341 10	336,000	530,000
June,.....	13,470,063 58	1,862,781 38	11,608,064 65	1,260,000	1,130,000
July,.....	12,484,888 36	3,014,630 35	9,890,006 39	1,616,500	1,459,500

The expenditure in June exceeded the revenue, and the amount subject to draft declined near \$2,000,000. In July, a greater diminution has taken place; but this operation of the treasury has not produced any untoward pressure upon the

market. For the anticipated deficits of the government, it is probable that some \$11,000,000 of treasury notes will be put in circulation, bearing a nominal interest. The effect of the notes upon the market must depend upon the rate of interest they bear. If anything like 6 per cent is allowed upon them, they will be taken up, and the investment have the character of a loan. A low rate of interest will allow the notes to circulate in the internal exchanges, and therefore to act as a currency. Notes redeemable at the end of the year, and receivable for all government dues, are the most desirable form in which the federal treasury can contract a loan. All loans of the United States government must be temporary in their nature, and in contracting them, it is desirable that they should derange the market as little as possible; should be promptly available to meet the exigencies of the government, and be easily and promptly withdrawn, when they have served the purpose for which they were issued. Treasury notes combine economically all these properties. They are readily taken by the creditors of the government, in payment of contracts, and are sought after as a means of remittance between the great commercial points. Their availability for exchange purposes, and in payment of public dues, are sufficient to keep them at par in ordinary times; and if occasionally the demand for them for those purposes should not be sufficient to maintain them at par, the endorsement that they are purchasable at the government deposits, at par, for cost, insures their full market-value. Under these circumstances, so long as the government has need of them, they float in the market; and when the revenues again exceed the expenditures, the surplus is composed of the notes returning to the treasury, not again to be issued. The whole debt is thus speedily cancelled, without loss, and without disturbing the markets. The independent treasury plan of the federal government will probably not be acted upon until the close of the session. The apprehensions that were entertained of its disturbing influences were allayed, to a considerable extent, by the announcement of the finance committee of the Senate, some weeks since, that the specie clause would be postponed until the 1st of January, 1847; and efforts are now being made to defeat it altogether, on the ground that its provisions are inconsistent with a state of indebtedness that must compel the government to issue paper, and receive it as a currency. It is not apparent, however, in what way the government is compelled to recognize the precarious issues of unstable private institutions as a currency, because it takes the evidences of its own indebtedness in discharge of debts due to it. The warehousing bill, which is of itself simply a measure of convenience to commerce, seems to have met with the decided opposition of the great party favorable to the protection of manufactures. Any measure that facilitates commerce, seems to be regarded as hostile to the interest of domestic industry. It is to be regretted that so much strife and uncertainty should ever hang over our most important interests; that capital should lose its employ, and industry its reward, merely through the uncertainty of the employers as to the manner in which their rights and interests may be invaded by Congressional action.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS FOR THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

The following "Act concerning quarantine, and regulations in the nature of quarantine, at the port of New York," was passed by "the people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly," May 13th, 1846, and signed by the Governor:—

Sec. 1. The anchorage ground for vessels at quarantine, shall be near the Marine Hospital, on Staten Island, and be designated by buoys to be anchored under the direction of the health officer; and every vessel subject to quarantine, shall, immediately on her arrival, anchor within them, and there remain with all persons arriving in her, subject to the examinations and regulations imposed by law.

Sec. 2. Vessels arriving at the port of New York, shall be subject to quarantine, as follows:

1. All vessels direct from any place where yellow, bilious-malignant, or other pestilential or infectious fever existed at the time of their departure, or which shall have arrived at any place, and proceeded thence to New York, or on board of which, during the voyage, any case of such fever shall have occurred, arriving between the thirty-first day of May and the first day of October, shall remain at quarantine for at least thirty days after their arrival, and at least twenty days after their cargo shall have been discharged, and shall perform such farther quarantine as the health officer may prescribe.

2. All vessels embraced in the foregoing subdivision, arriving between the first day of April and the first day of November, exclusive of the time in said subdivision mentioned; all vessels from a foreign port, on board of which during the voyage, or while at the port of departure, any person shall have been sick, or from any place in the ordinary passage from which they pass south of Cape Henlopen, arriving between the thirty-first day of May and the sixteenth day of October; and all vessels from any place (including islands) in Asia, Africa, or the Mediterranean, or from any of the West India, Bahama, Bermuda, or Western Islands, or from any place in America, in the ordinary passage from which they pass south of Georgia, arriving between the first day of April and the first day of November, shall be subject to such quarantine and other regulations, as the health officer shall prescribe.

Sec. 3. It shall be the duty of the health officer to board every vessel subject to quarantine, or visitation by him, immediately on her arrival; to inquire as to the health of all persons on board, and the condition of the vessel and cargo, by inspection of the bill of health, manifest, log-book, or otherwise; to examine on oath as many, and such persons on board of vessels suspected of coming from a sickly port, or having had sickness on board during the voyage, as he may judge expedient, and to report the facts and his conclusions to the mayor and commissioners of health, in writing.

Sec. 4. The health officer shall have power—

1. To remove from the quarantine anchorage ground any vessel he may think unsafe, to any place south of the quarantine buoys, and inside of Sandy Hook.

2. To cause any vessel under quarantine, when he shall judge it necessary for the purification of the vessel or her cargo, to discharge her cargo at the quarantine grounds, or some other suitable place out of the city.

3. To cause any such vessel, her cargo, bedding, and the clothing of persons on board, to be ventilated, cleansed and purified, in such manner, and during such time, as he shall direct; and if he shall judge it necessary to prevent infection or contagion, to destroy any portion of such cargo, bedding or clothing, which he may deem incapable of purification.

4. To prohibit and prevent all persons arriving in vessels subject to quarantine, from leaving quarantine, until fifteen days after the sailing of their vessel from the port of her departure, and fifteen days after the last case of pestilential or infectious fever that shall have occurred on board, and ten days after her arrival at quarantine, unless sooner discharged by him.

5. To permit the cargo of any vessel under quarantine, or any portion thereof, whenever he shall judge the same free from infection and contagion, to be conveyed to the city of New York, or such place as may be designated by the mayor and commissioners of health, after having reported in writing to the mayor and commissioners of health of said city the condition of said cargo, and his intention to grant such permission; such permission, however, to be inoperative without the written approval of the mayor and commissioners of health.

Sec. 5. The health officer, the board of health, or the mayor and commissioners of health, may, if in their opinion it will not be dangerous to the public health, permit the cargo of any vessel under quarantine, or any part thereof, to be shipped for exportation by sea, or transportation up the North or East rivers; but if the vessel receiving the same shall approach nearer than three hundred yards to the wharves of this city, such cargo may be seized, and sold by the commissioners of health, for the use of the Marine Hospital.

Sec. 6. Every vessel during her quarantine, shall be designated by colors, to be fixed in a conspicuous part of her main shrouds.

Sec. 7. No vessel or boat shall pass through the range of vessels lying at quarantine, or land at the quarantine ground after sun-set, without the permission of the health officer.

Sec. 8. No lighters shall be employed to load or unload vessels at quarantine without permission of the health officer, and subject to such restrictions as he shall impose.

Sec. 9. All passengers under quarantine, who shall be unable to maintain themselves, shall be provided for by the master of the vessel in which they shall have arrived; and if the master shall omit to provide for them, they shall be maintained on shore at the expense of such vessel, and such vessel shall not be permitted to leave the quarantine until such expense shall have been repaid.

Sec. 10. The health officer, upon the application of the master of any vessel under quarantine, may confine in any suitable place on shore, any person on board of such vessel charged with having committed an offence punishable by the laws of this State, or the United States, and who cannot be secured on board such vessel, and such confinement may continue during the quarantine of such person, or until he shall be proceeded against in due course of law, and the expenses thereof shall be charged, and collected, as in the last preceding section.

Sec. 11. All vessels and persons remaining at quarantine on the first day of October, shall thereafter be subject to such quarantine and restrictions, as vessels and persons arriving on or after that day.

Sec. 12. The board of health, or the mayor and commissioners of health, whenever in their judgment the public health shall require it, may order any vessel at the wharves of the city, or in their vicinity, to the quarantine ground, or other place of safety, and may require all persons, articles, or things, introduced into the city from such vessel, to be seized, returned on board, or removed to the quarantine ground. In case the master, owner, or consignee of the vessel cannot be found, or shall refuse or neglect to obey the order of removal, the board of health, or the mayor and commissioners of health, shall have power to cause such removal at the expense of such master, owner, or consignee; and such vessel or persons shall not return to the city, without the written permission of the board of health, or the mayor and commissioners of health.

Sec. 13. If any vessel arriving at the quarantine ground, subject to quarantine, shall be bound to some port east of the city of New York, the health officer, after having duly visited and examined her, may permit her to pass on her voyage through the Sound; but no such vessel shall be brought to anchor off the city, nor shall any of the crew or passengers land in, or hold any communication with the city, or any person therefrom.

Sec. 14. No vessel, found on examination of the health officer to be infected with the yellow fever, or to have been so infected, after sailing from her port of departure, shall be permitted to approach within three hundred yards of the city of New York, between the first day of May and the first day of October in the same year. But the health officer, with the permission of the board of health of the cities of New York and Brooklyn, may permit any vessel arriving at the port of New York to proceed to some wharf designated by the board of health of either of the cities of New York or Brooklyn, and discharge its cargo; provided satisfactory proof be given to the health officer that the port or ports from which said vessel sailed was free from contagious or infectious disease at the time of her sailing therefrom, and that no sickness of a contagious or infectious type has existed on board the vessel during her entire voyage.

Sec. 15. The master of every vessel released from quarantine, and arriving at the city of New York, shall, within twenty-four hours after such arrival, deliver the permit of the health officer at the office of the mayor and commissioners of health, or to such person as they shall direct, but such vessel shall not approach within three hundred yards of the city of New York, without the written permission of the mayor and commissioners of health.

Sec. 16. Every vessel having had during the voyage a case of small-pox, or infectious or contagious disease, and every vessel from a foreign port having passengers, and not hereinbefore declared subject to quarantine, shall, on her arrival at the quarantine ground, be subject to visitation by the health officer, but shall not be detained beyond the time re-

quisite for due examination, unless she shall have on board, during the voyage, some case of small-pox, or infectious or contagious disease, in which case she shall be subject to such quarantine as the health officer shall prescribe; and it shall be the duty of the health officer, whenever he thinks it is necessary for the preservation of the public health, to cause the persons on board of any vessel to be vaccinated.

Sec. 17. Nothing in this act contained shall prevent any vessel arriving at the quarantine from again going to sea before breaking bulk.

Sec. 18. The commissioners of health shall admit into the Marine Hospital any passenger who shall have paid hospital moneys, during any temporary sickness, within one year after such payment. The mayor of the city of New York, the resident physician, and the commissioners of health of said city, shall constitute a board of appeal from any direction or regulation of the health officer, with power to grant such and so much relief as may appear to the board thus constituted, or a majority of them, expedient and proper; the decision of the board of health, however, to be paramount.

Sec. 19. Every appeal from a decision of the health officer shall be made by serving upon him a written notice of such appeal, within twelve hours after such decision, (Sundays excepted,) and the health officer shall make a return in writing, including the facts on which the decision is founded, within twelve hours after the receipt of such notice, (Sundays excepted,) to the mayor, who shall immediately call a meeting of the board of appeal, and shall be president of said board, and said appeal shall be heard and decided within twenty-four hours thereafter, (Sundays excepted,) and the execution of the decision appealed from shall be suspended until the determination of the appeal.

Sec. 20. Every master of a vessel subject to quarantine or visitation, arriving in the port of New York, who shall refuse or neglect either—

1. To proceed with and anchor his vessel at the place assigned for quarantine, at the time of his arrival:

2. To submit his vessel, cargo and passengers to the examination of the health officer, and to furnish all necessary information to enable that officer to determine to what length of quarantine and other regulations they ought respectively to be subject; or,

3. To remain with his vessel at quarantine during the period assigned for her quarantine; and while at quarantine, to comply with the directions and regulations prescribed by law, and with such as any of the officers of health, by virtue of the authority given to them by law, shall prescribe in relation to his vessel, his cargo, himself or his crew, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punished by a fine not exceeding two thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding twelve months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Sec. 21. Every master of a vessel hailed by a pilot, who shall either—

1. Give false information to such pilot relative to the condition of his vessel, crew, passengers or cargo, or the health of the place or places whence he came, or refuse to give such information as shall be lawfully required:

2. Or land any person from his vessel, or permit any person except a pilot to come on board his vessel, or unlade or tranship any portion of his cargo, before his vessel shall have been visited and examined by the health officer:

3. Or shall approach with his vessel nearer the city of New York than the place of quarantine to which he shall be directed:

Shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment. And every person who shall land from any such vessel, or unlade or tranship any portion of her cargo, under like circumstances, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment.

Sec. 22. Every person who shall violate any provision of this act, or neglect or refuse to comply with the directions and regulations which any of the officers of health may prescribe, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject, for each offence, to the like punishment.

Sec. 23. Every person who shall oppose or obstruct the health officer in performing the duties required of him, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be punished by fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding three months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Sec. 24. Every person who, without authority of the health officer, commissioners of health, or board of health, shall go within the enclosure of the quarantine ground, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be punished by fine not exceeding one hundred dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding thirty days, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Sec. 25. Every person who shall go on board of, or have any communication, intercourse or dealing with any vessel at quarantine, without the permission of the health officer, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment. And such

offender shall be detained at quarantine so long as the health officer shall direct, not exceeding twenty days, unless he shall be taken sick of some pestilential or infectious disease.

Sec. 26. Every person who shall violate the provisions of the fifth article of title second of chapter fourteenth of part first of the Revised Statutes, by refusing or neglecting to obey or comply with any order, prohibition or regulation made by the board of health, in the exercise of the powers therein conferred, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court by which the offender shall be tried.

Sec. 27. Articles first, third, fourth and sixth, of title second of chapter fourteenth of part first of the Revised Statutes; an act entitled "An act to amend title second, chapter fourteenth, part first of the Revised Statutes, relating to the quarantine regulations of the port of New York," passed May 2, 1836; an act entitled "An act relative to the quarantine laws," passed May 7, 1839; an act entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes relating to the public health," passed April 12, 1842, and all other laws inconsistent with this act, are hereby repealed.

TOBACCO INSPECTION LAW OF LOUISIANA.

WE place on record, for the benefit of our Southern subscribers, interested in the tobacco trade, the following "Act to regulate the Inspection of Tobacco in the cities of New Orleans and Lafayette." This act, it will be perceived, repeals all laws for the inspection of tobacco, from and after the 1st of November, 1846, when this law goes into effect. It was passed, and approved by the Governor of the State of Louisiana, June 1st, 1846.

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE INSPECTION OF TOBACCO IN THE CITIES OF NEW ORLEANS AND LAFAYETTE.

Section 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana in General Assembly convened,* That there shall be appointed by the governor of the state, by and with the advice of the Senate, ten inspectors of tobacco for the cities of New Orleans and Lafayette, to be denominated the "New Orleans and Lafayette Board of Tobacco Inspectors."

Sec. 2. *Be it further enacted, &c.,* That said inspectors shall be appointed for the term of four years, shall take an oath faithfully to discharge the duties of the office, as prescribed by law, and shall each give bond to the state for the sum of ten thousand dollars, (with two sureties for five thousand dollars, each good for the amount, to be approved of by the Treasurer of the state,) for the faithful performance of their duties, while in office; and that each person offering himself as security under this section, shall take an oath, before some competent magistrate, that he is worth what he is surety for. And said sureties shall be liable on said bond, not only to the state, but to all persons who shall have suffered damage by the wrongful act, or neglect, or inattention of said inspectors.

