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Art. I.—THE COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL POLICY OF FRANCE :

OR, THE INFLUENCE WHICH THE REDUCTION OF THE DUTIES IN ENGLAND, ON RAW MATERIALS, AND PARTICULARLY ON COTTON AND WOOL, WILL HAVE ON FRANCE.*

I. INTRODUCTION—SIR ROBERT PEEL'S NEW MEASURES—THEIR PROBABLE EFFECT ON THE INDUSTRY OF ENGLAND.

Governments act on the commercial and industrial development of a nation no less than upon its public and private customs. They are the head of the social body. In them originate all great plans of usefulness to the community. To direct that community into the path of improvement, is their great mission and duty.

Of all the modes of action which governments possess, there is none more energetic than tariffs. In proportion as they elevate or depress this powerful lever, they may create, sustain, and develop, or leave inactive, arrest in its course, or even destroy national enterprise, the source of public prosperity. It was with the aid of tariffs that Colbert laid the foundation of the manufacturing industry of France; by them Napoleon secured to her the whole of Europe for a market; and by them recent legislation has restricted this market to our own frontiers.

While, with a view to favor the industry of France, we have thought it necessary to enclose it within narrow limits, a neighboring nation, with

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the same end in view, adopts a course widely different. Two hundred years ago, her public men projected a plan, as gigantic as any ever conceived by the human mind—that of securing to a little island, in the North of Europe, destitute of natural advantages, the exclusive privilege of supplying the rest of the world with manufactured articles of the first necessity, for the wants of life. Since then, without relaxation, every possible effort has been made to attain this result. In vain have opposing parties succeeded each other in power. The same spirit has animated them all. Diplomacy, violence, wars, alliances, treaties of peace, all have tended to this single end—the improvement of the productions of the country; until what had seemed at first but a dream, is at length realized.

In England and France, the governments have started from two points directly opposed. In England, the principle is laid down, that “we must secure to the laborer his raw material at the least possible price, in order that he may afford, at the lowest possible price, the article which he produces;”—in France, that “the laborer shall pay well for the raw material which he uses, but the home market shall be reserved for his products exclusively.”

Which is the most reasonable of these two systems of economy, it is not our purpose now to discuss. There is no doubt that the respective conditions of the two countries are very different, and it will be easily admitted that each of these two principles has been appropriate to the epochs and the circumstances in which they have been applied. What cannot be denied is, that the system adopted by Great Britain has elevated that country to the high industrial position which constitutes the foundation of her present wealth and power.

This system she has lately extended, almost to its extreme limits. Her policy herein is consistent; namely, to persevere in the course which has been, thus far, successful.

Since 1844, English tariffs have ceased to affect the importation of wool. In 1845, cotton, and five hundred articles, considered as raw materials, were admitted into England free of duty. The protective system was next attacked, and the duties reduced on all the manufactured articles which are of direct importance to the wants of the great majority of the people.

By these measures, the British government removed the only obstacle which prevented the producer from attaining the end he has constantly in view, to wit: that of producing at the lowest possible price. At the point at which the industry of the country had arrived, this appeared the only way of progress which remained open to it; and, notwithstanding the interests which stood in the way, so soon as it appeared useful to that great interest, which rules all others in England, it was without hesitation adopted.

By the free importation of cotton, flax, and wool, the basis of the principal manufactures; of iron, and other metals, which render these elements available; and of coloring matters, and all the other materials necessary to transform the simple elements into manufactured articles, the English manufacturer possessed all the advantages which it seemed possible to secure to him. But the solicitude of the government did not cease here. The restrictive system, for the protection of the agriculture of the country, was still in force, burdening the operative with an expensive subsistence, and maintaining wages at a high price. The whole system is abandoned.

It falls before the interest of production, which demands labor at a lower price as the last element of prosperity still wanting to it.

For, it must be carefully remembered, the direct consequence of the economical reform, proposed in Parliament by the distinguished statesman who held the rudder of government, was the reduction of the rate of wages. It is of no use to object, that this idea is not once advanced in the exposition of his plan. It is in vain to assert, that he appealed to the generosity of the great landholders, from whom he asked the sacrifice of their privileges, alleging that "their tenants and farmers could thus obtain, in greater abundance, the necessities of life." This, Sir Robert Peel well knew, was not to be the *ultimate result* of the suppression of the protective duties which he proposed. To obtain for the laboring classes a more abundant and cheaper means of subsistence, what is this but to open the door for a reduction of wages? The conditions of subsistence regulate wages, always and everywhere. Like merchandise, competition regulates the difference between its cost and its market price.

We say, then, that when the English minister declared in Parliament, that his plans had for their object the improvement of the condition of the laboring classes of the kingdom, he likewise proposed to himself an object, very desirable and very able, that of giving the recommendation of humanity to plans dictated in reality by interests less generous, indeed, but still national, the improvement of the condition of production in England. In this measure, as in all the political measures of that country, we shall find more of patriotism than of philanthropy.

II. THE PROMINENT CAUSE OF THE REDUCTION OF THE DUTIES IN ENGLAND.

What is the necessity which has occasioned, in England, a change thus hostile to powerful interests? Why have we seen that country pass, successively, from the restrictive principles of her maritime code, from those celebrated navigation acts, under the protection of which her industry has prospered, first, to a reduction of duties on the raw materials, and then, to a wide and almost complete application of the doctrine of commercial freedom? Was it to do homage to the economical principles of Adam Smith, and add commercial toleration to the existing political and religious toleration, of which she also gave the first examples to the world? No: for England is not the country of theories or abstractions.

Was it because the English aristocracy wished to anticipate the pretensions of a democracy, which was aroused, and sought, by despoiling itself, to disarm it? No: for no symptoms had been manifested, which need alarm it seriously.

Was it, finally, the famine, with which the country was menaced, which called for the adoption of these new measures? No: for it was by no means certain that they would be efficacious to remedy that evil.

We must seek some other origin for these new doctrines of economy which have sprung up in England. It is not probable that the men who originated them acted spontaneously, but that, being the guardians of the public prosperity, which is inseparably connected with that of industry, they were compelled to bend their restrictive sympathies before the exigency of new events. It was the opposition and the increasing greatness of a rival industrial production, which forced her to renounce a system which was possible in England only so long (and no longer) as she had no rival to contend with.

While, on the continent, industry, struggling under the burdens imposed upon it, strove feebly, although with courage, against unfavorable circumstances, a remote nation, descending late into the arena of industry, advances there with a firm and rapid step—a nation, placed in an admirable physical position; possessed of a great extent of maritime coast, with a soil which gives, at the lowest prices, coal, iron, and cotton, the three great elements of manufactures; possessing, in the highest degree, those qualities, necessary to success in industry, as well as in commerce—love of labor, enterprise, and hardihood; practising, upon a grand scale, the fruitful principle of association; and aided, finally, by those powerful institutions of credit, which furnish the means of execution to the grand conceptions of commercial genius. Who does not recognize, in this portrait, the United States of America?

During the short period since its birth, American industry has made a progress, the rapidity of which will not surprise us when we consider the conditions of vitality grouped about it. We may say that it had no infancy. It passed, without any interval, to the strength of a vigorous maturity; and at this moment it has the honor of alarming England, spite of her two hundred years of industrial domination.

Already, in the markets of South America, of Asia, in all those, in fine, which offer her a competition on equal terms, the productions of the United States dispute the ground with those of Great Britain. Only one step more is needed, to establish an equality between these two rivals. This step is, the diminution of the wages of labor in the United States.

Up to this moment, the high price of labor has acted as a counterpoise to the other favorable conditions which the United States eminently possess. But, is the moment far distant, when the agricultural employments being no longer sufficient to employ the surplus labor, a superabundant population will seek occupation in manufactures, and consequently reduce the price of labor? Whoever compares the population of the United States, in 1815, with the population in 1846, will not consider that time very remote.

There can be no doubt, that the rivalry of this country, possessing, as it does, on its own soil, not only the raw materials of industry, but likewise the greater part of its agents, and admitting, freely, the small number of those which she lacks—uniting, in fine, all the elements of labor, excepting one, only, at the lowest price, has, for some time, excited the secret apprehensions of the government of Great Britain, which is always awake to her commercial interests. There can be no doubt, that these fears were the real motive which induced that government to abandon, piece by piece, the restrictive system which guaranteed the revenues to the great proprietors, in order that it might place the country on the same footing as its rival across the ocean. The foresight of this constantly increasing danger suggested to an able minister, and obtained from an enlightened aristocracy, those new measures, of which the manifest purpose was, to procure for British industry the elements of production at a cheaper rate than before.

Thus has England endeavored to increase the distance between herself and the rival who threatens to overtake her.

III. THE INFLUENCE ON FRANCE, OF THESE NEW MEASURES OF ENGLAND.

Is France entirely uninterested in this severe struggle which is going

on between those two powerful industrial rivals, England and the United States ?

If the phrase, which we sometimes hear among us, is true, that the home market is sufficient for the production of the country, then France need not concern herself with the measures which England is adopting to reduce her cost of production.

But what will be the actual consequence ? Protected, by her prohibitory and protective duties, from all danger of foreign competition, is she not certain of seeing the whole of her products thrown upon the home market, at prices proportioned to the expensiveness of production which her tariffs have occasioned ? Is she not like a lake, situated among mountains, of which the level is neither regulated by rivers nor surrounding seas ?

But if it is rare, in the natural world, that a lake should have no communication with rivers or oceans, it is no less rare, in the social world, for the industry of a people to be entirely isolated from that of surrounding nations.

It is given to a government to create an industrial movement, but it is not given to it to say, "so far shalt thou go, and no farther." To limit it, is not its province. It has been asked, what imports it, to the French producer, whether he pays a high price or a low one for the elements of his labor, provided he receives a proportional reward ? In reasoning thus, one thing is overlooked, namely, the surplus production.

When once the impetus had been given to industry, in France, it naturally grew and increased. Establishments were at first erected, with a view to supplying the wants of the country. But who could mark the limits of these wants ? Encouraged by the perspective of a privileged market, the production went on increasing, until it became out of all proportion to the wants of the home consumption. There was but one remedy for this evil, and that was exportation.

Spite of the principles of that sect of political economists, which endeavored to limit our industry to the supply of the home market, exportation became, at first, a remedy for excessive production, and afterwards, an element of French industry.

Under the rule of those legislations, which for some time encouraged exports, our manufactures received a development which very far exceeded the wants of the country. Henceforth, exportation became necessary for them. The home market is no longer sufficient for them. Outlets for the enormous surplus of its production have become an imperious necessity. For this surplus of products, exportation offers a healthful mode of relief. Let this be checked, and the industrial body will suffer a plethora which must be productive of the most serious disorders.