Sec. 3. No person shall be appointed an inspector who is not a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the state of Louisiana.

Sec. 4. It shall be the duty of said inspectors to organize themselves as a board, appointing one of their own number as president of the board, and another secretary. Seven members shall constitute a quorum. The board of inspectors shall have a common seal. In the absence of the president or secretary, the board shall name a president or secretary *pro tempore*. The president and secretary shall be chosen yearly, and allowed each two hundred dollars per annum, for their services.

Sec. 5. It shall be the duty of the president to call meetings of the board, and preside over the deliberations of the same. It shall be the duty of the secretary to record the proceedings of the board, and in such manner as to show the votes of each member upon questions submitted to the board.

Sec. 6. All contracts of the board, hereinafter provided for, shall be submitted to the board, and shall be approved of by a majority of the whole number of inspectors.

Sec. 7. The board shall have authority to make rules and by-laws for the regulation of its own members in the discharge of their duties, which by-laws shall not be inconsistent with the laws and constitution of this state, nor of the United States, nor of the provisions of this act.

Sec. 8. It shall be the duty of the board to provide suitable warehouses in said cities, two of which shall be located in Lafayette, for the storage of tobacco, at the lowest rates

at which they can be obtained, which warehouses shall be fire-proof, and floored with plank two inches thick, and provided with a sufficient number of presses, and shall be located at such points in said cities as will be most convenient for the reception of the tobacco, and for the convenience and interest of those engaged in the tobacco trade.

Sec. 9. When the tobacco is brought to the warehouse, it shall be received by the inspector or inspectors allotted to said warehouse, or their clerk, who shall immediately mark with ink the warehouse numbers, commencing with one, and running on to the end of the year, on each end of the cask.

When called on by the owner or agent to inspect a lot of tobacco, they shall cause the hogshead or cask to be placed at a convenient distance from the press, and under the eye of an inspector, or their clerk, to cause one head of the cask to be taken out; the cask must then be headed upon the open end, and the whole cask be taken from the tobacco and weighed. The weight of the cask being the tare, shall be marked on it with a marking iron.

The inspectors shall then have the tobacco broken in four different places, from each of which they shall draw four hands or bundles of tobacco, which they shall tie up neatly and compactly—the bundles from the top-break forming the first layer of the sample. The inspectors shall be careful that the sample shall be a fair representation of the quality of the whole hogshead of tobacco, as near as they can make it so. The tape or twine used in tying up the sample shall pass through the hands of tobacco, and a seal of wax shall be put on each sample. One end of the sample-card, which expresses the quality of the tobacco, the warehouse number, inspection number, and the initials of the inspectors' names who have inspected it, shall be put under the seal of wax. When a hogshead or cask of tobacco is damaged, if practicable, the damaged portion shall be cut off, and held at the disposal of the owner or agent. The quantity so trimmed shall also be expressed on the sample-card with ink. If the damage be to such an extent that it cannot be trimmed off, the inspectors shall refuse to classify said hogshead. They shall give a sample of it, expressing the probable extent of the damage, but without the inspection seal. If, upon the inspection of a hogshead of tobacco, it be apparent that it is falsely or fraudulently packed, said hogshead shall be marked "condemned," and the inspectors shall refuse to give a sample of it. It shall then be at the disposal of the owner or agents, subject to the same charges as if it had been inspected. If the cask of a hogshead of tobacco shall prove to be of green or unsound timber, the inspectors shall provide a suitable cask, at the expense of the owner or agent.

Sec. 10. There shall be two classes of tobacco, to wit: *admitted* and *refused*.

The inspectors shall class as *admitted*, all tobacco they may find to be sound, well cured, and in good keeping condition; and they shall class as *refused*, all such tobacco as they may find to be soft, high in case, or otherwise unsound.

Sec. 11. When the inspectors are called upon to re-inspect a lot of tobacco, they shall make a copy of the original sample-card, and shall write on it, with ink, in plain letters, "re-inspected," and shall give the date of the same.

Sec. 12. When the inspection of one or more hogsheads of tobacco is finished, the laborers of the warehouse, under the eye of an inspector, or their clerk, shall have the cask returned to the tobacco, and the loose tobacco shall also be returned; and should it be impossible to put it all in, it shall be held subject to the order of the owner, and after it is placed under the press it shall be coopered up, in good condition for shipping, each cask having six hoops. The cask shall then be weighed by an inspector, or their clerk, and the gross weight marked in ink over the tare weight. The gross weight, the tare, and the warehouse number, shall also be marked with marking irons, by cutting with the same on the bilge of the hogshead or cask, and the cask then stored away.

Sec. 13. The particulars of each day's inspection shall be recorded in a book, to be kept in each warehouse for that purpose, in which shall be noted all the marks and numbers on the cask when received, the gross weight, tare, warehouse number, inspection number, by whom inspected, and for whose account.

Sec. 14. The samples, and a certificate, *corresponding with the record of inspection*, shall then be issued to the owner or agent, and shall be a receipt for the tobacco. This certificate shall be transferable by endorsement or otherwise, *which shall be evidence of its delivery*. When the legal holder of the certificate shall call for the delivery of the tobacco, it shall be the duty of the inspectors to have the hogshead promptly delivered at some opening of the warehouse which is accessible by a paved street.

Sec. 15. On receiving tobacco in the warehouse, the clerk of the inspectors shall give temporary receipts to the owners or agents, acknowledging the receipt thereof, which they may require to be surrendered upon the issuance of their certificate of inspection as hereinbefore provided. The inspectors shall be liable for all tobacco stored with them, and shall be responsible to all persons interested in the same, for the correctness of their

samples and weights. The inspectors shall have recourse upon the particular inspector or inspectors, whose neglect or wrongful act has caused the damage.

Sec. 16. The inspectors themselves, and the persons employed by them, are prohibited from dealing or trading in tobacco, either in their own names, or in the names of others, or in any manner whatever, or from being connected with, or having any interest in, the business of other persons dealing in tobacco, or from putting up loose tobacco in bales or hogsheads, or from being interested in any manner in the warehouses rented by them for the storage of tobacco, as provided by this law, or from owning or being interested in any of the laborers or coopers employed in the warehouses, or from having any interest in the drayage of tobacco to and from the warehouses; and upon conviction of the violation of any one of the above prohibitions, the inspector, or other person so offending, shall be deprived of his office, and shall be subjected to a fine of not less than five hundred dollars, nor more than two thousand dollars, to be proceeded against by indictment or information in the proper courts of the state. And any inspector, upon conviction or indictment, of giving wilfully a false or fraudulent inspection, or accepting a bribe in relation to the discharge of the duties of his office, shall be deprived of his office, and shall suffer imprisonment in the penitentiary, not less than three months, nor more than two years.

Sec. 17. That all tobacco shall be inspected by two inspectors, in the presence of each other; and in case of disagreement between them, a third inspector shall be called in, who shall decide upon its quality.

Sec. 18. That all tobacco brought to the cities of New Orleans and Lafayette, for sale, shall be inspected before it is sold, under the penalty of fifty dollars for every hogshead or cask sold without inspection, to be recovered of the party violating this law, at the suit of any inspector, one-half of which shall be paid to the state, and the other half to the inspector suing. There shall also be a privilege upon the tobacco, into whosever hands it may be placed by the sale, for the above penalty. The suit to be prescribed against, if not brought within twelve months from the time of sale. *Provided*, that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to require the inspection of tobacco in carrots, boxes, bales, stripped or stemmed tobacco, or tobacco stems in hogsheads, boxes, or bales, or damaged tobacco sold by order of the port-wardens, on the levee, or of tobacco intended for re-shipment without sale, unless at the request of the agent or owner of the same.

Sec. 19. The inspectors shall not inspect tobacco at any other warehouses than those provided, as contemplated by this law.

Sec. 20. The fees for receiving, weighing, inspecting, storing for two months, coopering, and all other duties imposed by this law upon the inspectors, shall not exceed two dollars and fifty cents per hogshead, one-half of which shall be paid by the purchaser to the seller. For re-inspecting, re-weighing, and coopering, the charge shall be seventy-five cents for each hogshead.

On tobacco remaining in store more than two months from date of receipt, they shall charge extra storage at the rate of twenty-five cents per month. On tobacco stored on which there is no inspection, fifty cents per month. The owner or agent storing the tobacco shall be bound for the fees, and there shall be a privilege upon the tobacco for them.

Sec. 21. The board of inspectors shall be allowed to employ two clerks for each warehouse, to hold their places at the pleasure of the board; the first to receive out of the funds hereinafter provided at the rate of, and not exceeding one thousand dollars per annum, the other not to exceed six hundred dollars. The board shall also be allowed to employ a sufficient number of laborers and coopers for each warehouse.

Sec. 22. Should any vacancy occur in the board of inspectors, by death, resignation, deprivation of office, or from any other cause, it shall be the duty of the governor to appoint, as soon thereafter as it may be deemed by him expedient, a competent successor, subject to the ratification of the senate, as other civil appointments made by the governor; and the inspector so appointed shall, in all respects, conform to the requirements of this act. All appointments under this section shall be for the unexpired term of four years.

Sec. 23. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint a competent person, who shall be a citizen of the United States and a citizen of the state of Louisiana, to act as treasurer to the said board of inspectors. The salary of the treasurer shall be two thousand five hundred dollars per annum.

The said treasurer shall take an oath faithfully to discharge the duties of his office, and shall give bond, with two good securities, in the sum of ten thousand dollars each, for the faithful performance of the duties of his office, to be approved of by the Secretary of State, and each security shall make oath that he is worth the amount for which he is security, over and above all his debts. In case of a vacancy in said office, the governor shall supply the place with another officer as soon as practicable, in the same manner pointed out by this act for the appointment of inspectors in case of vacancy.

Sec. 24. It shall be the duty of the treasurer to keep the books and accounts of all

moneys received and disbursed, to collect all fees, and provide for the safe keeping of them, to pay all expenses incurred; all bills of which to be approved by the board of inspectors. He shall, at the end of each month, pay to each inspector, (all other demands upon the treasury being satisfied,) equal portions of any moneys in his hands, provided that these payments do not exceed, to each inspector, a salary of four thousand dollars per annum. At the close of each year, commencing the first day of November, 1846, should there be any balance in his hands after paying the various clerks, laborers, rents of warehouses, and all the expenses of the inspection as provided by this law, it shall be appropriated as follows:—That the surplus fund remaining in the hands of the treasurer of the tobacco trade, shall, at the end of each year, be deposited in the hands of the treasurer of the state, to be held as a reserve fund for the benefit of the tobacco trade of this city; that, at the discretion of the legislature of the state, said fund may be from time to time invested in the purchase of ground and the erection of buildings thereon, for the storage of tobacco, the object being thereby to reduce the charges in tobacco brought to this market, the legislature having the power at their discretion to dispose of property so purchased, and buildings erected, and re-investing, for the same purposes, the amount received, whenever it shall be desirable by the increase of the city and advanced value of such property.

He shall furnish to the state treasurer monthly abstracts of all moneys received and disbursed by him, which shall be approved by the board of inspectors. The treasurer shall be prohibited from being interested in any manner in the warehouses, or in the hands employed about the warehouses, as provided by this act. For any wilful violation of the duties of his office, the treasurer may be proceeded against by information or indictment, and on conviction thereof, shall be deprived of his office, and fined not less than five hundred, nor more than two thousand dollars.

For any corrupt or fraudulent conduct in the discharge of the said office, or for any defalcation in the payment of the funds entrusted to the said treasurer, upon conviction on indictment or information, the said treasurer shall be imprisoned in the penitentiary not less than three months, nor more than five years. But nothing in this act shall be so construed as to exempt said treasurer from liability in civil suits for any damage or loss any party or parties may have sustained by the neglect or wrongful act of said treasurer.

Sec. 25. That the books required by this law to be kept by the treasurer, the board of inspectors, and the clerks of the warehouses, shall, at all times, be accessible for examination by the executive officers of the state, and all persons interested in the examination thereof; and all the entries shall be evidence against the inspectors and the officers keeping them, in civil or criminal cases.

Sec. 26. Nothing in this law shall be so construed as to authorize any charge upon the treasury of the state for any of the salaries or expenses provided by this law—the fees of inspection being the fund out of which they are to be paid.

Sec. 27. This law shall go into effect from and after the first of November, 1846. The governor shall nominate the inspectors and treasurer, under this law, at least two months prior to the time of its going into effect.

Sec. 28. That in case either of the inspectors shall be unable to attend to his duties on account of sickness, he may nominate a deputy to the board, and if accepted by a majority of said board, shall do and perform for a time, not longer than forty-five days, the duties of said principal inspector—he being responsible for all the acts of said deputy as fully as if he had performed said duties himself.

Sec. 29. All laws for the inspection of tobacco, heretofore passed, are hereby repealed, from and after the time that this act shall go into effect.

SEMAPHORIC TELEGRAPH.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 12th, 1846.—This Department having adopted Rogers & Black's Semaphoric Dictionary for the use of the revenue marine, a full set of the flags, with a copy of the dictionary, will be forwarded to each vessel, put up in a convenient chest.

A simple, and, at the same time, comprehensive mode of communicating intelligence between the vessels of the revenue marine, or between them and other vessels at sea, as well as with the shore, is a subject of great importance, and as the use of this mode of communication is being introduced at the semaphoric stations upon the sea-board, you are desired to embrace every opportunity after their reception, to familiarize the officers with their use, by making frequent communications when in sight of other vessels so provided, dispensing with the use of boats to communicate or receive intelligence, whenever circumstances will permit.

R. J. WALKER, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SHOAL IN THE SOOLOO SEA.

J. WADGE, commander of the ship *Sultana*, off Batavia Roads, August 2d, 1845, addressed a letter to the editor of the Singapore Free Press, a copy of which, communicating the discovery of Captain Wadge, we republish as an important contribution to our nautical intelligence.

On the 2d of July, at 10 50 A. M., steering south, with the Hamburg bark *Flora* in company, and with a moderate westerly wind, observed the water suddenly to change color, and, on looking over the sides, saw rocks under the bottom; hauled immediately close to the wind. The lead-line being already stretched along, hove and got soundings of seven and ten fathoms. We were on the bank for about five minutes, and immediately deepened to no bottom at fifty fathoms. Steered south again; *Flora* in company three miles ahead. At 11 40, observed a shoal appearance ahead, and the *Flora* having tacked suddenly, and hoisted her ensign, we tacked and stood to the northward and westward. When we tacked, the Cagaynes Islands were just visible half way up the mizzen topmast rigging, bearing S. by W., $\frac{3}{4}$ W. When in seven fathoms, the bank seen from aloft, appeared to be about three miles in length and breadth, and close to leeward of us there appeared to be much less water. We must have passed over the western extreme. At 1 A. M., lowered a cutter, and sent her away to examine the shoal, boat steering E. by S. $\frac{1}{2}$ S., and got the following soundings: No ground 35 fathoms, immediately afterwards 11-7-5-4-3-3-3, and one cast of $1\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms. This appeared to be the shoalest part, and seemed to be about three miles in length. After shoal east of $1\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms, still steering E. by S., had three casts of 3 fathoms; then steering N., and after pulling one hundred yards, got the following soundings: 3-4-5-7-10, and no ground at 35 fathoms. This shoal, seen from aloft, appeared to extend many miles to the southward; and may even reach to the Cagaynes Island, the position of which is wrong on the chart. Our position at noon by both ships, was in latitude $09^{\circ} 57' 43''$ N. and longitude $121^{\circ} 22' 30''$ E., which places the seven fathoms patch in longitude $121^{\circ} 23' 36''$ E., and latitude $09^{\circ} 50' 30''$ N., and the position of the boat when in the least water, latitude $09^{\circ} 58' 45''$ N., and longitude $121^{\circ} 23' 56''$ E., by good chronometers. Since our arrival at this port, we have taken several careful observations of the sun before and after noon, for our chronometers, and find them, by the meridian of the Batavia observatory, (which is generally considered to be accurately ascertained,) to be very correct, so that every dependence may be placed in the above information.