It would certainly be unwise for us (since we are thus outstripped, by England and the United States, in supplying those parts of the world which do not manufacture for themselves, and since the condition of these two manufacturing nations is firmly established) to attempt to dispute their position with them, or to create products solely with a view to foreign consumption. Yet it would be as unwise to deny ourselves the advantage of throwing into foreign markets the surplus of our production, when it exists, (and it exists too often,) or to deprive ourselves of the faculty of employing, for foreign consumption, those means of production, which are not needed for the home consumption, and which the want of a foreign

market has for some time left unapplied, to the great detriment of all industrial operations.

Though it would be imprudent to make the foreign trade the basis of the national industry, still it must be clearly understood, that the exportation of our manufactured products to foreign countries, by increasing the production, has become, in France, a constituent element of public wealth.

The governments which have swayed us during the past thirty years, have, from necessity, professed the doctrine, declared from the tribune and elsewhere, that it would be dangerous to encourage, in France, any tendency to the creation of products, designed expressly for exportation. Yet it would seem that, in our day, even this doctrine has received, among our public men, important modifications; at least, we may conclude so, from the increased activity of our foreign agents in sending home instructions useful to our industry, as well as from the embassies which have been sent to distant countries to negotiate commercial treaties.

But it is not enough to suggest a remedy. It must also be made available. To leave French production in such a condition that exportation is impossible, at the same time that it is needed and demanded, this would be to point out the end, and at the same time prevent its attainment. Yet this is precisely the condition, at this moment, of our manufacturing industry, and it has been occasioned by the tariffs on the elements of our industry. The cost of manufacturing has increased, and consequently the outlets for our products are daily closing; for it is a singular contradiction, that, while the official returns of the customs exhibit an increase of our exports, taken in the mass, (owing to the old estimates of their values being used as a basis, though this estimate is now very exaggerated on account of the fall which most articles, manufactured in France, have experienced,) yet it is notorious that the exports to foreign countries, of the prominent articles of our production, have, during the last ten years, been gradually diminishing. Our fine broadcloths, formerly in demand throughout the world, and our coarser woollens of the South, at one time so much sought after in the Levant, have now scarcely any outlet. Our exports of silk goods have fallen off, since 1840, from 160,000,000 to 110,000,000 francs. Germany, and North and South America, have ceased to take the large quantities of our calicoes which formerly flowed thither to the great relief of the home trade. Spain seeks elsewhere, mainly, for the large supplies of cotton fabrics which she formerly purchased at Bayonne and Beaucaire. India and China took, formerly, a much greater amount of our products than they receive at present. The once important exportation of the cloths of Picardy and Brittany, has, in fact, ceased altogether. The increase (when any has taken place) has been, in the supplies for our colonies, which, enriched by the monopoly which we have granted them, in our market, compensate, by their consumption of our fabrics, for the premium which we pay on their natural productions.

The fact, that a great number of our former outlets for goods have failed, during the past few years, is unfortunately too plain. Nor is it difficult to point out the cause of this evil.

Established in all parts of the globe, wherever money is current, English commerce has endeavored to wrest from us, as well as other nations, all the commercial advantages which we enjoy in foreign markets. In this industrial warfare, it must be confessed, she has been completely suc-

cessful. Indeed, such have been her tactics, that she could hardly fail of success.

From necessity, no less than from preference, French manufacturers have given their attention to the production of fabrics of a substantial quality. This course has been dictated by the expensiveness of the raw materials, and by the severity of the tariffs, which, shutting out from our ports fabrics of an inferior quality, have completely prevented their use. Hence, those of our fabrics which were exported, were distinguished for their good taste and excellent quality. To imitate these, by disguising an inferior quality under a specious exterior, has been the means by which British enterprise has reaped great benefits, and a distaste for our fabrics been created wherever they have been offered. Foreigners have not been willing to pay the difference in price, between our products and the English, which, though actually inferior, present nearly the same appearance, with a very great advantage in respect to cost.

Thus have English merchants, scattered through all the markets of the world, vigilant and active pioneers of the industry of their country, succeeded, at first, in becoming our rivals, and finally, in replacing our fabrics altogether with those of British manufacture, which have the capital advantage, over ours, of a cheaper production, owing to a more favorable system of duties.

The effect of this cessation of exports to foreign markets—exports, which assisted, most remarkably, the industry of our country—has not been slow in making itself felt. Our manufacturers, not being themselves the exporters of their goods, and not knowing, often, whether they were to be exported, or to what market, were surprised to find their sales rapidly diminishing, and their goods encumbering their warehouses. The evil has been gradually increasing, and at this moment is almost general. Just in proportion as the cost of the raw materials has diminished in England, have we seen English fabrics take the place of our own in foreign markets. The evil threatens to become still greater, now that the measures of Sir Robert Peel have received the sanction of Parliament.

What shall be done to drain off the surplus over and above the wants of our home market? This surplus cannot be regarded as an evil, for it represents a good part of the active industry of France; or, at least, if regarded as an evil, it cannot be restricted without serious danger. Shall this surplus be sent to our colonies? It is true, that, considering their small extent, their consumption is considerable, and maintains some activity for our foreign trade; but what is the future prospect of this outlet for our goods? Can we much longer compel these colonies to supply themselves with French fabrics? Is it not admitted that a new organization of labor must soon be yielded them? Will not the effect of such a change, on the few colonies which our political disasters have left us, be, to render the agricultural production more costly and uncertain? Such has been the experience of the colonies of other nations. Will their prosperity stand the test of such a trial, any better than Jamaica and the Isle of France have? Or will it be said that, in order to preserve these few important markets, we should raise still higher the differential duties which assure to our colonies our market for their coffee and sugar? But the danger to their productions is not, alone, from similar foreign products. The indigenous industry of beet sugar, is a competitor not less alarming to them. And, in truth, has not the whole system of heavy duties had

its day in France? Will the tendency of things permit them to be revived?

It must be confessed that, whichever way we turn our eyes, there appears, in the actual condition of our production, evil, at present, and threatening evil in the future.

IV. THE NECESSITY OF REDUCING THE DUTIES ON THE RAW MATERIALS IMPORTED INTO FRANCE.

In view of the facts which we have stated, will it be said, "our national industry has nothing to fear from the measures adopted in England, to reduce the cost of production; and that our prohibitive duties, by preventing all foreign competition, sufficiently guarantee the safety of our industry?"

There can be no doubt that the continuance of the prohibitive duties, in France, is not only necessary, but also perfectly just, so long as the conditions of labor here are not the same as in other rival nations; for, so long as one, or many of these rivals, possess advantages over us, acquired by conditions of labor more favorable than among ourselves—so long as they are capable of controlling larger capitals, at a lower rate of interest—in fine, so long as they have the elements of production, derived from their soil, or the elements of commerce, derived from their geographical position, on better conditions than ourselves, they cannot offer us reciprocity, the only equitable basis of a system of exchanges. In this state of things, the exclusion of foreign products similar to our own, is not conferring a monopoly, but rendering strict justice to our manufacturers. Let the prohibition, therefore, remain. It prevents, in our home market, the fate which has befallen our products in foreign markets, that of being imitated and discredited, by fabrics of a poorer quality, but of specious appearance, and which are rapidly substituted for ours, owing to the tendency of the majority of people to prefer a poor article, at a low price, to more substantial goods, at an advanced price—a tendency injurious to their best interests. Against this abuse, prohibition is the only sufficient barrier. A protective duty is not sufficient to prevent it, for this is not a struggle of price, merely, but of bad quality with good—a struggle, which the French manufacturers are not prepared nor disposed to sustain.

Let the prohibitive system, therefore, be retained upon the articles which it protects, since imperious circumstances demand it; and, if it is found that, the principle once admitted, it is unjust to make exceptions, let the protection continue to extend to the home productions of iron and coal, the two principal agents of all industry, and which it is most important to have at the lowest price, but for which, circumstances so grave make a favoring exception on our own soil.

Let England proceed from the theory, to the practice of the system of commercial liberty, which she alone is in a condition to carry out. It is, indeed, a brilliant spectacle which she is giving to the world, thus proving that she is sufficiently strong to defy all her rivals. We cannot but admire and envy the position, which the foresight and sagacity of her statesmen have secured to her, and which permits her to apply the most healthful principles of political economy to the regulation of her interests.

But let us beware of imitating her—we, who are very remote from the industrial position which she has won, and who cannot aspire to reach it. That which offers no danger to British industry, would be a death-blow to

our own. Let her able minister still cherish the hope of inducing other nations to follow the example which England has given; let him promise himself that a reciprocity will be established in foreign markets, which would be, in fact, a monopoly established in favor of England; neither these hopes, nor these promises, should engage or seduce us. Our interests ought to be our only rule, in the matter of tariffs, and those interests are traced for us by our peculiar situation. The system which will answer for an industry arrived at maturity, will not answer for an industry yet in its infancy.

Moreover, there is one fact, which ought to be borne in mind here. Even in England, the system of entire commercial freedom has not been adopted. In those branches of industry where there is anything to fear from foreign competition, it is still considered necessary to maintain the ægis of protective duties. The same prudence is extended to the colonies of Great Britain. The fabrics of wool, of silk, and the higher qualities of linen goods, are still subject to a duty of 10 to 15 per cent on their value; the duty on imported woods, remains unchanged; a differential duty continues to protect the sugar of the British colonies; while wines and brandies, those rivals of the English brewed liquors, are burdened—the former, by a heavy duty, and the latter, by an exorbitant one, of three to four times their original values.

England, therefore, does not admit the practice of entire liberty, except when there is no danger of injuring her interests. This is a good example to follow. We see that the doctrines, professed in that country, are not so different from our own as they at first appeared. Her only advantage over us, consists in the greater number of branches of industry there, which admit of the application of those doctrines.

It ought not to be forgotten, that the route which has conducted England to the haven of commercial freedom which she now enjoys, has been, first, the adoption of the prohibitive, and afterwards, of the protective system, and that we are pursuing the same route.

But if the whole of the system of duties which has recently been established in England, is, unfortunately, not adapted to our actual condition, that part, which concerns the raw materials of industry, is not only applicable, but necessary.

Let us maintain a legitimate barrier against the irruption into our market of foreign goods, created under conditions of labor and industrial tendencies, very different from our own; but let us strive to establish an equality, between our productions and the foreign, both with a view to prevent fraudulent importations, and to render possible a competition abroad.

To obtain this object, one way is open to us—a way, which has been followed by other manufacturing nations—and that is, the admittance, free of duty, of the raw materials of our industry.

Is there any serious objection to this course? The interest of the agriculturalists is not opposed to it, for our soil does not produce the cotton, gums, and oil, used by the manufacturers; it gives us only a small part of the tinctorial matters, the linens, the silks, and the woollens, which we require.

Nor is the interest of the revenue opposed to it; for, when we consult the history of the public revenue, in England, we find that the products which have been reduced have always supplied, by their increase in quan-

tity, the difference in the rate of duties. The regularity of this rule is sufficiently established, by the revenue from the importation of salt, which maintains itself at the same amount, although the duty has been reduced from 75 to 10 francs per quintal, as well as by the postage reform, which has augmented the resources of the revenue, although the postage has been reduced more than three-fourths of its former rate.

If there remain any further apprehensions as to the results of a reduction of duties on raw materials, they ought to disappear before these words, pronounced by Sir Robert Peel, in Parliament: "I had estimated," said the minister, "the losses, from the suppression of duties on sugars and other articles, at £1,000,000 sterling; but I think the loss on the excise, this year, will be nothing. Is it, because I see all my estimates of a deficiency of revenue brought to nought, that I ought to advocate high duties?"

The exports of articles of British manufacture increasing, by reason of the reduction of duties on raw materials, from £42,000,000 to £56,000,000 sterling, is a fact sufficient, not only to remove all fear of the introduction of this system among ourselves, but to induce the hope, that its adoption will open a brilliant future for our industrial activity.

In fact, the suppression of duties on raw materials, having for its immediate effect, the reduction of the cost of production, must, by a necessary consequence, augment the home consumption. In this increase, is found the answer to the question, "What will supply the deficiency in the revenue, on the total suppression of certain duties?"

Sir Robert Peel (we cannot recur too often to an authority so important) has given us the fullest security on this point. "The consequence of the reduction of duties on imports," says he, "may be, a diminution in the revenue; but this loss, I believe, will be more than compensated by the effect produced in the country." And again: "The *real* sources of the increase of the revenue, are the increase of the objects of demand, and the spread among the people of a taste for those articles which are not of the first necessity. Your revenue is augmented, though you reduce the duties, by an invisible and involuntary tax, springing from the increased consumption of those articles which are subject to duty."

These are better than eloquent words. They are words, expressing a truth of high importance, sanctioned by experience. It is the history of facts, coming forward to give testimony to the foresight of the greatest administrative genius of the age. Let the advantages which industry, in England, previously enjoyed, be accorded to ours, and the same cause would produce the same effect. From the free importation of the raw materials, such a development would be given to the industrial movement in France, that not only the public revenue would have no diminution to fear, but its resources would be infallibly augmented by reason of the increased activity to all the branches of the public prosperity.

To confine ourselves to one example. Consider the advantages to the country, in work afforded to the laboring classes; in transports by land and by sea; in the construction of new establishments; in fine, in the augmentation of the revenue, from such an increased consumption of cotton fabrics, alone, as should make the average consumption seventeen francs for each inhabitant, as it is in England, instead of six francs, as it remains at present!

Articles of the first quality, for which civilization has a tendency to

create a greater and greater need, extended to a larger proportion of the people; employment secured to the working classes; prosperity restored to the languishing workshops; new guaranties afforded of internal tranquillity and prosperity; such will be the certain results of the suppression of the duties on raw materials; and all these blessings can be secured, without any danger to the public revenue. Can we err, in following the path traced for us by the statesmen of Great Britain, so sagacious in all questions of practical interest—men, who have elevated their country to the condition of industrial, commercial, political, and maritime power, which she now holds?

V. THE DANGERS, WHICH THE CONTINUANCE OF THE EXISTING DUTIES IN FRANCE ON THE RAW MATERIALS, THREATENS TO HER INDUSTRY AND HER MARINE.

What will be the results, if, instead of suppressing, at the same time with England, the duties upon raw materials, our government continues the existing tariffs?

In such a state of things, the elements of production with us remaining at the same prices, while the foreign have acquired more advantageous prices, the basis of the estimates of the duties levied on imported merchandise, with a view to protect the manufactures of the country, is found completely changed, and these duties become insufficient for the purpose for which they were levied. If, for example, (and this estimate need not be regarded as exaggerated,) the new measures of England obtain for her industry an economy of 10 per cent on the expense of production, the protection duty of 30 per cent, which burdens the importation of English linen threads into France, is, in fact, reduced to 20 per cent, and they will create in our markets a competition with our manufactures, which we should have to lessen by an increase of the present rates of duty. It is the same with the iron for machinery, and other articles of English manufacture, of which our tariffs allow the importation.

But this is not all. The prices of our different manufactures, being yet greater than those of our industrial competitors, we shall finally lose altogether the few outlets for our goods which we have been able to preserve.

Is this result of no consequence to the industry of the country?

The manufacturers who produce from the raw material of cotton—that fabric so universally adopted, now-a-days, for domestic use, and which has become the most fruitful source of labor in nearly all nations, and the basis of their exchanges—are precisely those who suffer most directly, in France, from the effects of the system of duties now in force, and who have the deepest interest in their reform. No industry sustains higher duties than this, upon all the elements of its production—duties, purely fiscal, since these elements do not enter into competition with any of the productions of our own soil; none employs a greater number of people; none, in fine, consumes more largely the products of home industry.

What advantages does it possess, to compensate it for so many services rendered to the country, and so many burdens which it supports? “The privilege of the home market?” This market is insufficient for two-thirds of its production, and, under the apprehension of an immense surplus at home, it must seek to contend, in foreign markets, with rival productions placed in conditions much more advantageous.

It is true that the position of our cotton industry is not altogether, as regards the necessity of exterior outlets, analogous to that of the same in-

dustry in England; but if importation is the life of the latter, we may safely say, that is the health of the former. If it is true that the sudden cessation of exports to foreign countries, would bring upon the cotton industry of Great Britain a mortal crisis, it is no less true that the same cause will plunge our own into a dangerous lethargy; and from a prolonged lethargy, to death, the distance is short, and the transition almost infallible.

Whether we consider the low price of the elements of labor, to have for its effect to open for our products a more active sale in the home market, or to enable them to maintain, in foreign markets, a more equal competition with the productions of English and American manufactures, this low price is the only remedy to be sought, in the precarious state in which our establishments are languishing.

During the existence, and the prospect of a continuance, of a favorable competition with other nations, large establishments have been built up, vast capitals set in motion, and entire villages gathered about these works, which have now become their only resource. Is it not an act alike of justice and of public utility, to maintain these conditions of competition with other nations, since they constitute the basis on which rests so many interests of the highest moment?

It is because, in England, the industrial and commercial interests predominate over all others, and because a wise experience has proved that these interests are the only solid basis of a State, that she possesses, with a dense population, a very advanced state of civilization. To secure labor for the people—to increase the outlets for the products of this labor—such are the questions which appear, in England, to claim a superiority over all others. We may say, that they constitute the basis and essence of all her politics. What spectacle could more fully exhibit this tendency than that of the Prime Minister of England, whose hand sways the whole politics of the world, rising in his place to discuss the minutest details of the food and clothing of the working classes, and replying to the smiles that pervaded a portion of the Chamber, at the strangeness of such a contrast, “that all these matters were in reality worthy of his attention!”

It is because matters so humble connect themselves with the highest interests of Great Britain, that they become important. It is because when the laborer is able to procure, at a low price, the bread, meat, and beer, as well as the hats and shoes, which Sir Robert Peel has not disdained to quote, that he will be content with low wages; that the manufactures of England will be able to maintain their superiority over those of other nations; and that, finally, she may thus keep within her grasp her supremacy on the ocean, and her political preponderance.

When, in France, shall we appreciate truths, which, like the following, have become proverbs among our neighbors? “The people, which has industry, will have commerce; and with commerce, it will have a merchant marine, sailors, a military marine, and colonies.” We might add, that the nation which possesses all these, possesses wealth and power.

When these ideas obtain a foothold among us, it will no longer be said, that “it is for industry and commerce to take care of themselves; that a government has nothing to do with their interests, and that the wisest part is, to let them alone.” On the contrary, it will be proclaimed, that the solicitude of the government ought to extend to the whole of the industrial interests; that it is its duty to secure production from the injurious effects

which the measures taken by other nations are likely to have upon it. It will then be acknowledged, that the interests of industry merit the deepest and most serious attention, since with its prosperity, is connected that of all other branches of the public wealth, and since its ruin would inevitably draw after it that of commerce, the marine, and consequently of the power of the State.

Of the marine, also, it was formerly said, that "it was not one of the principal interests of the country, and that France should not aspire to the dignity of a maritime power." The enormity of such a proposition has been refuted by good sense; and it is an axiom of policy sufficiently admitted now-a-days, that in order to be ranked among the first nations on the globe, we must be strong on the ocean.

Now, it is clear, that the only way to have a navy, powerful in the number and experience of its seamen, is to sustain an active and flourishing merchant marine. This, alone, can serve as a preparatory school, and nursery for the military marine. Industry feeds the merchant marine, by consuming the raw materials which it brings from foreign nations, and by furnishing it with objects of exchange wherewith to purchase them advantageously.

It is not sufficiently considered to what an extent the languishing state of our manufactures has already re-acted upon our merchant marine. Let the ship-owners of Bordeaux and Havre, be consulted—let the statistics of all our ports be examined, and they will show a progressive diminution of the share which our flag takes in the commerce of the world. In 1845, it had fallen off to one-fourth of what it was in 1830. Yet our merchant marine is likewise protected by differential duties, which seemed sufficient to secure its interests. But of what use is this protection, if the basis of the operations of exchange becomes more favorable for the commerce of rival nations, than for that of our own? As these exchanges alone constitute advantageous operations, the trade of foreigners becomes stronger than the protection of differential duties which ours enjoys. If the foreign trade of France is confined to the purchase abroad, of products paid for by our specie, instead of our manufactures, it is so much abstracted from the active operations of the country. Such operations are so costly, that our ship-owners will abandon them altogether, preferring to leave the task of supplying us to foreign vessels. Then there will be no longer a merchant service for us, and the coasting will take the place of the foreign trade.

These are the results, to which we are hastening at a rapid pace, and these will be yet further aggravated, if, from a new difference in cost, arising between our manufactured articles and our foreign, our present few and insignificant outlets fail altogether. Yet we must expect this, and at no distant date, if we remain inactive when other nations are arousing themselves, and if, ignorant of the effects of the measures they are adopting, we yield to a blind indifference.

VI. CONCLUSION. NECESSITY OF PROTECTIVE MEASURES.

The measures already adopted by the British government, and those which she is about to adopt, to complete the suppression of duties on the raw materials of industry, are creating for the English manufacturer more and more favorable conditions of labor, and threaten to give the final blow to our export trade.

The effects will be particularly felt by our cotton industry. Exporta-

tion—the only way of relieving the home market of the surplus which far exceeds its wants; of rendering profitable unproductive capitals; of giving constant activity to large establishments; of furnishing labor to operatives, whom the production of articles adapted to home consumption is not sufficient to employ; the only means, in fine, of sustaining our merchant marine—exportation demands the most efficient measures, if we would not see our workshops fall in ruins, our population starving, spite of the efforts of the manufacturers, and our ships rotting in our harbors.

The best remedy for these sad results of the disadvantageous position occasioned by our tariffs, is the complete suppression of the duties on all raw materials, non-manufactured. This measure, by diminishing materially the cost of production, and consequently, the price of the articles produced, will place them within reach of a far greater number of consumers at home, and greatly augment the activity of trade; the first advantage.