FRENCH ISLANDS OF SAINT PETER AND MIQUELON.

The light-house lately erected on the hill called the Head of Gallantry, on the south side of the island of St. Peter, was lighted, for the first time, on the 15th of September last, and will continue henceforth to be so every evening. This light is of the second class, and a permanent one. Its exact bearings are $46^{\circ} 45' 50''$ latitude N., and $58^{\circ} 30'$ longitude W. of the meridian of Paris. As it stands 210 English feet above the highest equinoctial tide's water, it will be seen, under favorable circumstances, from eighteen to twenty miles distance.

When reaching the islands by the south, it will stand west northwest to north northeast six degrees east; but when reaching them by the north, it will be concealed by the highlands of St. Peter, running north northeast six degrees east to west northwest.

LIGHT-HOUSE ON THE GRONSKARS.

The Royal Swedish and Norwegian Navy Board makes known, for the information of mariners, that the former coal light on the light-house on the south point of the island of Oland, has been replaced by a fixed lentille light of the second class (*a feu fixe*;) which would be lighted, for the first time, on the first of the present month, giving a strong light over the horizon from N. W. and S. to N. E. to E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. on the compass, and ought to be visible in clear weather during the night, from an ordinary ship's deck, at a distance of from four to five geographical or German miles. From north to 60° east, (N. E. to E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.) or towards the land of Oland, upon which side a reflector has been placed, the light will appear more faint, and disappear altogether sooner. This light will be kept burning all the year during those hours which have been fixed for the other light-houses in the kingdom, and in conformity with the royal ordinance of the 16th May, 1827

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES MINT AND BRANCHES.

THE mint of the United States was established in April, 1792,* at the seat of government, then located at Philadelphia. The annual report of the director of the mint at Philadelphia, and the branch mints, for 1845, was transmitted to Congress on the 10th of February, 1846. This report furnishes many details of interest, relating to the mint operations of that and former years.

It appears, from the report of Mr. Patterson, the director of the United States mint, that the building of the branch mint at Charlotte, for which provision was made at the last session of Congress, has been advancing under the charge of the superintendent, and is now nearly completed. The new machinery for this mint was made in the work-shop of the Philadelphia mint, and has been finished, and forwarded to Charlotte. Operations have probably been commenced at that branch.

In 1845, the coinage at the principal mint amounted to \$3,416,800, comprising \$2,574,652 in gold, \$803,200 in silver, and \$38,948 in copper coins, and composed of 9,283,607 pieces. The deposits of gold within the year amounted to \$2,578,494, and those of silver to \$815,415.

At the New Orleans branch mint, the coinage amounted to \$1,750,000, comprising \$680,000 in gold, and \$1,750,000 in silver coins, and composed of 2,412,500 pieces. The deposits for coinage amounted to \$646,980 in gold, and \$1,058,071 in silver.

The branch mint at Dahlonega received, during the year, deposits of gold to the value of \$498,632, and its coinage amounted to \$501,795, composed of 90,629 half eagles, and 19,460 quarter eagles.

The whole coinage for the year, at the three mints in operation, amounted to \$5,668,595, comprising \$3,756,447 in gold, \$1,873,200 in silver, and \$38,948 in copper coins.

TABLE I.—STATEMENT OF DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES AND BRANCHES, IN THE YEAR 1845.

<i>Deposits—Gold.</i>						
Mints.	U. S. Coins, old stand.	For'n coins.	U. S. bullion.	For. bullion.	Total.	
Dahlonega, Ga.,.....	\$498,632	\$498,632	
New Orleans,.....	\$1,980	\$618,315	20,313	\$6,372	646,980	
Philadelphia,.....	27,793	1,935,703	489,382	125,616	2,578,494	
Total,.....	\$29,773	\$2,554,018	\$1,008,327	\$131,988	\$3,724,106	
<i>Deposits—Silver.</i>						
	For. coins.	For. bullion.	U. S. bullion.	Total.	Total gold and silver.	
Dahlonega, Ga.,.....	\$498,632	
New Orleans,.....	\$1,047,145	\$10,926	\$1,058,071	1,705,051	
Philadelphia,.....	732,437	78,209	\$4,769	815,415	3,393,909	
Total,.....	\$1,779,582	\$89,135	\$4,769	\$1,873,486	\$5,597,592	
<i>Coinage—Silver.</i>						
	Dollars. Pieces.	Halves. Pieces.	Quarters. Pieces.	Dimes. Pieces.	Half dimes. Pieces.	Value. Dollars.
Dahlonega, Ga.,.....
New Orleans,.....	2,094,000	230,000	1,070,000
Philadelphia,.....	24,500	589,000	922,000	1,755,000	1,564,000	803,200
Total,.....	24,500	2,683,000	922,000	1,985,000	1,564,000	1,873,200

* For a list of the acts establishing and regulating the mint of the United States, and its branches, and for regulating coins, see Merchants' Magazine for July, 1846, Volume XV., page 100.

Coinage—Gold.

	Eagles.	Halves.	Quarters.	Value.	TOTAL GOLD AND SILVER.	
	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Dollars.	Number.	Value.
Dahlonega, Ga.,.....	90,629	19,460	501,795	00	110,089	501,795 00
New Orleans,.....	47,500	41,000	680,000	00	2,412,500 1,750,000 00
Philadelphia,.....	26,153	417,099	91,051	2,574,652	50	9,283,607 3,416,800 54
Total,.....	73,653	548,728	110,511	3,756,447	50	11,806,196 5,668,595 54

The total number of copper cents coined in 1845, was 3,894,804; the value of which was \$38,948 04.

TABLE II.—STATEMENT OF THE ANNUAL AMOUNTS OF DEPOSITS OF GOLD, FOR COINAGE, AT THE MINT OF THE U. STATES AND ITS BRANCHES, FROM MINES IN THE U. STATES.

Periods.	Deposited at the United States Mint.						Total.
	Virginia.	N. Car.	S. Carolina.	Georgia.	Tennessee.	Alabama.	
1824,.....		\$5,000					\$5,000
1825,.....		17,000					17,000
1826,.....		20,000					20,000
1827,.....		21,000					21,000
1828,.....		46,000					46,000
1829,.....	\$2,500	134,000	\$3,500				140,000
1830,.....	24,000	204,000	26,000	\$212,000			466,000
1831,.....	26,000	294,000	22,000	196,000	\$1,000		520,000
1832,.....	34,000	458,000	45,000	140,000	1,000		678,000
1833,.....	140,000	475,000	66,000	216,000	7,000		868,000
1834,.....	62,000	380,000	38,000	415,000	3,000		898,000
1835,.....	60,400	363,500	42,400	319,900	100		698,500
1836,.....	62,000	148,100	55,200	201,400	300		467,000
1837,.....	52,000	116,900	29,400	83,600			282,000
1838,.....	55,000	66,000	13,000	36,000	1,500		171,700
1839,.....	57,600	53,500	6,300	20,300	300	\$500	138,500
1840,.....	38,995	36,804	5,319	91,113	104	4,431	176,766
1841,.....	25,736	76,431	3,440	139,796	1,212	1,863	248,478
1842,.....	42,163	61,629	223	150,276		5,579	273,587
1843,.....	48,148	62,873	5,099	56,619	2,788	4,786	180,728
1844,.....	40,595	194,917	11,856	30,739	2,240	12,298	295,022
1845,.....	86,783	365,886	5,386	17,325	3,202	6,472	489,382
	\$822,020	\$3,500,540	\$378,123	\$2,306,068	\$23,746	\$35,929	\$7,100,663

TABLE II.—CONTINUED.

Periods.	Deposited at the Branch Mints, and total at Mint and Branches.					Tot. U. S. gold at mt. & b'ch's.
	Charlotte, N. C.	Dahlonega, Ga.	N. Orleans.	Tot. branch mts.		
1838,.....	\$127,000	\$135,700	\$700	\$263,400		\$435,100
1839,.....	126,836	113,035	6,869	246,740		385,240
1840,.....	124,726	121,858	2,835	249,419		426,185
1841,.....	129,847	161,974	1,818	293,630		542,117
1842,.....	174,508	323,372	5,630	503,510		777,097
1843,.....	272,064	570,080	22,573	864,717		1,045,445
1844,.....	167,348	479,794	25,036	672,178		967,200
1845,.....	498,632	20,313	518,945		1,008,327
	\$1,122,329	\$2,404,445	\$85,774	\$3,612,548		\$10,713,211

In addition to the deposits from the states, enumerated in this table, it appears that in 1831, from other sources not designated, there was \$1,000; in 1835, \$12,200; in 1838, \$200; in 1842, \$13,727; in 1843, \$415; in 1844, \$2,377; in 1845, \$4,328—total, \$34,237.

TABLE III.—STATEMENT OF THE AMOUNTS COINED ANNUALLY AT THE BRANCH MINTS, FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THEIR OPERATIONS TO DECEMBER 31, 1845.

		Gold.				
Mints and periods.	Eagles. Pieces.	Halves. Pieces.	Quarters. Pieces.	Number. Pieces.	Value. Dollars.	
Charlotte, N. C.	1838.....	12,886	7,894	20,780	84,165
	1839.....	23,467	18,173	41,640	162,767
	1840.....	18,994	12,834	31,828	127,055
	1841.....	21,467	10,281	31,748	133,038
	1842.....	27,480	8,642	36,122	159,005
	1843.....	44,353	26,096	70,449	287,005
	1844.....	23,631	11,622	35,253	147,210
Total.....	172,278	95,542	267,820	1,100,245	
Dahlonega, Ga.	1838.....	20,583	20,583	102,915
	1839.....	18,939	13,674	32,613	128,880
	1840.....	22,896	3,532	26,428	123,310
	1841.....	30,495	4,164	34,659	162,885
	1842.....	59,608	4,643	64,251	309,648
	1843.....	98,452	36,209	134,661	582,782
	1844.....	88,982	17,332	106,314	488,600
1845.....	90,629	19,460	110,089	501,795	
Total.....	430,584	99,014	529,598	2,400,815	
New Orleans.	1838.....
	1839.....	9,396	9,396	23,490
	1840.....	30,400	26,200	56,600	217,500
	1841.....	2,500	8,350	7,380	18,230	85,200
	1842.....	27,400	16,400	19,800	63,600	405,500
	1843.....	175,162	101,075	368,002	644,239	3,177,000
	1844.....	118,700	364,600	483,300	3,010,000
1845.....	47,500	41,000	88,500	680,000	
Total.....	371,262	561,825	430,788	1,363,865	7,598,690	
Aggregate.....	371,262	1,164,687	625,344	2,161,283	11,099,750	
		Silver.				
Mints and periods.	Half dollars. Pieces.	Qr. dollars. Pieces.	Dimes. Pieces.	Hf. dimes. Pieces.		
New Orleans.	1838.....	402,430
	1839.....	116,000	1,291,600	1,060,000
	1840.....	855,100	425,200	1,175,000	935,000
	1841.....	401,000	452,000	2,007,500	815,000
	1842.....	957,000	769,000	2,020,000	350,000
	1843.....	2,268,000	968,000	150,000
	1844.....	2,005,000	740,000	220,000
1845.....	2,094,000	230,000	
Total.....	8,696,100	3,354,200	7,276,530	3,380,000	
Aggregate.....	8,696,100	3,354,200	7,276,530	3,380,000	
		TOTAL OF SILVER.		WHOLE COINAGE.		
Mints and periods.	Number. Pieces.	Value. Dollars.	Number. Pieces.	Value. Dollars.		
New Orleans.	1838.....	402,430	40,243	402,430	40,243
	1839.....	2,467,600	240,160	2,476,996	263,650
	1840.....	3,390,300	698,100	3,446,900	915,600
	1841.....	3,675,500	555,000	3,693,730	640,200
	1842.....	4,096,000	890,250	4,159,600	1,295,750
	1843.....	3,386,000	1,391,000	4,030,239	4,568,000
	1844.....	2,965,000	1,198,500	3,448,300	4,208,500
1845.....	2,324,000	1,070,000	2,412,500	1,750,000	
Total.....	22,706,830	6,083,253	24,070,695	13,681,943
Aggregate.....	22,706,830	6,083,253	24,868,013	17,183,003

TABLE IV.—COINAGE OF THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, IN THE SEVERAL YEARS FROM ITS ESTABLISHMENT, IN 1792, AND INCLUDING THE COINAGE OF THE BRANCH MINTS FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THEIR OPERATIONS, IN 1838.

Years.	WHOLE COINAGE.				
	GOLD. Value.	SILVER. Value.	COPPER. Value.	No. of pieces.	Value.
1793, } 1794, } 1795, }	\$71,485 00	\$370,683 80	\$11,373 00	1,835,420	\$453,541 80
1796,	102,727 50	79,077 50	10,324 40	1,219,370	192,129 40
1797,	103,422 50	12,591 45	9,510 34	1,095,165	125,524 29
1798,	205,610 00	330,291 00	9,797 00	1,368,241	545,698 00
1799,	213,285 00	423,515 00	9,106 68	1,365,681	645,906 68
1800,	317,760 00	224,296 00	29,279 40	3,337,972	571,335 40
1801,	422,570 00	74,758 00	13,628 37	1,571,390	510,956 37
1802,	423,310 00	58,343 00	34,422 83	3,615,869	516,075 83
1803,	258,377 50	87,118 00	25,203 03	2,780,830	370,698 53
1804,	258,642 50	100,340 50	12,844 94	2,046,839	371,827 94
1805,	170,367 50	149,388 50	13,483 48	2,260,361	333,239 48
1806,	324,505 00	471,319 00	5,260 00	1,815,409	801,084 00
1807,	437,495 00	597,448 75	9,652 21	2,731,345	1,044,595 96
1808,	284,665 00	684,300 00	13,090 00	2,935,888	982,055 00
1809,	169,375 00	707,376 00	8,001 53	2,861,834	884,752 53
1810,	501,435 00	638,773 50	15,660 00	3,056,418	1,155,868 50
1811,	497,905 00	608,340 00	2,495 95	1,649,570	1,108,740 95
1812,	290,435 00	814,029 50	10,755 00	2,761,646	1,115,219 50
1813,	477,140 00	620,951 50	4,180 00	1,755,331	1,102,271 50
1814,	77,270 00	561,687 50	3,578 30	1,833,859	642,535 80
1815,	3,175 00	17,308 00	69,867	20,483 00
1816,	28,575 75	28,209 82	2,888,135	56,785 57
1817,	607,783 50	39,484 00	5,163,967	647,267 50
1818,	242,940 00	1,070,454 50	31,670 00	5,537,084	1,345,064 50
1819,	258,615 00	1,140,000 00	26,710 00	5,074,723	1,425,325 00
1820,	1,319,030 00	501,680 70	44,075 50	6,492,509	1,864,786 20
1821,	189,325 00	825,762 45	3,890 00	3,139,249	1,018,977 45
1822,	88,980 00	805,806 50	20,723 39	3,813,788	915,509 89
1823,	72,425 00	895,550 00	2,166,845	967,975 00
1824,	93,200 00	1,752,477 00	12,620 00	4,786,894	1,858,297 00
1825,	156,385 00	1,564,583 00	14,926 00	5,178,760	1,735,894 00
1826,	92,245 00	2,002,090 00	16,344 25	5,774,434	2,110,679 25
1827,	131,565 00	2,869,200 00	23,577 32	9,097,845	3,024,342 32
1828,	140,145 00	1,575,600 00	25,636 24	6,196,853	1,741,381 24
1829,	295,717 50	1,994,578 00	16,580 00	7,674,501	2,306,875 50
1830,	643,105 00	2,495,400 00	17,115 00	8,357,191	3,155,620 00
1831,	714,270 00	3,175,600 00	33,603 60	11,792,284	3,923,473 60
1832,	798,435 00	2,579,000 00	23,620 00	9,128,387	3,401,055 00
1833,	978,550 00	2,759,000 00	28,160 00	10,307,790	3,765,710 00
1834,	3,954,270 00	3,415,002 00	19,151 00	11,637,643	7,388,423 00
1835,	2,186,175 00	3,443,003 00	39,489 00	15,996,342	5,668,667 00
1836,	4,135,700 00	3,606,100 00	23,100 00	13,719,333	7,764,900 00
1837,	1,148,305 00	2,096,010 00	55,583 00	13,010,721	3,299,898 00
1838,	1,809,595 00	2,333,243 00	63,702 00	15,780,311	4,206,540 00
1839,	1,355,885 00	2,189,296 00	31,286 61	11,811,594	3,576,467 61
1840,	1,675,302 50	1,726,703 00	24,627 00	10,558,240	3,426,632 50
1841,	1,091,597 50	1,132,750 00	15,973 67	8,811,968	2,240,321 17
1842,	1,834,170 50	2,332,750 00	23,833 90	11,743,153	4,190,754 40
1843,	8,108,797 50	3,834,750 00	24,283 20	14,640,582	11,967,830 70
1844,	5,428,230 00	2,235,550 00	23,987 52	9,051,834	7,687,767 52
1845,	3,756,447 50	1,873,200 00	38,948 04	11,806,196	5,668,595 54
	\$48,310,365 50	\$66,493,434 90	\$1,042,556 52	305,106,101	\$115,846,356 92