It will, at the same time, permit our superabundant products to flow into foreign markets, where they will cover, at least, the expense of their production; another advantage, not less important, rendered to industry and navigation.

Should financial considerations (which experience does not seem to justify) prevail, to prevent the adoption of this certain method of securing to our manufactures and shipping a prosperity which they are losing, a palliative less energetic, but still salutary, remains.

Our manufacturers are taxed high for their iron and coal, articles which foreign commerce would furnish at a cheaper rate. This is done for the purpose of favoring our home production of iron and coal, and they also pay considerable duties on their raw materials. It is said, "the prices in the home market indemnifies them for these advances." Be it so. But for that part of their production, which they must export under pain of a surplus and its consequences, it is just that they receive from the community, which these advances have profited, an indemnity, which the price in foreign markets does not afford them.

In regard to the manufacture of cotton, especially, is it desirable to preserve it from the danger with which it is threatened by the new measures of England, as well as by the increasing production of the United States? Is it really regarded as a matter of public interest, to secure its existence, (for that is the question,) by securing a sale for its products abroad? Then, if it is not possible, at present, to furnish it with its raw materials, free from all duty, at least, let the burdens which it is compelled to bear, above the same manufacture, in England—what it pays for its iron, its coal, and the duties of all kinds—be taken into account, and let there be established a "*premium of restitution*," on an equitable basis, on the export of its products.

Let it not be said, that it is unjust to make the mass of the nation, and agriculture, particularly, contribute to such a premium granted to industry; for, in fact, it is not a premium which industry asks, but this simple "*institution*" of an advance, made to the community and agriculture, also. Has it not afforded the working classes the means of consuming the agricultural products which have also received their share of protection? Has it not, by paying into the treasury the amount of the duties levied upon the elements which it employs, as well as its portion of contributions of all kinds, lightened, of a certain sum, every contributor? What does it

reclaim, but the reimbursement of an outlay made by itself? How can it be unjust, that each should contribute to restore what has profited all?

In conclusion, which shall be applied to the disordered state of industry in France—the palliative, or the remedy? There must be a choice, for the condition of things will no longer admit of neglect.

A subject so grave, ought to arouse the whole attention of our statesmen. The importance which, in England, attaches to commercial and industrial questions, ought to reveal to them the great importance of these questions among ourselves. Should they, at length, become persuaded, that the interests of production are of the first importance to a people, and are so closely allied to the general prosperity, that they may be said to be one with it, they cannot close their eyes to the disastrous consequences which the able economical system practised in Great Britain, will infallibly entail upon our manufactures, if a sage foresight does not prevent. They will awake to the duty, which the measures of England impose on them, of diminishing the cost of labor, as well as of securing it, to the laborer. They also should save and prosper the industry of their country; for industry is labor, in common with capital, hands, and ideas; and labor, in its turn, is the only solid basis of society, since from it spring all order and wealth.

Art. II.—COMMERCE AND GOVERNMENT OF THE HAWAIIAN KINGDOM,

OR SANDWICH ISLANDS, SINCE THE ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF THEIR INDEPENDENCE BY THE UNITED STATES, ENGLAND, AND FRANCE.*

In the July and August numbers, 1843, of the Merchants' Magazine, I gave a brief account of the trade and politics of this archipelago, up to the date of its seizure by Lord George Paulet in February of that year. In July following, Rear Admiral Thomas, by order of the British government, restored the islands to their legitimate sovereign. Since that period, unmolested by foreign powers, they have rapidly advanced, under the auspices of the King's own government and the enterprise of foreigners, in wealth and power, though, perhaps, not in population, so far as the aborigines are concerned.

No accurate census of the population of the group has as yet been taken, though the succeeding year will probably show one. In round numbers, the population is set down at 100,000, of which not over 1,500 are of foreign origin. To within a few years, a fearful depopulation has undoubtedly been going on, from causes which are now generally well understood. With the increase of civilization, these have become in some degree modified. On some of the smaller islands, the native population has begun to increase; and among some individuals, well-informed as to the general condition of the people, hopes are entertained that the forthcoming census will show an increase of births over deaths throughout the nation. This, however, is very doubtful, when the enfeebled constitutions and vicious propensities of the race are considered.

The foreign population is rapidly on the increase, both from births and

* Written for the Merchants' Magazine, by James Jackson Jarvis, Esq., Editor of the *Polynesian*, Honolulu, Oahu, December, 1846.

immigrations. The average foreign population of Honolulu is near 1,000, including thirty-eight American families, eight of which are of the American mission, and twelve English and others. On the remainder of the group there are thirty-six families, including twenty-seven attached to the American mission. These families number about 350 souls, with few exceptions all Americans. The number of white ladies, not born on the group, is ninety, besides some who reside here transiently, mostly wives of masters of vessels employed in whaling. The remaining foreign population is principally composed of young men, adventurers from all nations, seeking an opening here for their various callings. They constitute the most valuable industrial portion of the community, for among them are to be found very many well disposed and skilful tradesmen and artisans. The progress of the country is greatly retarded by the selfish policy of the principal landlords among the chiefs, who hold by feudal tenure most of the arable land. They are indisposed to allow not only their own people to hold lands by tenure of purchase, but prevent foreigners from embarking, to any extent, in agricultural enterprises. This system of exclusiveness is, however, receiving its death-blow through the efforts of the white officers of government, backed by the more liberal views of the King, so that, in a few years, the agricultural interest will be greatly advanced.

Up to the present time, (December, 1846,) 350 foreigners have become naturalized. The chiefs, at first, allowed naturalization by merely subscribing the oath of allegiance; but this simple provision permitting the too facile incorporation in the nation of doubtful characters, more desirous of a temporary connection with native females than of any permanent allegiance to the government, the chiefs passed a law, requiring two years' previous notice of intention and certificates of good character.

The government of the Hawaiian Islands is a constitutional monarchy. The present King is a son of Kamehameha I., celebrated as the conqueror of the entire group, and favorably known to traders from the United States, for twenty years previous to his death, in 1819. He was succeeded by his eldest son, the dissipated Liholiho, who died in England, in 1824. The government then remained under the regency of Kaahumanu, dowager Queen of Kamehameha I., until her death, in 1832, when the present King, although but a youth, succeeding to the rank and title of his father, as Kamehameha III., began to take an active part in political affairs. It is only, however, since the recognition of the independence of his kingdom, by the United States, France, and England, that he has assumed the prerogatives of a sovereign prince in his national intercourse with other powers. Since then, he has been gradually winning his way to that degree of independence, which, by the law of nations, is as much his due as if he had perfect power to maintain it, but which, at first, through the embarrassing restrictions of England and France upon his courts and customs, was rather nominal than real. Those countries still require, by imposed treaties, that no higher duty than 5 per cent *ad valorem* shall be levied at the custom-houses upon the goods of their subjects, and that their consuls, in cases of crimes committed by their countrymen, shall nominate the juries. This has proved a fruitful source of discord from its unequal operation; for the effect has been, when a Hawaiian was the suffering party, to require him or her to appear before a jury of foreigners, selected by the consul, who also acts as counsel for the foreign criminal. In March of this year, the treaties were so far modified, as to

allow a Hawaiian one-half of his own countrymen on a jury, and to permit the government to levy any amount of duties on wines and spirituous liquors, provided they did not amount to a prohibition.

A treaty has still more recently been concluded with Denmark, which recognizes in full the right of the King to administer justice in his own courts, independent of the vexatious interference of foreign consuls, and to lay such imposts as the necessities of his exchequer may require. The United States are ready to negotiate a treaty upon the same equal terms; and it is believed that England and France will shortly consent to forego their embarrassing requisitions, and leave the King as free to act in these respects as other sovereigns.

The acts, organizing the executive government of the Hawaiian Islands, went into operation this year, (1846.) They create five departments, as follows:—

1. The "Interior," at the head of which is John Young, chief minister of the kingdom. His father was an Englishman, married to the daughter of a native chief of high rank.
2. "Foreign Relations," filled by R. C. Wyllie, a Scotchman by birth.
3. "Finance," filled by G. P. Judd, an American by birth.
4. "Public Instruction," filled by Wm. Richards, an American by birth.
5. "Law," filled by John Ricord, an American by birth.

These officers have salaries of \$2,000 each, and are removable at pleasure by the King. They constitute his cabinet council.

The governors of the several islands are all native chiefs, and with the cabinet form the privy council. Their salaries and incomes vary from \$3,000 to \$5,000, derivable in part from their lands and from the Treasury. The King draws \$6,000 annually from the Treasury, for his household expenses, but his real income from all sources is probably more than double that sum. The Queen has a distinct allowance.

The following are the principal naturalized officers employed by government:—

Americans by Birth.—Lorin Andrews, Wm. H. Lee, Judges in Foreign Cases, (Appellate Judges;) James J. Jarvis, Director of Government Press; Wm. Paty, Collector-General and Auditor of Treasury; D. P. Penhallow, Harbor-Master and Pilot; John Meek, Pilot; A. P. Everett, J. R. Von Pfister, Auctioneers; B. Pitman, Collector at Hilo; J. R. Jasper, District Attorney for Oahu.

Englishmen by Birth.—H. Lea, Marshal; A. Brickwood, Sheriff of Oahu, and Prefect of Police; C. G. Hopkins, Justice of Peace; T. C. B. Rooke, Port Physician; H. Swinton, Collector at Lahaina; G. Rhodes, Collector at Haudei; G. Robertson, Chief Clerk in Interior Department; G. Singleton, Chief Clerk in Foreign Office.

A number of other foreigners are employed in the several departments as clerks, &c.; but few natives have been found competent to keep books and do the common duties of these situations. The real labor of government falls almost exclusively upon the foreign employées, and without fidelity and zeal on their part, it could not continue to exist. Numbers of the young chiefs and better classes of natives are being educated in English, and trained to business habits, with the hope that, before long, the nation will have need of less recourse to foreign aid. The salaries of these employées range from \$400 to \$2,000 per annum, which, considering the great expense attendant upon living in this country, are not equal to more

than half those sums in the United States or Europe. Great economy is maintained through all branches of the government. It would be of public advantage, were the King to authorize a loan sufficient to improve the roads, erect warehouses for bonded merchandise, and construct an aqueduct from the valley of Nemanu to the town of Honolulu, all of which would form profitable outlays; but the policy of the present Minister of Finance is not to contract any foreign debt, preferring to delay public improvements than to incur a monetary responsibility outside the kingdom.

The revenue is derived from the customs, poll taxes, licenses, stamp duties, and a small land and labor tax from the farmers, which last, however, are very unproductive under the present system. Real and personal property are subject to taxation whenever there is a deficiency through other sources.