BANKS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

The Convention of the State of New York, now in session at Albany, for the purpose of revising the Constitution of the State, passed a resolution on the 16th of June, 1846, directing the Comptroller to report a list of the incorporated banks of New York, the time of their incorporation, or renewal, when their charters expire, and the amount of capital of each; also a list of such of the banks subject to the "Safety Fund" law as have become insolvent, and the amount contributed and paid out of that fund to the creditors of such insolvent banks; a list of the banks established under the "act to authorize the business of banking;" where the same purport to be located, and the business carried on; the actual capital, as returned to his office, (Comptroller's,) by the applicants to him for circulating notes; the amount of such notes delivered by him to each banking association or individual banker, and the nature and amount of the securities transferred to him for the redemption of such notes; also a list of such of the last-mentioned banks which have failed to redeem their notes, by reason of insolvency, or otherwise; the amount of the circulating notes of such banks, unredeemed, or not returned to him, and the loss, (if any,) and the amount thereof, upon the securities transferred to him, for the payment of said circulating notes.

The report, or statements, in answer to these inquiries, by A. C. FLAGG, Esq., the Comptroller, have been prepared by that gentleman, with his accustomed precision and accuracy, and printed for the use of the Convention. The following statements, derived from it, embrace a summary view of the tabular statements connected with the report, besides other explanatory matter, and information of sufficient interest for preservation in this department of the Merchants' Magazine.

From this report, it appears that the aggregate amount of capital of all the incorporated banks now in operation, is \$30,491,460. The debts of two of the banks which have failed have been paid from the assets of the banks, without calling on the Safety Fund; these are the La Fayette Bank in New York, and the Oswego Bank in Oswego. The capital of the eleven Safety Fund banks which have failed, amounts to a total of \$3,150,000. These banks have paid into the Safety Fund, \$86,279 42; and there has been paid from the Safety Fund, on account of nine of them, the sum of \$2,447,997 41.

There is yet to be paid from the Safety Fund, \$86,000 on account of the Clinton County Bank, with interest at 5 per cent from 1842, and \$74,000 on account of the Bank of Lyons. Deducting \$50,000 to be realized from the assets of the City Bank of Buffalo, and from some mortgages received from the Clinton County Bank, it will leave \$134,000 to be drawn from the Safety Fund, making the total loss to that Fund equal to \$2,581,997 41. A portion of this sum has been paid to the creditors of insolvent Safety Fund banks, in 6 per cent stock, issued under chapter 114 of the laws of 1845, and for the reimbursement of which the future contributions of the Safety Fund are pledged. The payment of the interest and principal, of the stock issued and to be issued, will absorb the entire contributions of half of 1 per cent annually on the capital of all the Safety Fund banks, during the continuance of the present charters of those institutions.

The cash paid into the Treasury, by the banks, on account of the Safety Fund, from 1831 to 1845, amounts to.....	\$1,188,422 76
Revenue of fund added to capital,.....	36,363 23

Making a total of.....	\$1,224,785 99
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When eight or ten of the Safety Fund banks had suspended the payment of their debts, an act was passed, (chapter 247 of the laws of 1842,) authorizing the banks which did not suspend, to commute for their payments to the Safety Fund for six years in advance, by paying 3 per cent on the capital, in the bills of the suspended banks, and a rebate of interest was allowed to the contributing bank, from the date of payment to the time when the annual contributions of half of 1 per cent would be payable. Sixty-four banks availed themselves of the privilege of commuting, and paid to the Treasurer \$477,609 in the notes of broken banks, on which they were allowed a rebate of \$74,186 44.

The future contributions to the Safety Fund which were not commuted for, under the act, chapter 247 of the laws of 1842, have been anticipated, by the issue of stock for the

payment of the debts of the nine banks which failed prior to 1843, as provided for by the act, chapter 114 of the laws of 1845. The Safety Fund, therefore, is used up and mortgaged for liabilities already incurred, and there is no provision which can be made available for the redemption of the notes of Safety Fund banks which may become insolvent hereafter.

The original Bank Fund act of 1829, (chapter 94,) provided for the payment of *all debts* of insolvent Safety Fund banks, from the Bank Fund. The act of 1842, (chapter 247, section 8,) provides that the act of 1829 "shall be so amended, that wherever the word 'debts' occurs, the same shall be stricken out, and the words 'circulating notes' inserted." This releases the Safety Fund from the payment of any of the liabilities of insolvent banks, except those created by the issue of circulating notes. A history of the operation of the laws of 1842 and 1845, and their effect on the Safety Fund, may be seen by reference to the Comptroller's annual reports for 1843 and 1846.

It further appears that seventy-one banks, with an aggregate capital of \$12,437,654, have deposited with the Comptroller securities to the amount of \$7,462,253, and have received from the Comptroller circulating notes to the amount of \$6,641,756. The securities thus pledged for the redemption of the circulating notes, consist of—

Bonds and mortgages,.....	\$1,615,256	11
New York State stocks,.....	4,014,281	47
United States stocks,.....	105,000	00
Indiana, (confined to 2 banks,).....	158,000	00
Illinois, (affecting 14 banks,).....	513,000	00
Arkansas, (affecting 15 banks,).....	499,000	00
Alabama, (confined to 1 bank,).....	34,000	00
Michigan, (affecting 15 banks,).....	500,293	00
Cash in deposit, (for 6 banks,).....	23,413	60
		\$7,462,244
Add for cents,.....		8 82
		\$7,462,253 00

Twenty-nine banks, established under the "Act to authorize the business of banking," which have failed to redeem their notes, by reason of insolvency or otherwise, have consequently been closed, and the securities sold, and the proceeds applied to the redemption of the circulating notes of such banks. The nominal amount of securities deposited with the Comptroller, by these twenty-nine banks, as shown in the table, was \$1,555,338 00. Amount received from sale of securities, 953,371 75. Circulating notes at the time of failure,..... 1,233,374 00. Circulating notes outstanding, June 20, 1846,..... 27,551 00.

If the amount of notes outstanding, (\$27,551,) be deducted from the amount in circulation at the time of failure, (\$1,233,374,) it shows a difference of \$1,205,823, which is the amount of notes surrendered to the Comptroller; but this sum greatly exceeds the amount actually paid to bill-holders from the proceeds of the securities of the banks. A single case will be given to explain how this difference arises. An individual presents for redemption a twenty dollar note, on a bank which pays only 75 per cent of its circulation from the avails of the securities in the hands of the Comptroller. This person is paid \$15 in money, and gets a certificate that he has surrendered \$20, has been paid \$15, and that there is due him \$5 from the bank which issued the note. In no instance, has anything been realized from the receiver of a free bank to pay these certificates; in two or three cases, where securities in the hands of the Comptroller were left out of the first dividend, recoveries have been had, and the certificate redeemed in whole or in part from the avails of such securities.

The law requires that all mortgages taken as security for notes, shall be on improved, productive, unincumbered lands, worth, independently of any buildings thereon, at least double the amount for which they are taken. Appraisers have been selected, and their estimates were made under oath; and yet, when the value of these mortgages have been tested by forced sales, the average product of nineteen banks exhibits a loss equal to about thirty cents on the dollar. The average loss on New York State stocks and bonds and mortgages, taken together, is about sixteen cents on the dollar. These are the only securities now authorized to be taken for the redemption of circulating notes.

The twenty-nine banks before referred to, had deposited with the Comptroller, securities in State stocks and mortgages to the amount of..... \$1,555,338 00. These produced on sale,..... 953,371 75.

Showing a loss on the securities of..... \$601,966 25

At the time of failure, these twenty-nine banks had in circulation notes to the amount of \$1,233,374.

On these notes, the payments were equal to an average of 76 per cent; the total loss to bill-holders being \$292,344 36. It is thus shown, that while the banks have lost \$601,966 25, on that portion of their securities deposited with the Comptroller, the holders of their notes have lost \$292,344 36, or a fraction less than 24 per cent on the amount in circulation at the time of the failure of the banks respectively.

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#### FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES, 1844-46.

On the 29th of June, 1846, the Senate of the United States passed a resolution requiring of the Secretary of the Treasury "a statement of the revenue received from customs for the three first quarters of the present year, and the amount expected from that source for the present quarter." Under date Treasury Department, July 13th, 1846, Mr. Secretary Walker transmitted to that branch of the government, the statement which we publish below :

The receipts from customs for the fiscal year terminating on the 30th of June, 1845, and for the first three quarters of the fiscal year ending on the 30th of June, 1846, are given from the official returns for moneys actually paid into the treasury.

The official returns for moneys actually paid into the treasury for the last quarter of the fiscal year ending on the 30th of June, 1846, are not quite fully completed, but can vary only a very small sum from the amount given in the estimate of \$6,270,000.

It will be perceived that the receipts into the treasury from customs, for the fiscal year ending on the 30th of June, 1846, are less than the receipts for the fiscal year preceding, by the sum of \$846,197 28.

#### RECEIPTS FROM THE CUSTOMS FOR THE FISCAL YEARS ENDING THE 30TH JUNE, 1845 AND 1846.

|                                           |                 |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Quarter ending 30th September, 1844,..... | \$10,873,718 04 |
| “ “ “ 1845,.....                          | 8,861,932 14    |
| Excess in 1844,.....                      | \$2,011,785 90  |
| Quarter ending 31st December, 1844,.....  | \$4,067,445 15  |
| “ “ “ 1845,.....                          | 4,192,790 77    |
| Excess in 1845,.....                      | \$125,345 02    |
| Quarter ending 31st March, 1845,.....     | \$6,385,558 83  |
| “ “ “ 1846,.....                          | 7,357,192 51    |
| Excess in 1846,.....                      | \$971,633 68    |
| Quarter ending 30th June, 1845,.....      | \$6,201,390 68  |
| “ “ 1846, ascertained and estimated,..... | 8,280,000 06    |
| Excess in 1846,.....                      | \$2,078,609 32  |
| Quarter ending 30th September, 1844,..... | \$10,873,718 04 |
| “ 31st December, 1844,.....               | 4,067,445 15    |
| “ 31st March, 1845,.....                  | 6,385,558 83    |
| “ 30th June, 1845,.....                   | 6,201,390 68    |
|                                           | \$27,528,112 70 |
| Quarter ending 30th September, 1845,..... | \$8,861,932 14  |
| “ 31st December, 1845,.....               | 4,192,790 77    |
| “ 31st March, 1846,.....                  | 7,357,192 51    |
| “ 30th June, 1846,.....                   | 6,270,000 00    |
|                                           | \$25,681,915 42 |
| 1844 and 1845,.....                       | \$27,528,112 70 |
| 1845 and 1846,.....                       | 26,681,915 42   |
| Excess in 1844 and 1845,.....             | \$846,197 28    |

**RAILROAD AND CANAL STATISTICS.**

**CAPACITY OF RAILROADS FOR BUSINESS.**

THE Reading Railroad, which is ninety-two miles in length, transported, in the year 1845, 800,000 tons of coal; and in the single month of July last, 104,000 tons. The business for the year 1846, is estimated at 1,220,000 tons, which is equivalent to 7,500,000 bales of cotton, more than three times the entire crop of the United States. If a like amount of up-freight is performed—and which might have been done, as the cars returned empty—we have an example of a railroad nearly 100 miles in length, capable of doing a transportation within the year, equivalent in weight to six times the cotton crop of the United States, or 12,000,000 of bales, and which would be equal to 5,000 ships of 500 tons each, performing two voyages to Europe.

This business on the Reading road, was performed at the rate of one cent per ton per mile, or \$1 for 100 miles—one-half of which is shown to be profit. At the same freight, a bale of cotton may be brought from the Tennessee valley, North Alabama, at fifty cents a bale. "Who can, with this exhibit," says the Charleston (S. C.) Mercury, "doubt the capacity of railways competing successfully with river navigation, or the ability to transport, at remunerating prices, western produce to our south Atlantic markets? Enterprise and confidence is all that is necessary; and if our southern cities, with all the lights before them, are resolved to remain in slumbering inactivity, others, acting up to the spirit of the age, will enjoy the harvest."

**READING RAILROAD.**

The following are the receipts of each of the twelve months of the year 1845, as compared with the twelve months of the preceding year:—

| 1845.           |           | 1844.    |                | 1845-6.  |          | 1844-5. |  |
|-----------------|-----------|----------|----------------|----------|----------|---------|--|
| June,.....      | \$101,493 | \$49,066 | December,..... | \$65,172 | \$43,066 |         |  |
| July,.....      | 129,502   | 63,042   | January,.....  | 69,754   | 40,675   |         |  |
| August,.....    | 127,513   | 76,997   | February,..... | 65,026   | 32,495   |         |  |
| September,..... | 132,612   | 72,175   | March,.....    | 96,720   | 47,655   |         |  |
| October,.....   | 131,879   | 76,476   | April,.....    | 155,183  | 68,176   |         |  |
| November,.....  | 125,946   | 62,197   | May,.....      | 144,035  | 79,882   |         |  |

**ERIE CANAL AND WESTERN RAILROAD.**

The great State work of Massachusetts, has frequently been compared to that of New York State, as a means of developing the resources and improving the property of the Commonwealth. The analogy of the receipts in the two cases, for the first five years, is rather impressive:—

| Erie Canal. |           | Erie Canal. |             | Western Railroad. |           |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------------|-----------|
| 1825.....   | \$566,000 | 1842.....   | \$1,743,000 | 1842.....         | \$512,688 |
| 1826.....   | 793,000   | 1843.....   | 2,087,000   | 1843.....         | 573,881   |
| 1827.....   | 860,500   | 1844.....   | 2,432,000   | 1844.....         | 753,752   |
| 1828.....   | 838,000   | 1845.....   | 2,620,000   | 1845.....         | 913,478   |
| 1829.....   | 818,000   |             |             | 1846.....         | *976,000  |

\* The increase on the Western road, thus far, in 1846, is over 20 per cent, giving \$70,000 for the first six months, and being at the rate of \$163,000 for the year, making the total, as above, \$976,000. The expenses to the present time have not increased. —*Boston Courier.*

## COMPARATIVE COST OF RAILROADS.

Twenty years ago, a short road at Quincy, to carry marble, was all the pioneer we had. Now we have nearly 4,000 miles of railroad in actual daily operation in the United States; and a great deal more in the rest of the world. The materials of experience are therefore sufficiently abundant. The cost of seventy-nine railroads in the United States is given in a table published in the American Railroad Journal. The aggregate length of them is 3,723 miles, and the cost is \$109,841,460; or \$29,325 85 per mile.

In the Carolinas and Georgia, 785½ miles cost but \$14,063,175, or \$17,919 per mile; those of North Carolina and Georgia, 583½ miles long, cost \$8,391,723, or \$14,387 72 per mile; those of Georgia, 337½ miles, cost \$5,231,723, or \$15,489 per mile; the Central Railroad in Georgia, 190½ miles long, cost \$2,551,723, or \$13,570 72 per mile; and that part of the Georgia Railroad, of 65 miles, which has been constructed of late years, is said to have cost less than \$12,000 per mile, including an edge rail; or, as commonly called, a T rail.

The residue of the railroads on the list, in the Northern and Eastern States, amounting to 2,937½ miles in length, cost \$95,788,295, or \$32,633 23 per mile.

## TRANSPORTATION OF MILK ON THE ERIE RAILROAD.

The following statement of the revenues ensuing from the transportation of the single article of milk, for the four years ending Dec. 31, 1845, is derived from the books of the New York and Erie Railroad Company:—

| 1842.      | 1843.       | 1844.       | 1845.       |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| \$3,430 72 | \$18,497 46 | \$28,055 08 | \$30,694 20 |

## STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

## IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES.

THE following statement of the number of immigrants who have arrived at the port of New York during the six months commencing on the 1st of January, 1846, and ending on the 30th of June, is derived from the books of the United States Revenue Barge Office, under the charge of Captain Thorn:

| January. | February. | March. | April. | May.   | June.  |
|----------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1,138    | 661       | 4,000  | 7,043  | 18,954 | 18,834 |

Showing a total of 50,631 for the six months ending June 30th, 1846. The number of immigrants, according to the same authority, for the six corresponding months of 1845, was 37,809; being an increase in favor of the first six months of 1846, of 12,820.

A letter in the Washington Union, from Hanover, Germany, May 23d, 1846, estimates the number of emigrants to the United States, from Europe, during the present year, at not less than 200,000. Many families in affluent circumstances, the writer says, are quitting Holland for our shores. Twenty thousand persons, chiefly French or Swiss, also will embark at Havre. Forty thousand Germans, at the lowest computation, will sail from Bremen, three or four thousand from Hamburg, as many more from Rotterdam, and four or five thousand from Antwerp. These, with thirty thousand from Ireland, the writer believes, will carry with them a capital exceeding \$20,000,000.

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN BOSTON.

In the Merchants' Magazine for July, 1846, (Vol. XV., p. 34 to 50,) we published a very elaborate statistical view of the "Progressive Wealth and Commerce of Boston," based on the admirable report of Mr. Shattuck, but omitted any notice of the past, present, and progressive population of that city. That deficiency we now proceed to supply, drawing our data from the same authentic source.

The number of persons enumerated in the census of Boston of 1845, was 114,366. The increase of the population since 1840, has been 29,366; 35 per cent, or an average annual increase of 5,873, or 7 per cent.

The following table shows the total population of Boston by each census, from 1742 to 1845, distinguishing the white and colored population, and the per centage of the two colors:

| Year.     | NUMBER OF PERSONS. |         |          | TO EACH 100 PERSONS THERE WERE, |          |
|-----------|--------------------|---------|----------|---------------------------------|----------|
|           | Total.             | Whites. | Colored. | Whites.                         | Colored. |
| 1742..... | 16,382             | 15,008  | 1,374    | 91.61                           | 8.39     |
| 1765..... | 15,520             | 14,672  | 848      | 94.54                           | 5.46     |
| 1790..... | 18,320             | 17,554  | 766      | 95.82                           | 4.18     |
| 1800..... | 24,937             | 23,763  | 1,174    | 95.30                           | 4.70     |
| 1810..... | 33,787             | 32,319  | 1,468    | 95.66                           | 4.34     |
| 1820..... | 43,298             | 41,558  | 1,740    | 95.98                           | 4.02     |
| 1825..... | 58,281             | 56,364  | 1,917    | 96.71                           | 3.29     |
| 1830..... | 61,392             | 59,517  | 1,875    | 96.95                           | 3.05     |
| 1835..... | 78,603             | 76,846  | 1,557    | 97.76                           | 2.24     |
| 1840..... | 85,000             | 83,012  | 1,988    | 97.66                           | 2.34     |
| 1845..... | 114,366            | 112,524 | 1,842    | 98.34                           | 1.61     |

From this statement it appears that the proportion of the colored population has been gradually diminishing. It has been reduced from 4.70 per cent in 1800, to 1.61 in 1845, or 3.06 per cent.

The following table shows the proportions of the sexes at different periods:

| Years.    | NUMBER OF PERSONS. |        |          | TO EACH 100 PERSONS THERE WERE |          | To each 100 males, the females were |
|-----------|--------------------|--------|----------|--------------------------------|----------|-------------------------------------|
|           | Total.             | Males. | Females. | Males.                         | Females. |                                     |
| 1765..... | 15,520             | 7,581  | 7,839    | 48.84                          | 51.16    | 104.72                              |
| 1790..... | 17,554             | 7,912  | 9,642    | 45.07                          | 54.93    | 121.86                              |
| 1800..... | 23,703             | 11,224 | 12,489   | 47.33                          | 52.67    | 111.27                              |
| 1810..... | 32,319             | 15,749 | 16,570   | 48.73                          | 51.27    | 105.21                              |
| 1820..... | 43,298             | 29,917 | 22,381   | 48.31                          | 51.69    | 106.99                              |
| 1825..... | 58,277             | 28,881 | 29,396   | 49.56                          | 50.44    | 101.78                              |
| 1830..... | 61,392             | 29,036 | 32,355   | 47.30                          | 52.70    | 111.43                              |
| 1835..... | 78,603             | 38,610 | 39,993   | 49.12                          | 50.88    | 103.58                              |
| 1840..... | 84,401             | 40,715 | 43,686   | 48.24                          | 51.76    | 107.29                              |
| 1840..... | 85,000             | 40,860 | 44,140   | 48.07                          | 51.93    | 108.02                              |
| 1845..... | 114,366            | 56,890 | 57,476   | 49.74                          | 50.26    | 101.03                              |

The number of naturalized foreigners. The number of foreign males in Boston, over 21 years of age, in 1845, was 9,763. Of these, 1,623 were returned as naturalized. Some are stated as having "obtained their first papers," but 7,053 were returned as not naturalized. The previous censuses gave 1,752 not naturalized, in 1820; 3,468, in 1830; and 4,606, in 1835.

POPULATION OF THE AUSTRIAN MONARCHY.

A statistical return lately published at Vienna, gives the total population of the Austrian monarchy at 37,491,120. Of this, Hungary has 12,273,717; Bohemia 4,249,669; the Kingdom of Venice 2,219,933; and Lombardy 2,588,426.

## JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

### WAGES OF WOMEN IN FACTORIES.

In the Stark Mills, (cotton,) at Manchester, New Hampshire, Mr. W. Amory, the agent, says, under his signature, that the average wages of all the girls there employed, over and above their board, was, in February, 1843, only \$1 46 per week; and in the same month in 1846, \$1 93 per week; or nearly 33 per cent increase, over 1843.

The same gentleman furnishes the following table of the comparative average wages, exclusive of board, of the girls in the Amoskeag Mill, for the month of January, in the four successive years, 1842, 1843, 1844, 1845, 1846, employed in the different processes of manufacturing cloth:—

AVERAGE WAGES PAID THE OPERATIVES IN THE AMOSKEAG NEW MILL, IN THE MONTH OF JANUARY, IN EACH YEAR, SINCE STARTING UP.

|                                 | Carding. | Spinning. | Weaving. | Dressing. |
|---------------------------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| Mill No. 1, January, 1842,..... | \$1 51   | \$1 33    | \$1 61   | \$2 20    |
| “ 1843,.....                    | 1 57     | 1 41      | 1 74     | 2 30      |
| “ 1844,.....                    | 1 69     | 1 35      | 2 02     | 2 55      |
| “ 1845,.....                    | 1 87     | 1 36      | 2 09     | 2 56      |
| “ 1846,.....                    | 1 84     | 1 61      | 2 66     | 2 78      |
| Gain in four years,.....        | 21 p. c. | 21 p. c.  | 65 p. c. | 38 p. c.  |

John Aiken, agent of the Lawrence Manufacturing Company at Lowell, says that all the female job help in the mills worked, between the second Saturday of November, 1842, and the second Saturday of February, 1843, 48,730 days, and received for wages \$23,418 90—it being at the rate of 48 5-10 cents per day, or \$1 63 per week, clear of board, at \$1 25 per week. All the female job hands employed in the mills of the same company, between the second Saturday of November, 1845, and the second Saturday of February, 1846, worked 35,841½ days, and received for wages \$19,724 11—it being at the rate of 55 3-10 cents per day, or \$2 05 per week, clear of board.

The average wages of the female operatives in the employ of the Jackson Manufacturing Company, New Hampshire, for the four weeks ending February 21, 1843, is stated by Edmund Parker, the agent of that company, at \$1 44; and for the four weeks ending February 20, 1846, at \$2 04. The advance in the wages of the factory operatives at Lowell, is evidenced in the amount of deposits in the Savings Bank, as follows:—

AMOUNT OF DEPOSITS IN THE SAVINGS BANK AT LOWELL.

|            |           |
|------------|-----------|
| 1841,..... | \$448,190 |
| 1842,..... | 478,365   |
| 1843,..... | 462,650   |
| 1844,..... | 591,910   |
| 1845,..... | 730,890   |

It will be noticed that, in 1844, when the earnings increased, the deposits were augmented.

### FIRST CAST-IRON MANUFACTURED IN MICHIGAN.

A correspondent of the Jackson Patriot, writing from Union City, under date of June 4, 1846, says that the first cast-iron ever manufactured in Michigan was made at the Union Furnace, lately erected in Union City, on Friday, the 29th of May, 1846. The company, it is said, are now casting from two to three tons of pig iron per day, and the iron is believed by judges to be of excellent quality, and the ore, the product of that state, abundant.



## AMERICAN IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURE.

The new mode of manufacturing malleable iron directly from the ore, was invented almost simultaneously in England and the United States; in the former country by W. N. Clay, and in the latter by S. Broadmeadow, and was patented in both, in the early part of 1844. One of the most intelligent and practical manufacturers of iron and steel in Pennsylvania, writing in answer to several inquiries propounded, upon the subject of the manufacture of steel, to William H. Starr, of New York, says:—

“ Upon the subject of steel, much more may now be said than formerly, in point of its manufacture in the United States. The recent National Fair, held at Washington, has given ample proofs of the adaptation of our iron for that purpose; for specimens there exhibited bore favorable comparison with the best imported article, both in appearance and test trials. The first cost of manufacturing must be materially less than can be afforded by European establishments, if it is only from the great difference in the cost of the bar-iron used in its conversion; they paying £36 (\$172 80) per ton, while it can be procured here for \$85 to \$90. The difference in labor, fuel, &c., necessary for its manufacture, would be somewhat favorable to ‘home manufacture;’ in addition to which, there is transportation, duty, insurance, &c., all of which must naturally flow as profits into the lap of the American producer of this article.

“ The outlay necessary to erect works for the manufacture of the best steel, must of necessity vary according to their magnitude, and capability of turning out a larger or smaller quantity of it; yet I may venture to assert that an outlay of \$8,000 would be all-sufficient for the production of 300 tons per annum.”

## ENTERPRISE OF MASSACHUSETTS MANUFACTURERS.

The Fall River Iron-Works Company, which has a large establishment at Fall River, in Massachusetts, including a rolling-mill 412 feet long, and 100 feet wide, a nail-mill, 226 feet long, and 44 feet wide, a foundry, 24 puddling-furnaces, an air-furnace, 2 cupola-furnaces, and 5 steam-engines, has lately purchased the valuable coal-mine near Cumberland, known as the Clifton property, embracing a part of the ten-feet coal-vein, to which a railroad has been lately opened from the Mount Savage Iron-Works, connecting it, by means of the Mount Savage Railroad, with the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. The Cumberland Civilian, from which we derive this information, says that “ the annual consumption of coal in the Fall River establishment is 17,050 tons; and of pig iron, 7,750 tons; scrap iron, 5,580 tons; blooms and billets, 620 tons—the product of which is 1,750 casks of nails, 1,550 tons of castings, 6,200 tons of hoop, round and square iron, &c., &c. They give employment to 520 hands, and the gross value of the manufactured goods for the past year is \$1,038,500. Richard Borden, Esq., is the agent and director of this extensive concern.” Massachusetts is thus destined to share in the benefit of the Cumberland mines, by making them tributary to her own industry.

## MINERAL RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

It appears from the report of the committee on agriculture, made at the last session of the Alabama legislature, that there are five principal, and several other minor mines of gold and silver in Randolph county, Alabama, producing about \$125,000 annually, and employing from three to five hundred people. There are inexhaustible beds of fine iron ore in the same county. There are also rich mines of gold and silver in Talapoosa, and gold has also been found in Coosa, Talladega, and Chambers. Iron foundries have also been established in Benton and Talladega. Nitre is found in abundance in Blount. There are immense quantities of coal near Tuscaloosa, and in many other places. Salt can be manufactured near Jackson, in Clarke. Lead ore in large quantities, and of excellent quality, is found in the bed of the Tennessee on the Muscle Shoals. The marble quarries of Alabama are said to produce some as fine specimens as the finest Carrara of Italy.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

### PRICE OF FLOUR, WHEAT, AND CORN,

AT BALTIMORE, ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1839 to 1846.

WILLIAM G. LYFORD, Esq., the industrious editor of the "Baltimore Journal and Price Current," furnishes the following statement of the prices of flour, wheat, and corn, in the Baltimore market, for the last eight years. It is understood that the flour comprises the standard brands of Howard-street and City Mills, the two principal denominations sold in that market. The wheat is of good to prime quality of red; and the corn of the like quality, and includes white and yellow. The high prices paid for wheat early in 1839, were in consequence of the great scarcity arising from the failure of the crop in 1837, which made it necessary to supply the deficiency by importations from Germany, and a few other foreign ports.