Revenue.		Expenditure.	
1844.....	\$64,075 50	1844.....	\$70,537 08
1845.....	*97,940 21	1845.....	77,820 69
1846.....	+100,000 00	1846.....	+80,000 00
PUBLIC DEBT.			
1844, due to individuals.....	\$67,815 36	1845, due to individuals.....	\$54,516 92
1844, due from individuals...	66,372 00	1845, due from individuals...	66,372 00
Balance of debt.....	\$1,453 36	Bal. in favor of Treasury..	\$11,855 08

In 1842, there was a public debt of \$60,000, of which, £10,000 were due the Hudson's Bay Company. This has been paid off in full. The annual expenses of government from this date are estimated at \$100,000, which sum can be readily raised from the present resources. About \$20,000 are annually expended on the public schools.

CUSTOM-HOUSE RETURNS.			
1843, nett amount received....	\$8,121 64	1845, nett amount received..	\$29,220 30
1844, " " " "	13,380 85	1846, " " " "	43,000 00
Imports.		Exports.	
1843.....	\$223,383 33	1845.....	\$546,941 72
1844.....	350,347 12	1846.....	575,000 00
	\$479,640 90		750,000 00

At this time, the market is greatly overstocked with American domestics and English goods, for which, at present, there is no outlet, and the consumption here slow.

The exports consist chiefly of goods re-exported—one-third of the imports, perhaps, find their way out of the kingdom—supplies to vessels, sugar, coffee, salt, goat-skins, hides, arrow-root, cattle, and bills of exchange drawn on the United States and Europe. The chief exports will eventually be sugar, molasses, salt, and coffee, the quantities of which are increasing.

The prices of all articles of agricultural produce are exceeding high, owing to the want of enterprise in the native population, and the restrictions upon the sale of lands. Sugar brings from 6 to 8 cents per lb.; molasses, 24 to 37½ cents per gallon; salt, \$1 25 per bbl.; coffee, 12½ to 15 cents per lb.; beef, 8 cents per lb.; butter, 37½ cents per lb.; eggs,

* Including \$20,000 exacted by Captain Le Place, in 1839, and restored by the French government, March, 1846.

† Estimated, as the returns are not yet completed.

‡ Including an estimate for the months of November and December.

§ Including an estimate for the months of November and December, from arrivals and departures expected.

50 cents per dozen; potatoes, from \$2 to \$4 per bbl.; mutton, 12½ cents per lb. The prices of foreign goods have rapidly declined within two years, while all, of domestic growth and manufacture, have greatly advanced; so that Honolulu has become one of the most expensive places of living, so far as the table is concerned, in the Pacific. Fruit is scarce and dear, with few exceptions.

The arrivals of whalers, for the past three years, are as follows:—

1844.—United States, 410; Bremen, 19; France, 26; England, 9; Danish, 2; Norwegian, 1. Total, 497.

1845.—United States, 479; France, 30; Bremen, 11; England, 14; Danish, 2; Hanoverian, 1; Norwegian, 1; Prussian, 1; Hamburg, 1. Total, 540.

1846.—United States, 550; France, 30; Bremen, 12; England, 6; Hanoverian, 3; Hamburg, 5; Dutch, 1; Prussian, 2. Total, 609.

The arrivals of merchantmen, for the past three years, are as follows:—

1844.—United States, 14; England, 16; France, 5; Sweden, 1; Tahitian, 1; Central America, 1; Hamburg, 1; Mexico, 1; Hawaiian, from foreign voyages, 2. Total, 42.

1845.—United States, 18; England, 11; France, 2; Sweden, 5; Hamburg, 2; Belgium, 1; Bremen, 2. Total, 41.

1846.—United States, 28; England, 10; France, 5; Bremen, 1; Hamburg, 1; Sweden, 1; Russia, 1; Mexico, 1; Hawaiian, from foreign voyages, 3; Total, 51.

The arrivals of men of war, for the past three years, are as follows:—

1844.—United States, 5; England, 8; Sardinia, 1. Total, 14.

1845.—United States, 7; England, 6; France, 1. Total, 14.

1846.—United States, 5; England, 6; France, 2; Denmark, 1. Total, 14.

Total arrivals for the year 1844, 553; 1845, 595; 1846, to November 15th, 674.

The above statistics embrace only the arrivals at the two principal ports of entry, Lahaina and Honolulu. Two other ports, Hilo and Hanalei, are open to whalers, but the arrivals at them have not been computed. They would materially swell the number for each year. Many ships touch twice or oftener, in each year, and not unfrequently proceed from one port to another. Each visit is included.

The following is an abstract of the Hawaiian laws, respecting vessels, harbors, &c., &c.:—

Vessels arriving off the ports of entry, to make the usual marine signal if they want a pilot.

The pilot will approach vessels to the windward, and present the health certificate to be signed by the captain. If the vessel is free from any contagion the captain will hoist the white flag, otherwise he will hoist the yellow flag, and obey the direction of the pilot and health officer.

Passports must be exhibited to the Governor or collector, by passengers, before landing.

Masters of vessels allowing baggage to be landed, before compliance with the laws, are subject to a fine of \$500.

Masters of vessels, on arriving at any of the ports of entry, are required to deliver all letters to the collector of customs.

The commanding officer of any merchant vessel, immediately after coming to anchor at either of the legalized ports of entry, shall make known to the collector of customs the business upon which said vessel has come to his port, furnish him with a list of passengers, and deliver him a manifest of the cargo with which she is laden, containing marks and numbers, and the names of those to whom consigned.

The collector, at his discretion, and at the expense of any vessel, may provide an officer to be present on board said vessel during her discharge, to superintend the disembarkation, and see that no other or greater amount of merchandise be landed than is set forth in the permit.

All goods landed at any of the ports of these islands are subject to a duty of 5 per cent ad valorem.

The following are the only ports of entry at these islands, viz.: for merchantmen, Honolulu, Oahu, and Lahaina, Maui; and for whalers, in addition thereto, Hilo, Hawaii, and Hanalei, Kauai.

Spirituous, or fermented liquors, landed at any of the ports of these islands, are subject to the following duties, viz.: rum, gin, brandy, whiskey, &c., \$5 per gallon; wines, (except claret,) liqueurs, cordials, &c., \$1 per gallon; claret wine, ale, porter, beer, cider, &c., &c., 50 cents per gallon.

Products of the whale fishery may be transhipped free from any charge of transit duty.

Whalers, having complied with the laws, are entitled to receive at the custom-house a "First Permit," allowing them to land goods, to an amount not exceeding \$200, duty free; but if they exceed that amount, they must take out a "Second Permit," upon which the usual (5 per cent) duties will be chargeable.

Permits to trade or barter, given to vessels engaged in the whale fishery, shall not include the sale, barter, or disposition of spirituous liquors, but all such traffic on the part of the whalers shall be held to constitute them merchantmen, and subject them, in all respects, to the like duties.

Whalers landing goods to an amount exceeding \$1,000, become subject to the same charges as merchantmen.

Vessels landing goods, upon which the duties have not been paid, are liable to seizure and confiscation.

If any person commit an offence on shore, and the offender escape on board of any vessel, it shall be the duty of the commanding officer of said vessel to surrender the suspected or culprit person to any officer of the police who demands this surrender, on production of a legal warrant.

It shall not be lawful for any person on board of a vessel at anchor in the harbor of Honolulu, to throw stones or other rubbish overboard, under a penalty of \$100.

All sailors found ashore at Lahaina, after the beating of the drum, or at Honolulu, after the ringing of the bell, are subject to apprehension and a fine of \$2.

Ship-masters must give notice to the harbor-master of the desertion of any of their sailors, within forty-eight hours, under a penalty of \$100.

Seamen are not allowed to be discharged at any of the ports of these islands, excepting those of Lahaina and Honolulu.

It shall not be lawful to discharge seamen at any of the ports of these islands, without the written consent of the Governor.

Honolulu and Lahaina are the only ports at which native seamen are allowed to be shipped, and at those places with the Governor's consent only.

Any vessel taking away a prisoner from these islands shall be subject to a fine of \$400.

To entitle any vessel to a clearance, it shall be incumbent on her commanding officer first to furnish the collector of customs with a manifest of cargo intended to be exported in said vessel.

It shall not be lawful for the commanding officer of any Hawaiian or foreign vessel, to carry out of this kingdom, as a passenger, any domiciled alien, naturalized foreigner, or native, without previous exhibition to him of a passport from His Majesty's Minister of Foreign Relations.

Retailers of spirituous liquors are not allowed to keep their houses open later than 9 o'clock in the evening, and they are to be closed from Saturday evening until Monday morning.

Rapid riding in the streets is prohibited under a penalty of \$5.

Port Charges at Honolulu.—Whalers, tonnage, 6 cents per ton; buoys, \$2. Merchantmen, tonnage, 20 cents per ton; buoys, \$2. Pilotage, \$1 per foot, in and out.

Port Charges at Lahaina Roadstead.—For anchorage, \$10; lights, \$1. If a vessel touching here, proceeds to Honolulu, the Lahaina charges are deducted.

The custom-house charges 50 cents to \$1, each, for stamped manifests, entries, permits, clearances, bonds, transit-entries, &c., as each vessel may require. The Minister of Finance has power to remit all charges, except pilotage and health fees, upon satisfactory causes shown, as from distress, or pursuit by an enemy.

The currency of the Hawaiian Kingdom is as mixed as its population. The only national coin is of copper, of the value of a cent.

Five franc pieces are received at \$1; one franc pieces, 18 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents; English shillings, 25 cents; English sovereigns, \$4 50; English rupees, (East India,) 50 cents; Spanish and American doubloons, \$16; American dimes and half-dimes, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents; Dutch guilders, 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents; Brazilian 960 reis, \$1; Brazilian 640 reis, 50 cents.

No satisfactory standard prevails. Every species of coin, even those of Japan, are received at some rate or other, if of good weight and character.

The Massachusetts scale of weights and measures prevail.

Smuggling is punished by heavy fines, confiscation, and sale of merchandise and vessel, when engaged in it. The duties are low, except on spirits, and much is trusted to the honor of merchants. But one case of smuggling has occurred—that of the Hamburg brig *Helene*, in November, 1846—five barrels of brandy being seized in the attempt. By law, the vessel was forfeited to government; but it being the first case, clemency was exercised, and the supercargo got off with a fine of \$2,500.

Diplomatic agents are allowed to import stores and articles for their own consumption, free of duty.

Captains of vessels having entered, and departing without a clearance, are liable to a fine of \$500.

The retailing of spirituous liquors is permitted only at Honolulu, and there, under a rigid license system, forbidding the sale to natives, and closing the shops at 9, P. M. The high duties have operated to diminish the consumption, and added to the quiet and respectability of the town, in which more than 10,000 seamen yearly congregate.

About 3,000 Hawaiians, between fifteen and thirty years of age, are profitably employed as seamen on board of foreign ships, or are in service in other countries.

The number of pupils enrolled in the common schools is near 20,000, most of whom learn simply to read and write—no difficult task in the Hawaiian tongue, with its sparse vocabulary, and thirteen simple vowel and liquid sounds. The knowledge of English is quite rapidly spreading among all classes.