#### FLOUR.

|      | January.<br>Dollars. |         | February.<br>Dollars. |         | March.<br>Dollars. |         | April.<br>Dollars. |         |
|------|----------------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|--------------------|---------|--------------------|---------|
| 1846 | 5 25                 | a 5 37½ | 4 75                  | a 4 81½ | 4 68½              | a 4 75  | 4 75               | a 5 00  |
| 1845 | 4 00                 | a 4 12½ | 4 18½                 | a 4 25  | 4 25               | a 4 31½ | 4 50               | a 4 05  |
| 1844 | 4 18½                | a 4 25  | .....                 | a 4 50  | 4 62½              | a 4 75  | 4 56½              | a 4 62½ |
| 1843 | 4 00                 | a 4 12½ | 3 75                  | a 4 00  | 3 68½              | a 3 75  | 4 93½              | a 4 00  |
| 1842 | 5 87½                | a 6 00  | 5 62½                 | a 5 87½ | 5 25               | a 5 50  | 5 25               | a 5 50  |
| 1841 | 4 62½                | a 4 75  | 4 50                  | a 4 62½ | 4 37½              | a 4 50  | 4 50               | a 4 62½ |
| 1840 | 5 37½                | a 5 50  | 5 50                  | a 5 62½ | 5 00               | a 5 25  | 4 81½              | a 5 00  |
| 1839 | 8 00                 | a 8 12½ | .....                 | a 8 25  | 7 62½              | a 7 75  | 7 00               | a 7 25  |

#### FLOUR—CONTINUED.

|      | May.  |         | June. |         | July. |        | August. |         |
|------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|--------|---------|---------|
| 1846 | ..... | a 4 25  | 4 00  | a 4 25  | 3 81½ | a 4 25 | .....   | a ..... |
| 1845 | 4 43½ | a 4 62½ | 4 50  | a 4 62½ | 4 37½ | a 4 50 | 4 37½   | a 4 50  |
| 1844 | 4 62½ | a 4 75  | 4 37½ | a 4 50  | 4 12½ | a 4 25 | 4 00    | a 4 12½ |
| 1843 | 4 18½ | a 4 25  | 4 50  | a 4 62½ | 5 37½ | a 5 50 | 4 75    | a 5 00  |
| 1842 | 5 75  | a 6 00  | 5 62½ | a 5 75  | ..... | a 5 75 | .....   | a 6 00  |
| 1841 | 4 50  | a 4 62½ | 5 00  | a 5 12½ | 5 50  | a 5 75 | 5 75    | a 6 25  |
| 1840 | 4 75  | a 4 87½ | 4 68½ | a 4 75  | 4 68½ | a 5 00 | 5 25    | a 5 50  |
| 1839 | 7 00  | a 7 25  | 6 37½ | a 6 75  | 5 87½ | a 6 25 | 6 12½   | a 6 50  |

#### FLOUR—CONTINUED.

|      | September. |         | October. |         | November. |         | December. |         |
|------|------------|---------|----------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| 1846 | .....      | a ..... | .....    | a ..... | .....     | a ..... | .....     | a ..... |
| 1845 | .....      | a 4 50  | .....    | a 4 50  | .....     | a 5 25  | .....     | a 6 00  |
| 1844 | 3 87½      | a 4 00  | 4 00     | a 4 25  | .....     | a 4 25  | 4 18½     | a 4 25  |
| 1843 | 4 75       | a 4 87½ | 4 00     | a 4 25  | 4 18½     | a 4 25  | 4 25      | a 4 37½ |
| 1842 | 4 75       | a 5 00  | 4 25     | a 4 37½ | 4 00      | a 4 12½ | 4 37½     | a 4 50  |
| 1841 | 6 37½      | a 6 50  | .....    | a 6 00  | 5 87½     | a 6 00  | 6 25      | a 6 37½ |
| 1840 | 5 25       | a 5 50  | 5 00     | a 5 12½ | 4 87½     | a 5 00  | 4 81½     | a 4 87½ |
| 1839 | 5 75       | a 6 00  | 5 37½    | a 5 50  | 6 25      | a 6 37½ | 6 00      | a 6 25  |

#### WHEAT.

|      | January. |        | February. |         | March. |        | April. |        |
|------|----------|--------|-----------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1846 | 1 05     | a 1 08 | 1 00      | a 1 06  | 1 00   | a 1 05 | 85     | a 90   |
| 1845 | 90       | a 92   | 85        | a 90    | 88     | a 93   | 1 00   | a 1 02 |
| 1844 | 93       | a 95   | 95        | a 98    | 95     | a 1 00 | 1 00   | a 1 03 |
| 1843 | 85       | a 90   | 78        | a 80    | 75     | a 78   | 83     | a 85   |
| 1842 | 1 23     | a 1 28 | 1 15      | a 1 20  | 1 12½  | a 1 20 | 1 10   | a 1 15 |
| 1841 | 95       | a 97   | 90        | a ..... | .....  | a 90   | 90     | a 97   |
| 1840 | 1 00     | a 1 06 | 1 10      | a 1 12  | 1 00   | a 1 05 | 95     | a 1 03 |
| 1839 | 1 66     | a 1 72 | 1 68      | a 1 72  | 1 60   | a 1 70 | 1 55   | a 1 58 |

## WHEAT—CONTINUED.

|      | May. |        | June. |         | July. |        | August. |        |
|------|------|--------|-------|---------|-------|--------|---------|--------|
| 1846 | 85   | a 90   | 88    | a 92    | 85    | a 90   | ...     | a ..   |
| 1845 | 1 00 | a 1 01 | 90    | a 95    | 88    | a 90   | 88      | a 84   |
| 1844 | 1 06 | a 1 10 | 97    | a 98    | 90    | a 93   | 80      | a 84   |
| 1843 | 96   | a 1 00 | 1 10  | a 1 12½ | 1 15  | a 1 18 | 98      | a 1 00 |
| 1842 | 1 30 | a 1 34 | 1 20  | a 1 23  | 1 25  | a 1 30 | 1 15    | a 1 20 |
| 1841 | 90   | a 95   | 1 08  | a 1 09  | 1 25  | a 1 27 | 1 20    | a 1 26 |
| 1840 | 95   | a 1 00 | 93    | a 96    | 95    | a 1 02 | 1 10    | a 1 13 |
| 1839 | 1 65 | a 1 68 | 1 35  | a 1 40  | 1 10  | a 1 15 | 1 15    | a 1 18 |

## WHEAT—CONTINUED.

|      | September. |        | October. |        | November. |        | December. |        |
|------|------------|--------|----------|--------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------|
| 1846 | ...        | a ...  | ..       | a ...  | ..        | a ...  | ...       | a ..   |
| 1845 | 88         | a 92   | 83       | a 88   | 1 09      | a 1 14 | 1 25      | a 1 29 |
| 1844 | 80         | a 83   | 85       | a 89   | 88        | a 93   | 88        | a 93   |
| 1843 | 1 00       | a 1 03 | 93       | a 95   | 85        | a 90   | 93        | a 95   |
| 1842 | 87         | a 90   | 85       | a 90   | 85        | a 88   | 90        | a 95   |
| 1841 | 1 35       | a 1 37 | 1 25     | a 1 29 | 1 22      | a 1 30 | 1 38      | a 1 40 |
| 1840 | 1 00       | a 1 05 | 1 00     | a 1 04 | 95        | a 1 04 | 95        | a 98   |
| 1839 | 1 18       | a 1 22 | 1 00     | a 1 02 | 1 25      | a 1 27 | 1 10      | a 1 15 |

## CORN.

|      | January.<br>Cents. |      | February.<br>Cents. |       | March.<br>Cents. |      | April.<br>Cents. |       |
|------|--------------------|------|---------------------|-------|------------------|------|------------------|-------|
| 1846 | 68                 | a 70 | 60                  | a 64  | 58               | a 64 | 61               | a 62  |
| 1845 | 38                 | a 41 | 41                  | a 44½ | 37               | a 44 | 41               | a 46  |
| 1844 | 34                 | a 40 | 42                  | a 54  | 38               | a 42 | 44               | a 50  |
| 1843 | 41                 | a 43 | 40                  | a 41  | 43               | a 46 | 48               | a 50  |
| 1842 | 50                 | a 54 | 51                  | a 55  | 50               | a 55 | 56               | a 59  |
| 1841 | 50                 | a 55 | 46                  | a 50  | 42               | a 44 | 44               | a 47½ |
| 1840 | 44                 | a 47 | 56                  | a 60  | 42               | a 48 | 48               | a 50  |
| 1839 | 83                 | a 87 | 85                  | a 92  | 80               | a 83 | 84               | a 90  |

## CORN—CONTINUED.

|      | May. |      | June. |       | July. |      | August. |      |
|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|---------|------|
| 1846 | 51   | a 52 | 55    | a 58½ | 52    | a 54 | ..      | a .. |
| 1845 | 38   | a 42 | 38    | a 42  | 41    | a 43 | 43      | a 43 |
| 1844 | 40   | a 46 | 40    | a 44  | 38    | a 42 | 40      | a 45 |
| 1843 | 55   | a 56 | 52    | a 55  | 53    | a 54 | 51      | a 55 |
| 1842 | 55   | a 60 | 50    | a 52  | 56    | a 57 | 51      | a 53 |
| 1841 | 45   | a 51 | 56    | a 59  | 67    | a 68 | 70      | a 71 |
| 1840 | 47   | a 52 | 42    | a 47  | 47    | a 52 | 51      | a 52 |
| 1839 | 82   | a 86 | 86    | a 92  | ..    | a 75 | 75      | a 78 |

## CORN—CONTINUED.

|      | September. |       | October. |      | November. |      | December. |      |
|------|------------|-------|----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
| 1846 | ...        | a ..  | ..       | a .. | ..        | a .. | ...       | a .. |
| 1845 | 50         | a 52½ | 51       | a 55 | 58        | a 61 | 68        | a 72 |
| 1844 | 38         | a 44  | 43       | a 47 | 40        | a 46 | 38        | a 46 |
| 1843 | 49         | a 53  | 42       | a 49 | 45        | a 55 | 38        | a 47 |
| 1842 | ..         | a 50  | 53       | a 55 | 46        | a 48 | 42        | a 45 |
| 1841 | 70         | a 71  | 67       | a 70 | 61        | a 65 | 62        | a 64 |
| 1840 | 49         | a 53  | 53       | a 56 | 43        | a 53 | 40        | a 43 |
| 1839 | 73         | a 70  | 67       | a 71 | 65        | a 75 | 51        | a 56 |

## EXPORT OF TEAS FROM CHINA.

From the "Overland Friend of China," of January 31st, 1846, published at Victoria, it appears that the export of tea to the United States, in fifty vessels, for the year ending June 30th, 1845, was, total green tea, 13,802,099 pounds; black do., 6,950,459. Total green and black, 20,752,558. The export of teas to the United States, in twenty-one vessels, from 30th June, 1845, to January 25th, 1846, was, of green, 7,250,982 pounds; black, 1,671,852. Total green and black, 8,922,834 pounds. The exports of tea from China to Great Britain, from 1st July, 1845, to 24th January, 1846, was 32,234,833 pounds black, and 5,518,907 pounds green. Total, both kinds, 37,853,740 pounds.

## EXPORTS OF LARD AND CHEESE

FROM THE UNITED STATES TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

Quantity of Lard and Cheese exported from the United States in 1844 and 1845, distinguishing the countries to which shipments were made.

|                                   | Cheese, lbs. |           | Lard, lbs. |            |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------|------------|------------|
|                                   | 1844.        | 1845.     | 1844.      | 1845.      |
| Russia,.....                      | 5,304        | .....     |            |            |
| Prussia,.....                     | .....        | .....     | 4,211      | 1,015      |
| Sweden, Norway and Denmark,...    | 62,032       | 48,773    | 375,589    | 358,671    |
| Hanse Towns,.....                 | 11,930       | .....     | 27,596     | 17,178     |
| Holland and dependencies,.....    | 20,170       | 3,843     | 170,203    | 113,861    |
| Belgium,.....                     | 2,472        | .....     | 765,719    | 258,007    |
| England and dependencies,.....    | 6,206,025    | 6,928,646 | 9,785,693  | 6,379,558  |
| France do. ....                   | 48,202       | 5,363     | 5,844,853  | 2,707,694  |
| Spain do. ....                    | 505,347      | 530,636   | 6,823,373  | 8,773,498  |
| Portugal do. ....                 | 14,611       | 3,745     | 12,430     | 16,449     |
| Italy, Sardinia and Sicily,.....  | 3,560        | 16,168    | .....      | .....      |
| Trieste,.....                     | 10,013       | .....     | .....      | .....      |
| Turkey, Levant, &c.,.....         | 746          | .....     | .....      | .....      |
| Hayti,.....                       | 129,310      | 157,429   | 436,453    | 476,707    |
| Texas,.....                       | 326          | 3,403     | 6,711      | 9,841      |
| Mexico,.....                      | 28,585       | 22,107    | 603,518    | 42,409     |
| Central Republic of America,..... | 2,103        | .....     | 259        | .....      |
| New Grenada,.....                 | 4,049        | 1,117     | 2,840      | .....      |
| Venezuela,.....                   | 25,452       | 44,668    | 370,172    | 392,414    |
| Brazil,.....                      | 90,308       | 40,628    | 334,079    | 186,844    |
| Cisplatin Republic,.....          | 26,114       | 2,628     | 36,912     | 40,502     |
| Argentine Republic,.....          | 11,196       | 20,682    | 8,032      | 32,248     |
| All other places,.....            | 135,300      | 101,391   | 139,742    | 254,331    |
| Total,.....                       | 7,343,146    | 7,941,187 | 25,746,355 | 20,060,993 |

## GRAIN TRADE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

A return has been published, by order of the House of Lords, of the quantity of grain of all sorts taken out of bond in the United Kingdom, yearly, for the last twenty years, giving the following totals:—

| Years.    | Total Corn and Grain. Quarters. | Total Meal and Flour. Cwts. | Years.    | Total Corn and Grain. Quarters. | Total Meal and Flour. Cwts. |
|-----------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1826..... | 2,083,700                       | 65,940                      | 1836..... | 396,902                         | 36,916                      |
| 1827..... | 2,995,116                       | 41,724                      | 1837..... | 828,072                         | 40,273                      |
| 1828..... | 1,200,167                       | 126,343                     | 1838..... | 1,814,283                       | 388,299                     |
| 1829..... | 1,864,804                       | 337,066                     | 1839..... | 4,405,613                       | 635,170                     |
| 1830..... | 2,580,403                       | 564,442                     | 1840..... | 3,444,345                       | 1,312,964                   |
| 1831..... | 2,286,473                       | 1,016,583                   | 1841..... | 2,921,329                       | 1,210,137                   |
| 1832..... | 427,118                         | 162,271                     | 1842..... | 3,160,430                       | 1,132,385                   |
| 1833..... | 88,583                          | 74,744                      | 1843..... | 1,230,901                       | 421,136                     |
| 1834..... | 214,432                         | 65,306                      | 1844..... | 2,522,342                       | 710,423                     |
| 1835..... | 423,691                         | 42,619                      | 1845..... | 1,344,182                       | 632,045                     |

Also a return of the quantities of wheat and flour (given together in quarters) in bond on the 5th August, 5th September, 10th October, and 5th November in each year, from 1835 to 1845, (both inclusive,) together with a return of the quantities of wheat entered for home consumption in each week of the above mentioned monthly periods for three years. The latter return gives the following total of quarters of wheat entered for consumption, for the years—

|           |           |           |           |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1835..... | 4,145     | 1841..... | 2,068,776 |
| 1836..... | 9,284     | 1842..... | 2,182,274 |
| 1837..... | 216,852   | 1843..... | 829,730   |
| 1838..... | 1,466,361 | 1844..... | 307,655   |
| 1839..... | 897,682   | 1845..... | 30,245    |
| 1840..... | 1,408,399 |           |           |

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

BUFFALO ROBES FURNISHED BY THE WESTERN FUR TRADE.

In the report made during the last session of Congress, by Capt. J. C. Fremont, of the exploring expedition to Oregon and North California, during the years 1843 and 1844, we have some very interesting facts relating to the amount of buffalo robes which is collected by the Western Fur Trade, and which constitutes an important branch of that enterprise. We are informed by Mr. Sanford, a partner in the American Fur Company, who has been for many years familiar with the region inhabited by the buffalo, that the annual amount of robes traded by the company, is nearly as follows:

|                                     |               |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|
| American Fur Company,.....          | 70,000 robes. |
| Hudson's Bay Company,.....          | 10,000 "      |
| All other companies, probably,..... | 10,000 "      |
| Making a total of,.....             | 90,000 "      |

as an annual average return for the last eight or ten years. In the northwest, the Hudson's Bay Company purchase from the Indians but a very small number—their sole market being Canada, to which the cost of transportation nearly equals the produce of the furs, and it is only within a very recent period that they have received buffalo robes in trade; and out of the great number of buffaloes annually killed, throughout the extensive region inhabited by the Camanches and other kindred tribes, no robes, whatever, are furnished for trade. During only four months of the year, (from November to March,) the skins are good for dressing, those obtained during the remaining eight months being valueless to traders, and the hides of bulls are never taken off or dressed as robes at any season. Probably not more than one-third of the skins are taken from the animals killed, even when they are in good season, the labor of preparing and dressing the robes being very great, and it is seldom that a lodge trades more than twenty skins in a year. It is during the summer months, and in the early part of autumn, that the greatest number of buffaloes is killed, and yet at this time, a skin is never taken for the purpose of trade.

A COMMERCIAL ABSURDITY.

The current quotations, as seven, eight, or nine per cent premium for exchange on England, which we see in the newspapers, do not mean a premium on the par value of the pound sterling, but on a fictitious valuation of the pound which prevailed in this country a century ago, when the States were colonies. For example, the pound sterling, or gold sovereign, is to-day worth \$4 85 in Wall-street, which is about the par value as established by Congress. A thousand of them would be worth \$4,850. The current rate of exchange on England, in Wall-street, is now about nine per cent premium, as the phrase is, for bills payable in London or Liverpool. But this premium is not on \$4 85, the par value of the pound, nor yet on the pound sterling, but it is on \$4 44, the old colonial value of the pound. For example, A. B. buys a bill of exchange for £1,000 on England, from C. D., at nine per cent premium; he pays \$4,844 44 for it. Suppose he gave a thousand sovereigns for it, at current value, there would be a balance in his favor; so that, in reality, the rate of exchange on England, instead of being nine per cent against us, is in our favor, because bills can be obtained cheaper than gold. Of course, then, there is no object in sending gold to England. Hence the absurdity of this ideal mode of dealing in exchanges on England, which is still kept up by our merchants and newspapers.



## LOVE OF MONEY IN AMERICA.

The following passage on this subject occurs in the letter of the Hon. Thomas G. Cary, a merchant of Boston, to a lady in France, who wrote to a lady here, to inquire "what ground there could possibly be for the dreadful accusations which she hears against us everywhere abroad," in consequence of the supposed failure of a national bank, the supposed delinquency of the national government, the debts of the several states, and repudiation. Mr. Cary explains these matters very satisfactorily, and in answer to the superficial statements in the books of English travellers in the United States, he thus summarily disposes of the sneer cast upon the Americans for their reputed love of money:—

"When it is said, as it is often is, with scorn, that our conversation, in this country, relates too much to money matters, that we *talk* about dollars, &c., it is but fair to remember that, notwithstanding all that some of our own writers have thought proper to concede, money is regarded here as the *means* of progress, rather than the end in view. It is power in any part of the world; and where difference of rank is abolished, and the highest places are open to the competition of every one, it is *great* power, since it enables a man to raise those who depend on him to the enjoyments and advantages of which he may have felt the want. Probably there is no part of the world where the character of the miser is more uncommon than here; and I have often thought, in noticing the ways of foreigners who come here, that, if we *talk* more about dollars than they do, they *think* more of them than we do, by far."

## A CREDITOR'S LIBERALITY TO A FRAUDULENT DEBTOR.

The following instance of the unexampled liberality of an English merchant, towards an absconding fraudulent debtor, which originally appeared in the Boston Post, is well worth recording in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, illustrating, as it does, in some degree, the divine principle of "overcoming evil with good":—

"In March, 1846, Andrew V. Leeman, mahogany dealer, London, finding himself embarrassed in his affairs, proceeded to collect all the debts that were due to him, without paying off any. In a short time, he raised full \$50,000, or over £10,000 sterling. With this sum in his pocket, he took passage for Boston, in the *Britannia*, in May. His creditors, as soon as his flight was known, attached his effects, and had him decreed a fraudulent bankrupt. Then Mr. W. B. Winter, one of the principal creditors, provided with a record of the judgment against Leeman, started in the *Caledonia* in pursuit, and upon arriving in Boston, traced him, through Mr. Henshaw, the broker, to whom he had offered some English money for sale. Deputy Sheriff Freeman arrested Leeman, who at once gave up the £10,000, in Bank of England notes and sovereigns; but in consequence of his former good standing and honorable course as a man of business, Mr. Winter restored to him £1,000, nearly \$5,000, and promised to give his wife £250 more, when he returned to England."

## THE POOR AND THE RICH.

That evil results, in many instances, from wealth, is sufficiently manifest; but it is not certain, on this account, that virtue is only safe in the midst of penury, or even in moderate circumstances. Nor, because the wealthy are often miserable, is it certain that happiness dwells chiefly with the humble. It may be quite true that no elevation such as riches bring about, insures perfect purity and amiableness of character, and that content is found nowhere; and yet there may be a more steady connection between virtue and easy circumstances, also between content and easy circumstances, than between the same things and poverty. The poor escape many temptations and many cares which beset the rich; but, alas! have they not others of a fiercer kind, proper to their own grade? Let the statistician make answer. It is only, indeed, to be expected, that an increasing ease of circumstances should be upon the whole, favorable to moral progress, for it is what industry tends to; and industry is a favored ordination of heaven, if ever anything on earth could be pronounced to be such.

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## OUR CORRESPONDENCE.

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THE inquiries by letter, and otherwise, made to the editor of this Magazine, for information on matters connected with commercial affairs, are so numerous, and generally require so much research, that we find it absolutely out of the question to attempt answering them all; and frequently, for want of any but conjectural data, many of them cannot be satisfactorily answered. Besides, these inquiries are generally made by individuals, who, were they subscribers, and attentive readers of our journal, would themselves be able to find an answer to almost every question proposed. Now, as our vocation is to furnish information for the whole commercial public, rather than privately for the benefit of the individual, we have hit upon a plan, which we trust will be acceptable to all concerned. It is this—to devote a few pages each month, under the head of "Our Correspondence," in which we shall generally publish the inquiries of correspondents in their own language, answering the same as succinctly and correctly as our judgment and sources of information will permit.

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### TAXATION OF NEW YORK—EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO THE UNITED STATES —CANADIAN IMPORTS, ETC.

The Washington correspondent of the London Morning Chronicle desires an answer to the following questions:

1. *Ques.* What is the average taxation, local and general, on real estate in the state of New York?

*Ans.* The assessed value of all the real estate, according to the official returns made to the Comptroller's office, in 1845, was \$486,490,121; do. of personal estate, \$115,988,895. The corrected aggregate valuations of real and personal estate amounted, in 1845, to \$605,646,095. On this the amount of state and county taxes was \$3,221,256 15 cents; the town taxes amounted to \$949,271 80 cents; exhibiting a total taxation, in 1845, of \$4,170,527 95 cents. The average rate of state, county, and town taxes, (in the fifty-nine counties of the state,) on \$1 valuation, in mills, is 6.88 88-100.

2. *Ques.* What has been the amount of imports from Great Britain to the United States, for 1844, 1845, and 1846?

*Ans.* The value of the imports into the United States from Great Britain, in 1844, as officially stated, was \$41,476,081; in 1845, \$44,687,859. The fiscal year ends on the 30th of June; but the returns are not accessible until laid before Congress, which generally happens six or seven months after the expiration of the fiscal year. Consequently, we are unable to state the official value for 1846. The unofficial estimate, however, may be put down at \$43,500,000.

3. *Ques.* What amount of Canadian imports have passed through the State of New York to Canada, under the duties drawback bill?

*Ans.* An answer to this question will be found in the Merchants' Magazine for March, 1846, (Vol. XIV., No. III., p. 292.)

4. *Ques.* Of what advantage has the drawback bill been to Canada?

*Ans.* Without going into the details, for which we have not room, we may say the spirit of this query is the same as if applied to any means of internal communication. The tariff laws of the United States imposed onerous restrictions upon goods imported from England for Canadian consumption. The partial removal of those restrictions by allowance of drawback on the goods sent into Canada, opens to Canada new avenues of

commerce. The St. Lawrence, as an avenue of trade, is naturally no more advantageous to Canada than to northern New York. The colonial policy of England, and the want of liberal views on the part of the United States, have conspired to make that river important to Canada, while the Western States have depended upon the great canals of New York for avenues to the ocean. The removal of governmental restrictions and barriers to trade, places those great works at the service of Canada, and gives to Upper Canada advantages superior to Michigan. The peninsula of Upper Canada, dropping down below New York and Michigan, is in a better position to profit by the great works of New York than Michigan. The removal of customs restrictions confers great and self-evident advantages upon Canada, that she is not in a position adequately to reciprocate, other than by the increase in prosperity which those advantages will stimulate. To whatever extent Canada grows under a system of free trade, must benefit the Union.

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MONTREAL FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION—CANADIAN ECONOMIST.

Accompanying the following letter, we received a file of the "*Canadian Economist, Free Trade Journal, and Weekly Commercial News*," published under the auspices of the "MONTREAL FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION." It is a handsomely-printed paper, resembling, in its typographical appearance, the London Economist, and is conducted with equal ability. The great object of the writers in the "*Economist*," as set forth in the prospectus, is, "to show that the principles of Free Trade are not necessarily injurious to colonial interests, but that they may be made the means of placing Canadian trade on a firmer basis than it has yet occupied, or than it could ever occupy, under the present protective system. Starting from this point, they will deem it their duty to agitate, by every legitimate means in their power, the repeal of all duties, other than those intended for revenue purposes, firmly believing that the interests of the colony, as the interests of all other countries, require that commerce should be left to follow its natural channels; that any attempt of the legislature to interfere with it, by means of protective or regulating duties, cannot be supported on sound principles of political economy."

Impressed with the importance of cultivating a friendly intercourse with our brethren in Her Britannic Majesty's dominions, we very cheerfully comply with the request of the Association to exchange publications; and we regret that it is not in our power to answer their inquiries respecting the class of vessels employed in the cotton trade at Mobile. We trust, however, that some person in that city possessing the information, will enable us to communicate it to the Association, through the pages of our Journal.

MONTREAL, 11th July, 1846. }
Free Trade Association Office. }

TO THE EDITOR OF HUNT'S MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW:—

SIR:—By order of the Council of the Free Trade Association, I send you the numbers of the "*Economist*" up to the present time. As the publisher of a Commercial Magazine, you may probably find matter in them that may be useful to you in your literary labors; at all events, you will be able to learn from them what are the views of a portion of the mercantile community here, on the future trade of the country. The succeeding numbers will be forwarded to you as they appear; and if it will be consistent with your arrangements to forward us your Magazine in return, we shall be very happy to receive it, and make use of it in the columns of the "*Economist*." Amongst the subjects intended to be mooted by the Association, is the necessity of building a different class of sea-going vessels, for the trade of the St. Lawrence. And for this purpose, we wish to obtain some information respecting a similar class of vessels employed in the cotton trade at Mobile. Can you favor us with such information? that is, the width, length, depth, &c., of those vessels, cost of construction, and generally as to their capabilities, and the advantage they have proved to the trade. If you have such information, and would let the Association have it, they would feel it as an obligation, and would feel themselves bound to return the favor, should an opportunity offer.

In the meantime, I have the honor to remain, sir, your obedient servant,

W. H. FLEET.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Memoirs, Official and Personal; with Sketches of Travels among the Northern and Southern Indians; embracing a War Excursion, and Descriptions of Scenes along the Western Borders.* By THOMAS L. MCKENNEY, late Chief of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, author of "The History of the Indian Tribes of North America," etc., etc. Two volumes in one. 8vo., pp. 476. New York: Paine & Burgess.

Mr. McKenney has described, in the title-page quoted, with remarkable precision, the contents of his work; but we should be very unwilling to admit what he *very modestly* says in his preface, viz: "Should any one, on opening this volume with the intention of reading it, expect to find *anything* in it captivating, or even agreeable, he will find himself mistaken." Those who read the preface, and, after this disclaimer, persist in reading the work itself, will, we feel quite sure, come to the conclusion, that the author intended to disappoint them, very agreeably, too; for it is, on the whole, an extremely interesting and instructive volume. The imputations cast upon Mr. McKenney, while at the head of Indian affairs, rendered it necessary for him to make some explanations of a personal nature; and these, we think, will prove highly satisfactory to his friends, and disarm his enemies, (if at this time he has any,) and must convince all as to the purity of his motives, and the general rectitude of his conduct. Viewed as a reflex of Indian character, habits and manners, a description of "scenes of nature, vast, wild, boundless," and of incidents and events witnessed in the author's journeyings, it will be found exceedingly attractive. The red man of the forest is portrayed as a living, moving being; and the thorough knowledge displayed, throughout, of the aborigines, and the deep sympathy evinced for them, in these memoirs, will secure for the author the admiration and respect of every true appreciator of the race. The first volume is appropriately dedicated to Mrs. James Madison, whose fame is so delicately and beautifully mingled with that of her illustrious husband, (the fast friend of the author,) as to become identified with it. The second volume is dedicated to Mrs. E. Saunders, of Salem, Mass., a lady whom Mr. McKenney describes as having, "with her pen, most eloquently pleaded the cause of the poor Indians; and by her purse, sustained the efforts of others made in their behalf." This second volume consists of lectures delivered in various parts of the United States, the object of which was, "to excite in the public mind an interest in behalf of the Indian race, and their destiny; to give impetus to public opinion, in regard to what ought to be done for their welfare," etc. The work is illustrated with numerous faithfully-executed engravings, and is printed on a fine white paper, with a bold, handsome-faced type, by our worthy friend, George W. Wood; and altogether reflects great credit on the enterprising publishers.

2.—*A Practical Treatise on Ventilation.* By MORRELL WYMAN. Boston: James Munroe & Co. London: Chapman, Brothers.

This is a practical treatise on ventilation, embracing much scientific and useful information upon a subject that is applicable to our own country. The design of the author, as expressed upon its pages, is to present to the public those principles of ventilation which have been, for the most part, successfully applied in Europe, and also to offer such suggestions and arrangements as seem best fitted to answer that purpose in our own climate. Entering into a philosophical and analytical investigation of the real qualities of the atmosphere, he proceeds to the consideration of the mode of preventing and removing impurities of the air, and the proper manner of ventilating the various edifices which require it. The work is one of great practical value.

3.—*The Life of Sumner Lincoln Fairfield, Esq.* In 1 volume. By JANE FAIRFIELD. New York.