Upwards of \$5,000, are now annually expended by the government and merchants, in forwarding their letters through Mexico. Were a good mail route established by the United States, to and from this kingdom to the United States, at least \$10,000 postage might be annually counted on from this quarter. The operations of the merchants are frequently much embarrassed, for want of a proper and safe communication with Europe and the United States.

Art. III.—ANDRAUD'S NEW SYSTEM OF RAILROAD LOCOMOTION.

[FROM A CORRESPONDENT OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE IN FRANCE.]

I RECENTLY went with Mr. Kyan, the well-known inventor of Kyanized timber, and the author of several scientific works of great merit, to examine Andraud's new system of railroad locomotion. M. Andraud was induced to make the researches which have led to his system by the inconveniences incident to the locomotives hitherto employed. No one professes a livelier admiration than he for these masses, almost intelligent, which accomplish prodigies far exceeding any human power. At the same time, no one is more strongly persuaded that the "last word" of railroad industry has not yet been pronounced. Without mentioning the explosions, the collisions, the dangers from fire, and from running off the track—in short, the numerous accidents to which the ordinary system is liable—there are three principal reasons which prevent it from being always and everywhere effective. In the first place, the locomotives, acting only by the adherence of wheels to the rails, require lines very nearly upon a level, and thus impose a necessity of extensive removals of earth, and of costly constructions of tunnels and viaducts, which threaten, sooner or later, fatal catastrophes. Thus, mountainous districts are deprived of the advantages of that rapid movement afforded by railroads. Besides, this action of the locomotives only by the adherence of wheels to the rails, requires a useless weight, which is comparatively nothing on the great lines where traffic is considerable, but which becomes burdensome on small branch lines, and is, in effect, a serious impediment to their formation in sufficient numbers. Finally, the numerous railroads which begin to cover the European continent with their iron net-work, must be supplied by pit-coal, which serves also for the steamers that plough the rivers and seas, and for those cities that are lit by gas. But this coal does not reproduce itself within the bosom of the earth, and its sources, as appears already in Belgium, (the richest country, in this respect, on the continent,) are by no means inexhaustible.

Influenced by these considerations, M. Andraud has devoted years to the search of means of replacing the uncertain, expensive, and dangerous system at present employed, by one of sure, cheap, and universal application. In his opinion, air compressed and reposit (*comprimé et emmagasiné*) suffices for all requisite purposes. He believes Providence has manifestly designed that man shall one day find all the mechanical forces necessary for his wants in the immense and inexhaustible reservoir of the air from which he draws his life, and not by greedily disembowelling the earth—impious toil, against which Nature daily protests, by some horrible catastrophe. After having demonstrated, by a long series of preparatory experiments, that the aerial fluid can be used as a moving force in all kinds of labor, he directed his attention especially to its application on railroads. In 1844, he succeeded in making a locomotive operate, by compressed air, upon an ordinary railroad. This, however, was only a partial solution of the problem. Fire and its dangers were made to disappear, but many difficulties were yet unremoved. Since that period, he has sought to perfect his process by suppressing locomotives entirely, so that he has at length been able to dispense with all useless weight, to clear ascents of

from 40 to 50 millimètres* by mètre, and to move in curves with small radii of from 80 to 100 mètres. M. Andraud is confident that his system reposes upon incontestable principles, and comprehends all the possibilities of perfection reserved for the admirable industry of railroads. By royal ordinance, dating the 10th of January, 1846, a concession of the short line from Arnières to Argenteuil has been accorded to him for his experiments.

Suppose (says the inventor, in describing his system,) a tube, running the whole length of a road, between two iron rails. This tube, composed of a solid and of a flexible part, is fastened at every yard, by strong iron pins, to the cross-pieces, or cross-ties. The stiff or solid part is a piece of cast-iron, or a plank of hard, metalized wood, placed on the ground, with its two lateral faces hollowed out, and presenting on the left and on the right two flat-bottomed grooves. These grooves are covered by two long bands of leather, or of strong stuffs prepared in solutions of caoutchouc, (India-rubber,) and attached to the plank by their edges, in such a manner that they can be alternately applied to the bottom of the grooves, and expanded. Thus arranged, the tube is composed of two twin-tubes, which, when the air is injected, expand, and when it is withdrawn, become flat.

This being understood, imagine a train of cars, without locomotives, and at the head of the first car two vertical rollers turning on parallel axes, and having the faculty of tightening strongly against each other by elastic pressure. These rollers, of highly polished bronze, are so formed as to fit exactly in the two lateral grooves of the tube. The conductor can tighten or loosen the rollers at pleasure. It is easy to see that if, behind the train, the air, proceeding from a reservoir in which it is compressed, be injected into the tube, or the two twin-tubes, the latter will expand as far as the two rollers that oppose the passage of the air; but the air continuing to dilate the flexible bands, these bands, in expanding, give to the two rollers a rotatory movement, and impel the whole train onwards, with a force proportioned to the size of the tube, or the greater or less condensation of the air. Each longitudinal fibre of the tube acts, in developing itself upon each corresponding section of the rollers, like a cord on a pulley—not a particle of the air is lost.

The peculiarity of the system, then, is in the propelling tube, composed, as we have seen, of a solid and of a flexible part; and in the two rollers, or *piston-laminoir*, (as the inventor calls them,) which act on the exterior of the tube. The most striking circumstance in the invention, is its extreme simplicity.

An objection that the tubes cannot long resist the action of the rollers, is answered by the success during the past year of numerous experiments, which show that the tubes are capable of resisting a pressure five or six times greater than that to which they are ordinarily subjected; and that the most frequent and prolonged action produces scarcely any perceptible alteration. It will, of course, be necessary to renew the tubes at the end of a certain number of years, inasmuch as everything passes away in time; but this renewal will be neither difficult nor expensive. It has also been objected that, in the long propelling tubes, a progressive loss of

* The English value of a millimetre is 0,03937 inch; of a metre, 3,2808992 feet, or 1,093633 yard.

force will be occasioned by the friction of the air. But it must be observed that the tube closed by the *piston-laminoir* is nothing more than a recipient, which gradually expands as the air is introduced; and, as the rapidity of the fluid is little more than twenty yards a second, the friction will be very slight, in the first place. Moreover, the tube will be so arranged as to act only by sections of about a thousand yards each; and thus the inconvenience in question, even if it existed, would be considerably diminished.

Besides the propelling tube (*tube-propulseur*) which is between the two rails of the road, another tube, entirely metallic, and hermetically sealed, is placed parallel to it, alongside of the road. This will be the recipient of air, or tube-reservoir, and may be either buried, like gas-pipes, or, in order to be more easily repaired, be laid along the ground. A single fixed machine, placed at some point on the line, and acting upon forcing-pumps, will compress the air into this tube, and keep it continually fed at a pressure of two or three atmospheres, which will be sufficient. This fixed machine, sufficing for the whole line, can be put in motion by any kind of force—hydraulic power, windmills, the muscular force of animals, or by steam-engines; which will, of course, be preferable wherever coal is abundant and cheap.

The two parallel tubes communicate with each other at each section of about a thousand yards, by means of pipes with double cocks, for going and for returning. Among other arrangements, M. Andraud believes that he can obtain motions of equal rapidity on different inclinations, without changing the pressure of the air, simply by making more or less deep the lateral grooves of the tube-propulseur—the grooves in which the rollers act.

Between the system of M. Andraud and that of atmospheric railways, there is a certain analogy, which might lead to their being confounded. Both systems resort to air; but this is the only characteristic which they have in common. Without entering into the details of the differences between them, or comparing their respective advantages and disadvantages, it will here suffice to say that atmospheric railroads use rarefied air, (which cannot be magazined,) and act by aspiration, or suction; while M. Andraud's wind-roads (*che mins à vent*) employ condensed air, and work by insufflation. The atmospheric roads, by-the-way, are forced to employ powerful steam-engines, stationed at very short distances—a heavy additional item to the great costliness of their construction.

In conclusion, the system which has been described claims the following advantages:—

Complete absence of danger from explosion, fire, collision, or running off the track.

Extreme ease of traction, which will permit travellers to make long journeys with comparatively little fatigue; and even, in wagons constructed for the purpose, to pursue the ordinary occupations of their dwellings.

The power of clearing declivities and winding around hills, thus securing that variety which will restore its lost poetry to travelling.

Economy of about three-fourths of the expense of actual locomotion.

Finally, the possibility of some day being freed from the slavery of coal, which is consumed without reproduction, and of finding, in the inexhaustible power of wind and of water, the means of rendering the vast service of railroads everywhere and always available.

One of the most useful applications that M. Andraud thinks can be made of his new system, is the establishment of railways in the vicinity and in the interior of cities, in such a manner that the most rapid motion can be secured, without damage to the activity and safety of habitual circulation. He proposes that, in place of a double rail extending along the ground, a beam, supported at a certain height, from distance to distance, by posts, shall reach the whole length of the line to be passed over. A single rail is to be placed upon the upper part of this beam. The wagon, composed of two compartments, is a sort of double palanquin, suspended. As the centre of gravity is below the upper rail, perfect stability is secured, and accidents are impossible. The two lateral faces of the beam-rail (*le poutre rail*) support the tube-propulseur; the tube-reservoir is buried at the foot of the posts. The height of the posts will, of course, be such as to permit free passage beneath them to foot-passengers and to carriages.

On the whole, the system of M. Andraud is not unworthy of serious attention; and I have thought that a somewhat detailed account of it would be interesting to the friends of practical science in our own country. I have been informed that the inventor has secured a patent in the United States, as well as in France and in Great Britain. w. s. c.

Paris, March 8th, 1847.

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

A LETTER FROM AN AMERICAN CONSUL ABROAD TO THE EDITOR OF THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, ETC.

SIR—The consular establishment of the United States having at different times occupied the pen of some of the contributors to your valuable Magazine, perhaps you will allow one, who writes from the antipodes, to submit his views on that important subject through your pages. He will endeavor to be as concise as possible.

That the office of consul is an important and very responsible one, no one acquainted with commercial matters will be inclined to dispute; but that it is incompatible with commercial pursuits, I deny. Nay, I assert that, with regard to ourselves, the office is best in the hands of our merchants residing abroad, for reasons which I shall presently state.

As far as the experience of some forty years has enabled me to judge of our consuls in different quarters of the world, I long ago came to the conclusion, that they would bear comparison with the same officials of other countries, as men enjoying high public consideration in their respective stations; as intelligent and well-informed functionaries, which made them in the time of need useful counsellors to their countrymen; and as persons receiving their full share of attention from the authorities by which they were accredited. It may be, that their occupation allowed them not the leisure to play the courtiers, as they might have done had they been mere salaried public servants; but in most instances this was a happy circumstance, as it kept them out of that round of *intrigue and scandal de bureaux*, which not unfrequently makes the presence of strangers not only embarrassing but dreaded. As to dignified and appropriate bearing, I would ask those who think so strangely of a man's playing the sugar or fine goods merchant, at one hour, and the consul at another,

whether our newspapers—which everybody knows are prone enough to give currency to gossip, true or false, in the shape of “letters from abroad,”—ever treat their readers with such dirty morsels of scandal about their own consuls as have been served up to the public by some of these “salaried” and “highly educated gentlemen,” who “render such special service to their country and to science?” It is useless to go half a century back, when our own times furnish us with notable examples, which the records of Texas present, in the squabbles of the French consul with the owner of some straying pigs; in Macao, between the consul-general and another French official; or in Manilla, between the British consul and British merchants and ship-masters. And how many more examples might be easily cited, which would all tend to raise our merchant consuls in the estimation of foreigners.

It has been said, that the French specially obtain through their consuls a mass of valuable commercial information. If such is the fact, it seems strange that the French government is constantly fitting out expensive commercial delegations into foreign countries to report on their capabilities for a French trade. There are not wanting French consuls in the further East, yet the French minister to China had half a dozen commercial delegates in his train. But the fact is, that very few French, British, Spanish, Portuguese, and other “paid consuls,” are in a position to be really useful to their country or their countrymen; and mainly, because, with all the zeal and devotion which is to be found in them generally, for their country’s advancement, they do not possess the proper requirements, which are to be obtained only by men practically acquainted with commerce. Unacquainted themselves with trade, they present long lists of inquiries to their mercantile acquaintance, who fill up the blank spaces with replies; but whether these replies are any more true or luminous than those which human nature has drawn from the American consul, is left as a matter for the reader’s consideration. As to that part of a consul’s duty which not unfrequently calls upon him to be the adviser, counsellor, or defender of his countrymen—in ninety cases out of a hundred growing out of commercial differences—to say that the services of a practical merchant are not better than that of one who knows nothing of business, is so glaring an absurdity, that the wonder is how it can be made by a rational being!

I have said that the office of consul is best in the hands of our merchants. This opinion has been already partly supported; but there are other strong reasons why it should be so.

In the first place, the remuneration which is proposed, and which does not exceed \$2,500, is inadequate to uphold the dignity of the office. The consuls of France have \$3,000 to \$8,000; those of England seldom under £1,000, and in very many instances double that sum per annum. These are the two principal commercial nations, and it is with their consuls that our consuls more generally associate. To place one of our officials in a condition of social inferiority, would be to place him in an undesirable one, for he could not receive attentions when unable to return them. Should he be a family man, he would be obliged to live in retirement; and such a mode of life, in most instances, would greatly curtail his official consideration, and limit his influence with the authorities of his station. Republican simplicity of living may go down very well at home, but this is a style little understood by Europeans; and he who

gives no dinners or *soirées* meets with much unpalatable formality and stiffness in his daily walks. It is probable, therefore, that this office would not be sought for by the proper kind of persons. I have said \$2,500 as the highest. Who would be the seekers for berths of less value? Why, most likely, in the second place, by men of desperate fortunes; many of them *active* politicians, as they are called, who, after having served their candidates at the election polls, would claim a consulate as the reward of service—to such a one \$1,500 or \$2,000 a year would seem untold wealth. Nearly one whole year's salary, however, would be anticipated in outfits—consular dress, dresses for his family, if he has one, and in passage money. The new functionary would arrive at his station. He might have been a doctor, or kept a country store, or been a lawyer, or anything else before he became the active politician; but, salaried as he is, does it make him the person fitted to advise, counsel, and defend his needy countrymen in commercial matters, or is he qualified to keep his government informed on matters of trade? And let it be asked of those who are so anxious that our consuls should be salaried, and not practical merchants, whether the nine men out of the ten who would alone seek and obtain such *livings*, would be likely to be the men we would delight to honor, love, and respect? In a short four years, if he managed to go at large for so long a time, a new set of men, at home, would come in office, and new consular appointments would be made to satisfy new claimants for services, and our consul would be obliged to find his way back, but little richer in purse or reputation than when he left his country.

Indeed, the new consular system seems to inspire so little confidence among its projectors themselves, that it is gravely proposed by one of them to appoint one or more *inspectors*, whose duty it would be to go the rounds of the different consular stations, to see, by personal inspection, that these functionaries faithfully and honestly earn their yearly stipends! What man, possessed of a particle of gentlemanly feelings, would accept of an office which would subject him to a system of espionage, as disgusting as it is unknown to the American people in any branch of their civil administration?

The present consular establishment is coeval with our political existence. It has, with few exceptions, been entrusted to our mercantile fellow-citizens residing abroad; and although all the appointments cannot have been happy ones, yet it has generally done good service, without costing the government one dollar in the way of salaries. The fees of the greatest part of our consuls are so trifling, as to be hardly sufficient to meet their office expenses, and therefore they must look to their exertions as merchants for their daily support, the expenses of which are increased by the mode of living which the consular appointment compels them to adopt. It is reasonable to conclude, that it would be quite impossible for persons of very ordinary abilities, or of questionable character, to carry on mercantile dealings to an extent, the profits of which would not enable them to support such expenses. The business of the most part of our consuls is agency or commission, and obtained only through good character and business talents. Now, as without these qualifications the stream of prosperity does not flow, it results, that he who does not possess them must give up to him who does; and hence the honorable position occupied by most of our consuls—a position which, as has been already said, loses nothing by comparison with similar officials of other countries.

But let Congress attach a salary to the appointment, and the country will be represented abroad, I fear me, by a very different set of persons; mere traders in politics, be they Whigs, Tories, Locofocos, or any other agitators floating on the surface of circumstances.

I have the honor to be, sir, your most obedient servant,
AN EASTERN CONSUL.

Art. V.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER II.

ROCHESTER: ITS MILLS, FACTORIES, ETC.

THIS growing city affords no inferior specimen of the success of Yankee enterprise, and the rapidity of Yankee improvement. Having drawn many of its leading citizens from New England, the habits, views, principles, and tastes of their birth-place have been brought with them, and have greatly contributed to make the once famous emporium of the flour business one of the handsomest flowers in our land; having a population now greater than many of the oldest cities of Europe—than Oxford, Cambridge, Exeter, and Greenwich, in England; than Rochelle or Bayonne, in France; than Salamanca, Bilbao, Badajoz, or Burgos, in Spain; than Pisa or Mantua, in Italy; than any city in Norway or Wales.

According to the census of 1840, there were in the city one commission and one commercial house in foreign trade, with a capital of \$15,100; 266 retail dry goods and other stores, with a capital of \$1,238,890; two lumber-yards, with a capital of \$30,000; 404 men engaged in internal transportation, with 71 butchers, packers, &c., employed a capital of \$156,000; 53 persons produced machinery to the amount of \$48,000; 25 persons manufactured hardware and cutlery to the amount of \$2,000; 10 persons manufactured 250 small arms; 14 persons manufactured the precious metals to the amount of \$8,600; 75 persons manufactured various metals to the amount of \$95,900; 116 persons produced granite and marble, to the amount of \$57,000, with a capital of \$7,600; four persons manufactured granite and marble to the amount of \$5,000; 49 persons made bricks and lime to the amount of \$14,015; four fulling-mills and four woollen factories employed 69 persons, producing to the amount of \$59,000, with a capital of \$58,616; one cotton factory, with 3,000 spindles, employed 80 persons, produced to the amount of \$40,000, with a capital of \$50,000; 58 persons manufactured tobacco to the amount of \$73,000, with a capital of \$16,000; hats and caps were manufactured to the amount of \$44,900, and straw bonnets to the amount of \$1,600, the whole employing 196 persons, and a capital of \$23,625; three tanneries produced 3,760 sides of sole leather, and 5,200 sides of upper leather, employing 165 persons, and a capital of \$128,500; saddlery, and other manufactures of leather, produced to the amount of \$246,500, with a capital of \$50,725; 11 persons produced soap and candles to the amount of \$33,500; three distilleries produced 195,000 gallons of distilled spirits, and three breweries 204,960 gallons of beer, the whole employing 37 persons, and a capital of \$60,300; 21 persons produced drugs and paints to the amount of \$42,000, and turpentine and varnish to the amount of \$450, with a capital of \$45,500; two persons produced glass to the amount of \$3,000, with a

capital of \$1,000; one pottery, employing five persons, produced to the amount of \$3,500, with a capital of \$1,500; 16 persons produced confectionary to the amount of \$22,700, with a capital of \$6,750; two paper-mills, employing 27 persons, produced to the amount of \$35,000, with a capital of \$22,500; one rope-walk, employing six persons, produced cordage to the amount of \$7,000, with a capital of \$5,500; four persons manufactured musical instruments to the amount of \$5,000, with a capital of \$5,000; 84 persons manufactured carriages and wagons to the amount of \$70,600, with a capital of \$35,900; 22 flouring-mills produced 311,665 barrels of flour, and with eight saw-mills and one oil-mill, employed 256 persons, producing to the amount of \$1,841,975, with a capital of \$945,600; vessels were built to the amount of \$74,200; 284 persons manufactured furniture to the amount of \$41,700, with a capital of \$113,400; nine printing-offices, one bindery, four daily, five weekly newspapers, and two periodicals, employed 82 persons, and a capital of \$32,560; 61 brick or stone, and 68 wooden houses were built, employing 418 persons, and cost \$401,270. The total capital employed in manufactures was \$1,963,017.

The facts which we are about to offer, exhibit but a part of the business carried on here—they are abundant to warrant a steady growth of the city for years to come. One kind of business is supposed, abroad, to be the only means of prosperity within this population of nearly 30,000. We shall begin with the flour-mills and trade, only, as a suitable introduction to many other and more successful modes of business effort.

The first grist-mill in Genesee county was miserably constructed, as might have been expected, in 1789. It had only one run of stone; and, after a little use, ground but ten bushels per day. The race was so unskilfully made as to be sometimes dry in summer, and flooded with back-water in winter. People came to it, however, from thirty miles around, as the only thing of its kind. This mill was substantially the beginning of Rochester, humble as that beginning appears. A saw-mill was connected with the grist-mill. There being hardly business enough to keep the concern alive, they were abandoned. In 1807, a mill with one pair of stones was erected by Charles Harford, where the Phœnix Mills now stand. In 1812, it was bought by F. Brown, who enlarged it to three pairs of stones, and improved it otherwise. It was destroyed by fire in 1818, when the present building grew up out of its ashes.