Mrs. Fairfield, the author of this memoir of her husband, is a widow, with an interesting family depending upon her unaided efforts for their education, and even the common necessities of life—a fact that should induce every one who aims at the apostolic standard of Christianity—that teaches us "to visit the fatherless and widows in their affliction"—to purchase her book, regardless of its value or interest, for the beneficent purpose of smoothing her pathway in life. Poor Fairfield was a man of genius and sorrow—his faults, (and who is without them?) were, we have no doubt, the result of circumstances, temperament, etc. The volume exhibits, in a comprehensive form, the leading events of his life, and analyzes the features of his mind and character with candor and delicacy. Reader, purchase it!

4.—*Letters on the Most Important Subjects, during a Correspondence of Twenty Years.* By the late Rev. WILLIAM ROMAINE, A. M., author of the "Life, Walk, and Triumph of Faith." Published from the Original Manuscripts. By THOMAS WILLS, A. B., Minister of Silver-Street Chapel, etc. New York: Robert Carter.

Mr. Romaine was distinguished for his piety and learning. His manner and style is described by the editor as almost peculiar to himself; and it consisted, he adds, "in making Christ the all in all, in the glory of his person, the efficacy of his blood and righteousness, and the fulness of his salvation." The estimate in which such works are held, depends very much upon the theological creed of the reader.

5.—*The Bible, the Koran, and the Talmud; or, Biblical Legends of the Mussulmans. Compiled from Arabic Sources, and compared with Jewish Traditions.* By Dr. G. WEIL, Librarian of the University of Heidelberg, Fellow of the Asiatic Society of Paris, etc., etc. Translated from the German, with Occasional Notes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These legends, it appears from the preface to the volume, have been extracted from original Arabic records, which are still regarded by the Mohammedans as the inspired works of the ancient patriarchs and prophets. The precepts which they either state or imply are contained in the Koran; and they, of course, are deemed of Divine authority. They present an epitome of Mohammedan theology, and they tend to show, in some degree, the spirit of the faith of that religion. The exhibition of such erroneous systems of belief will doubtless tend, by their contrast, to shed a brighter lustre upon Christianity, as the development of the Absolute religion.

6.—*On the Connection of the Physical Sciences.* By MARY SOMERVILLE. From the seventh London edition. New York: Harper & Brothers' New Miscellany, No. 14.

The design of this work, as expressed in the title, of showing the connection of the Physical Sciences, is accomplished, so far as we are capable of judging, from a somewhat hasty examination, in a satisfactory manner. What is permanent in the scientific discoveries of the past, the author has retained; and the modern lights, deduced from daily unfolding facts, are blended together, and thus form a harmonious and beautiful structure. It altogether forms one of the most interesting volumes of a most admirable series of useful and entertaining works; placed, from their extreme low price, within the reach of the "million."

7.—*A School Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities. Abridged from the Larger Dictionary.* By WILLIAM SMITH, LL. D., Editor of the Dictionaries of "Greek and Roman Antiquities," and "Biography and Mythology." With Corrections and Improvements. By CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in Columbia College, New York, and Rector of the Grammar School. 12mo., pp. 373. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Dr. Anthon has, in the preparation of this work, supplied a want long felt by most persons engaged in classical education. The results of the labors of modern scholars, in the various subjects included under the general term of Greek and Roman Antiquities, are here exhibited, in a form admirably adapted to the use of young pupils. The work, we are persuaded, will be found useful to those who have not studied the Greek or Roman writers. The corrections, additions, and illustrations embraced in the editorial labors of Dr. Anthon, will, no doubt, materially enhance the value of the work.

8.—*Shores of the Mediterranean, with Sketches of Travel.* By FRANCIS SCHROEDER, Secretary to the Commodore commanding the United States Squadron in that Sea, 1843-45. With engravings. In two volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The opportunity enjoyed by the author, under the auspices of a naval squadron of the United States, to observe one of the most interesting and singular portions of the world, was extraordinary; and he has improved it, in giving us a graphic description of his travels. Gibraltar and Mahon, Athens, Smyrna and Constantinople, Jerusalem, Egypt, and Venice, were within the range of his route. He saw all that was prominent in the scenery, in the aspect of cities, and in individuals, worthy of being described; and has placed his journal before the public in a very familiar and agreeable form. The track of travel which he describes has been often passed through, and we have numerous sketches of its appearance from former journalists; but each individual will ever come in contact with new objects, and become acquainted with new circumstances, which will naturally color his description with a different aspect. Besides the literary character of the work, it is very neatly illustrated with engravings of the Pyramids, a scene upon the Nile, the Volcano of Stromboli, the Temple of Victory upon the Acropolis, and the Holy Sepulchre of Jerusalem, and others which increase its value.

9.—*French Domestic Cookery, combining Elegance with Economy; describing new Culinary Implementations and Processes; the Management of the Table; Instructions for Carving; French, German, Polish, Spanish, and Italian Cookery; in Twelve Hundred Receipts. Besides a Variety of New Modes of Keeping and Storing Provisions; Domestic Hints, &c.; Management of Wines, &c. With many engravings.* 18mo., pp. 340. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The copious title-page quoted above, describes succinctly the character or contents of the work, which is an adapted translation of one of the most popular treatises on French cookery, published in Paris. It is stated in the preface, by the English editor, that it has reached its thirtieth edition, and that upwards of eighty thousand copies have been sold. For excellence, economy, and variety, French cookery is generally conceded to surpass that of any other nation, and is consequently gradually becoming the cookery of Europe, and the French cook is generally employed in our first American hotels.

10.—*Miss Beecher's Domestic Receipt Book; designed as a Supplement to her Treatise on Domestic Economy.* 12mo., pp. 293.

We have in this volume an original collection of receipts, including only such as have been tested by superior housekeepers, and warranted to be the best. The defects complained of in regard to American and English works, that the receipts are too rich, expensive, and unhealthy; that they are so vaguely expressed as to be very imperfect guides; that the processes are so elaborate as to make double the work that is needful; and, in others, that the topics are so limited that some departments are entirely omitted, are features which Miss Beecher seems to have avoided with scrupulous care.

11.—*Elements of Military Art and Science; or, A Course of Instruction in Strategy, Fortification, Tactics of Battles, &c.: embracing the Duties of Staff, Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, and Engineers. Adapted to the Use of Volunteers and Militia.* By H. WAGER HALLECK, A. M., Lieutenant of Engineers, U. S. Army. 12mo., pp. 408. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In the introduction to this treatise, the author attempts to confute the peace principles of the Gospel, as illustrated by the example of the Quakers or Friends, and ably supported by Dr. Wayland, a distinguished scholar and divine of the Baptist denomination, but not to our satisfaction; and we are free to confess that we regard, in this nineteenth century, war as not only immoral, but as one of the greatest of crimes—murder on a large scale. But Mr. Halleck understands military art and science, for which we have no taste or inclination, better than moral ethics; and his treatise on the former appears to embrace the whole subject of military tactics and strategy; and is, we have no doubt, well calculated to impart a thorough knowledge of the elements of carrying on a war scientifically and successfully. The volume is illustrated with appropriate drawings, and in its typography will compare with the very handsome editions of the standard religious literature, published by this enterprising house.

12.—*A Practical Treatise on Organic Diseases of the Uterus; being the Prize Essay, to which the Medical Society of London awarded the Fothergillian Gold Medal, for 1843.* By JOHN W. C. LEVER, M. D., Member of the Royal College of Physicians, London, &c., &c.—“Non quod sed quomodo.” 8vo., pp. 240. Newburgh, N. Y.: David L. Proudfit. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Dr. Lever, devoting himself, with unwearied industry, to that particular branch of the medical profession treated in this essay, enjoyed rare advantages for acquiring great proficiency in the practice of midwifery. The appointment which he filled at Guy's Hospital, as assistant accoucheur, for a series of years, afforded him an opportunity of seeing no inconsiderable number of cases of uterine disease; one or two hundred out-patients, laboring under functional and organic diseases of the womb, falling week by week under his immediate inspection. The fact that this treatise received the prize of one of the most distinguished medical societies of Europe, will of itself be sufficient recommendation of the work, and secure for it from medical men more respect than any criticism emanating from an unprofessional source.

13.—*Results of Hydropathy; or, Constipation not a Disease of the Bowels: Indigestion not a Disease of the Stomach; with an Exposition of the True Nature and Cause of these Ailments, explaining the Reason why they are so certainly Cured by the Hydropathic Treatment, &c.* By EDWARD JOHNSON, M. D. 12mo., p. 181. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Dr. Johnson, in this treatise, gives us the results of his experience in the hydropathic treatment, as practised by himself at Stanstead Bury House, in London. Drugs, he admits, do occasional good—but he considers the amount of harm which they do greater than the amount of good. He therefore adopts what he conceives to be the common-sense course; i. e., preserve all that is good of the drug treatment, and unite it to all that is good of the water treatment; using both—abusing neither. We commend the volume to all who are suffering from the ailments, constipation and indigestion.

14.—*Mosses from an Old Mansa.* By NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE. In two parts. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

The present work exhibits the traits which distinguish the author's literary character, and among them we would designate a freshness and simplicity, as well as a classical purity of style, and a power of description, which are unusual, even in writers of his own class. His observation of nature appears to be exceedingly acute, and his imagination is of that poetic cast which enables him to throw around every subject which he touches the peculiar light of his genius. His allusions are apt and elegant; and his pictures, although they are but fancy sketches, are imbued with a pure morality, and a philosophical spirit. We have in this volume a number of tales, without much order or method, somewhat rambling in their character, yet exhibiting most prominently the current of his thoughts, and those especial traits which constitute his originality, and contribute to his high literary reputation in that particular class of topics selected for the exercise of his literary powers.

15.—*Lyra Innocentium: Thoughts in Verse on Christian Children, their Ways and their Privileges.* 18mo., pp. 360. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Keble's Christian Jew is familiar not only to the members of the Protestant Episcopal Church of England and America, but many of its beautiful and appropriate poems grace the pages of dissenting church psalmody. The sacred songs of this volume are adapted to the genius and circumstances of the young, and harmonize well with the internal sense of “the Church,” as set forth in its ritual.

16.—*Margaret; a Tale of the Real and Ideal, Blight and Bloom: including Sketches of a Place not before described, called Mons. Christi.* 12mo., pp. 460. Boston: Jordan & Wiley.

This is one of the most remarkable productions of our time. The story, drawn with an accurate pencil, is made the vehicle of diffusing the intentions of a mind possessed of deep spiritual insight in religion, philosophy, morals, and a profound knowledge of society, education, &c. The *Mons. Christi* of the author represents the human heart, and “Christ himself as our higher or instinctive nature;” by listening to which, we “learn, love, and obey all that our blessed Redeemer teaches.” Margaret, the heroine, represents in “Childhood,” “Youth,” and “Womanhood,” the most perfect Christian character, and as knowing by heart all the essentials of Christian faith and morals.

- 17.—*The Red-Skins; or, Indian and Injin. Being the conclusion of the Little-Page Manuscripts.* By the author of "The Pathfinder," "Deerslayer," "Two Admirals," etc., etc. In two volumes. New York: Burgess & Stringer.

Mr. Cooper, the author of these volumes, it is well known, has won for himself the position of the first novelist that our own country has produced. In his descriptions of ocean life, he is, in our judgment, unequalled; and his fictions bear the same kind of relation to North America as those of Sir Walter Scott to the mountains of his native land. Although his works have been already numerous, we perceive that he still toils on, and has recently embarked in other labors than those to which he early devoted his pen; his history of the navy of the United States having added to his fame as a novelist the more solid reputation of that of a historian. The present work will be found to present the genuine characteristics of his style, and will doubtless be widely circulated.

- 18.—*Fowler's Practical Phrenology: giving a Concise Elementary View of Phrenology, presenting some New and Important Remarks upon the Temperaments, and describing the Primary Mental Powers in Seven Different Degrees of Development; their Combined Action, and the Location of the Organs. Amply illustrated with cuts. Also, the Phrenological Developments.* By O. S. FOWLER, A. B. Thirty-Fifth edition, enlarged and improved. New York: Fowler & Wells.

The present volume contains the exhibition of the phrenological system of the author, who has long been a persevering, ingenious, and successful phrenological lecturer. Having devoted a considerable portion of his life to the subject, it may be supposed that he has arrived to a deep conviction of its truth as a science. Whatever may be its merits, an attention to the subject of character, or the traits which form it, systematically analyzed and classified, may induce self-knowledge, a most valuable species of information, as well as self-improvement, which may be made one of its ordinary consequences. The author has had great experience in the examination of individual subjects, and has done probably as much as any other teacher, since the death of Spurzheim, to extend a knowledge of the system through the country.

- 19.—*Education and Self-Improvement.* In three volumes. Volume III.—*Memory and Intellectual Culture.* By O. S. FOWLER. New York: Fowler & Wells' Phrenological Cabinet.

Here is another volume of Mr. Fowler, designed to exhibit the application of his system of phrenology to the purposes of education. From the classification of the different faculties of the mind, and the passions of the soul, he endeavors to point out how these qualities may be disciplined by education. It abounds in many philosophical and practical remarks, connected with the improvement of the several qualities of the character, and it is amply illustrated by numerous wood-cuts of different heads, which are inserted in order to exhibit the phrenological developments as indicating traits of character. Whether one is disposed to concur, or not, in all its conclusions, it will doubtless be read with interest and advantage.

- 20.—*Lectures to Young Men, on their Moral Dangers and Duties.* By ABIEL ABBOTT LIVERMORE. 12mo., pp. 160. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The present volume embraces four lectures, delivered during the past winter, on Sabbath evenings, before the young men of Keene, N. H., without distinction of sect or party. If many of the truths are old and familiar, they have the merit of being exhibited in a clear, concise, and impressive manner, and are conveyed in a diction at once chaste and beautiful; so that, while they describe without austerity the duties and dangers to which young men are everywhere exposed, the style in which they are written may serve as a model, or at least an aid in literary composition, to those they are designed to benefit.

- 21.—*Life of Nathaniel Greene, Major-General in the Army of the Revolution.* By his Grandson, GEORGE W. GREENE, late American Consul at Rome. Boston: C. C. Little and James Brown.

This work is a satisfactory biographical sketch of a prominent actor in the war of the American Revolution. Being compiled by his grandson, who doubtless had access to original documents and family papers, we may suppose that it is entirely accurate. Its subject was a patriotic officer, who performed signal services for his country. A native of New England, he was appointed to the command of the Southern army; and, when that army was dissolved, he returned to the North. The volume itself constitutes the tenth number of the Library of American Biography; a work which, by its substantial and well-wrought sketches, constitutes a valuable contribution to our literature.

- 22.—*Catalogue of Books, Paper, Stationery, Stereotype Plates, Binders' Leather, &c., to be sold, without reserve, on Tuesday, August 11, 1846, by Cooley, Keese & Hill, at their Auction, Sales Room, 191 Broadway.* New York: Printed by Leavitt, Trow & Co.

This is the first annual catalogue of the new firm. It forms a handsomely printed pamphlet of one hundred and sixty pages, embracing a most valuable collection of books, including about one hundred and fifty different invoices from the leading publishers, booksellers, stationers, and manufacturers in all parts of the United States. The sale commences at nine o'clock, A. M., with the stationery, stereotype plates, binders' tools, &c., and is to continue daily at the same hour, until all the catalogue is disposed of. As the sale of Messrs. Bangs, Richards & Platt, comes off in the following week, the trade will enjoy a rare opportunity of replenishing their stock on reasonable terms. Mr. Cooley is well-known as a pioneer in this branch of the trade, out of which he has already accumulated a handsome fortune. The great increase of the book trade since the commencement of these sales, will secure for the two establishments sufficient encouragement for an honorable competition.