The following is a list of the flouring-mills and their occupants:—

Name of Mills.	Occupants.	Run of stone.	Name of Mills.	Occupants.	Run of stone.
Aqueduct.....	E. S. Beach.....	10	Whitney.....	John Williams... 5	5
Red.....	H. B. Williams... 3	3	Eagle	Sheldon & Stone 3	3
New York.....	J. Chappell & Co. 6	6	Frankfort Custom	I. F. Mack..... 3	3
City.....	Geo. J. Whitney. 5	5	Hart's.....	Holmes & Co... 10	10
Ætna.....	M. B. Steward.... 4	4	Clinton.....	J. Bradfield..... 4	4
Crescent.....	G. W. Burbank... 6	6	Genesee.....	Thos. Parsons... 3	3
Ely's.....	E. D. Ely..... 9	9	Phœnix.....	Wm. James..... 4	4
White.....	Charles J. Hill... 3	3	Washington.....	H. P. Smith..... 4	4
Farmers' Custom.	James Parsons... 3	3	Brown's.....	J. Brown & Co. 4	4
Field's.....	Joseph Field..... 5	5			
Shawmut.....	T. Pease & Co.... 6	6	Total.....		100

Some of these mills are directly upon the Erie Canal, and possess such machinery, that a cargo of 1,000 bushels can be unloaded in an hour and a half, and raised up fifty feet into the mill, and the flour be placed on board in the same time, not requiring a boat to change her position at all during the operation.

In 1814, a few hundred barrels were manufactured here for the troops on the Niagara frontier, the first that went beyond a supply of the immediate neighborhood with the main staple for food. Until 1815, very little wheat or flour was sent out of Genesee county. The crop being short in Canada that year, flour suddenly rose in Rochester, and for four weeks held the high price of fifteen dollars per barrel. But the 29th of October, 1822, a quarter of a century ago, saw the first canal-boat load of flour leave the east side of the Genesee River for Little Falls, where the canal then stopped. On the first few days of canal navigation, in 1823, 10,000 barrels of flour were shipped for Albany. In 1831, the first cargo of wheat came from Ohio, (an important event in the business of the place,) consigned to Hervey Ely. Now, the shipments by canal of flour from Rochester, for the three past years, run thus:—

	1844.	1845.	1846.		1844.	1845.	1846.
April,.....	25,044	41,925	26,071	September,....	66,506	73,751	90,656
May,.....	36,529	43,519	57,404	October,.....	80,658	129,199	104,839
June,.....	27,741	34,069	42,506	November,....	75,801	102,478	129,450
July,.....	31,870	41,159	37,869				
August,.....	56,238	52,218	51,497	Total, bbls.	400,378	518,818	540,232

Over 600,000 barrels of flour were manufactured here the past year, and the proportion of this year is a very decided increase. Wheat was received here as follows:—

Years.	BY ERIE CANAL. BY GENESEE VALLEY.		TOTAL.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1844,.....	607,179	276,962	884,141
1845,.....	760,557	408,724	1,169,281
1846,.....	801,345	402,201	1,203,546

The following table will show the sources that supply wheat for the Rochester mills. The receipts for 1846 were—

	Erie Canal.	Gen. Val-ley Canal.	Tona'da railroad.		Erie Canal.	Gen. Val-ley Canal.	Tona'da railroad.
January,.....	1,000	August,.....	50,816	38,536	15,000
February,.....	1,000	September, ...	168,630	57,600	35,300
March,.....	3,000	October,.....	92,418	52,205	40,800
April,.....	12,706	8,075	15,600	November,.....	169,854	97,883	20,700
May,.....	55,462	7,450	6,900	December,.....	5,200
June,.....	84,654	17,871	11,300				
July,.....	57,075	32,581	12,800	Total,.....	801,345	402,201	168,600

During the last year, the flour barrels weighed here upon the canal, amounted to 2,218,370; the bushels of wheat weighed, 2,243,255. Of the flour, 549,000 barrels were manufactured here; of the wheat, 159,000 bushels were shipped here. The barrels required for the flour business annually, are computed to be worth over \$200,000; and, with the other coopeage required, to amount to \$250,000. Not quite all, however, is spent in the city itself.

This is pretty well for a place where, in 1813, the Indians solemnized publicly one of their sacrificial feasts; where a bridge over the Genesee, one of the determining circumstances in population, was not completed till 1812, and was remonstrated against as a needless waste of money; where, at the beginning of 1816, the population numbered but 331, and the first newspaper, tavern, and religious society came into being, the latter consisting of sixteen members; where, at that date, the swamps, now forming much of the western half of the city, were full of game, and two deer

were shot in the very heart of the village—one near the main bridge, the other by the Rochester House.

We pass now to the canal business of Rochester.

A great share of the boat-building for the whole Erie Canal, as well as for other canals, is performed here. Owing to the rapid decay of boats, by straining in the locks and striking one another, and the necessity of employing none but those perfectly water-tight, these small dock-yards have exhibited the utmost activity during both summer and winter. The numerous saw-mills on the Genesee have reaped a rich harvest by their help, and regular employment is given the year round to large numbers of very intelligent mechanics. In 1846, one stick of timber was hauled into the city for Howell's yard, $4\frac{2}{3}$ feet at the butt, $2\frac{2}{3}$ at the top, and 63 feet long, which weighed $19\frac{1}{2}$ tons. In February, 1847, however, this monster was quite eclipsed by a stick 61 feet long, 5 feet 3 inches at the butt, and 3 feet 1 inch in the middle. This forest-size came from the adjacent town of Gates. The various yards are as follows:—

Yards.	Liners.	Scows.	Packets.	Hands.	Value.
Howell's,.....	53	13	.	80	\$86,000
Millener's,.....	39	4	.	95	60,550
Jones',.....	24	2	1	60	37,800
Silence's,.....	23	.	.	30	33,550
Smith's,.....	19	3	2	78	34,000
Hildreth's,.....	19	1	.	40	29,150
Barhydt's,.....	15	1	.	32	19,600
Benjamin's,.....	8	2	1	20	13,900
Brown's,.....	3	.	.	10	6,500
Dubois',.....	1	1,500
Watson's,.....	1	1	.	..	2,100
Total,.....	199	30	4	445	\$324,650

It is gratifying to know that the Rochester boats bear a high character abroad; that very many of them now float on the Ohio and Pennsylvania canals, and a large number are to enter this season on the Wabash and Erie.

Connected with these as subsidiaries, are the several steam planing-mills, viz:—

A. Bronson's,.....	10 men.	2,000,000 feet planed a year.
J. S. Walker's,.....	5 "	600,000 " "
W. Kempshall's,.....	5 "	500,000 " "
Taylor & Brown's,.....	(Not yet in operation.)	

The forwarding companies next deserve notice. They are 14 in number, as follows:—

Troy and Ohio Line.....	70 boats, averaging 650 barrels each.
Western Transportation Company.....	80 " 700 "
Merchants' " ".....	45 " 650 "
Merchants' and Millers' Line.....	32 " 650 "
Clinton.....	40 " 675 "
Troy and Erie.....	30 " 650 "
Commercial.....	18 " 675 "
Washington.....	16 " 650 "
Eckford.....	20 " 650 "
Albany and Buffalo.....	7 " 650 "
N. Y. and Toledo, and N. Y. and Indiana...	about 40 " 600 "
Griffith's Western.....	25 " 650 "
Troy and Michigan.....	20 " 650 "
New York and Genesee Valley.....	20 " 650 "

Many of the new boats carry 800 barrels each. A boat is not worth much after eight years, and costs \$1,500. Formerly, the forwarding companies were chiefly owned in Rochester, but the business proved ruinous in a period of general financial disorder; and most of the stock is now held out of Rochester, and managed only by an agency there.

The whole length of the Genesee River, in the neighborhood of the city, is favorable to manufacturing purposes; though its fluctuations are very considerable, from the extreme drought of the latter part of summer to the flood-tide of spring. In three miles, the river falls 265 feet, and might be diverted at a dozen points, and then thrown back again to do its usual work in the stream. Below the high falls in Rochester, the banks are such as to permit the water to be used several times over in its descent. Instead of a narrow stream issuing from each mill, and falling nearly 100 feet perpendicularly, lower wheels might receive this fresh impulse, and communicate so much more power, at very little more cost.

Formerly, the river was used for navigation some forty miles south from Rochester, and for a couple of seasons a small steamboat ran between that place and New York. The Genesee Valley Canal, however, which was commenced in 1837, and is not yet completed, has entirely superseded any such use of the river above the city, as it draws off much of its water, and lessens materially the depth of a stream naturally shallow.

Below Rochester, the river is navigable from Lake Ontario five miles, up to what has been named "Buell's Avenue," a very firm and excellent road, conducting travellers by an easy and safe ascent, through the most beautiful river scenery, into the city. At this landing, a little more than two miles from the city court-house, two steamboats (the Genesee Chief and the Ontario) have already been launched, each of them of about 400 tons, 143 feet long, and 9 feet 11 inches draught, to carry freight and passengers between Rochester and the Upper Lakes, by means of the Welland Canal; while, during the season of navigation, three Canada steamboats touch daily, either going up or down Lake Ontario, bringing Rochester into intimate and profitable relations with Kingston, Cobourg, Hamilton, Toronto, &c.,—a business only in its infancy at present, but certain of growth with the growth of the country, either North or West.

The wool trade, mentioned in the January number of the Merchants' Magazine, (page 105,) depends very much upon the facilities of communication with the Canadas. In 1845, an entire eighth of the whole product of the State was bought here, the Rochester dealers extending their purchases West and North to a great distance. As the price last fall was much lower than the average, the amount shipped by canal at this port fell also.

In 1844, it was.....	697,781 lbs.
1845,.....	795,719 "
1846, only.....	568,137 "

The average price in 1844 was 39 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents; in 1845, 29 $\frac{1}{4}$; in 1846, 24 $\frac{1}{2}$. A fair average for several years, and a handsome profit to the wool-grower, would be 35 cents. Much wool has been purchased by Rochester merchants at other places, and sent directly to the market, without being computed in the amount shipped from the city.

There are six small woollen factories here, the two largest of which consume nearly 70,000 lbs. of wool per annum, and employ 33 persons each.

To enumerate all the other uses to which the river is successfully applied, would betray this article into an excessive length, and a wearisome minuteness. We regret the obvious necessity of passing by many whom we would gladly mention, whose items might greatly serve to swell the sum total of Rochester productiveness. A very beautiful cotton factory, just erected by Seth C. Jones, of stone taken from the bed of the river, for the manufacture of sheetings and shirtings, with a principal water-wheel 26 feet in diameter, will employ 175 persons when fully at work.

The Genesee cotton-mills have power to carry 6,000 spindles. Jones' mill is intended for 5,000. The main buildings are 40 feet by 90, and five stories high. They are now employing 70 hands, and intend to produce 14,000 yards per week.

Messrs. Stoddard & Freeman have the only paper-mill for some distance round, excepting one by H. Ingersoll, for the exclusive manufacture of straw paper and straw boards. They have 50 hands, and manufacture from 2,500 to 3,000 pounds of paper daily.

There are eleven iron foundries in Rochester, and their business is reported as follows :—

Names.	Men.	Tons, 1846.	Names.	Men.	Tons, 1846.
Water-street	21	200	Bristol's	6	110
Rall's	5	130	Genesee	45	500
Hall's	13	150	City	40	500
Monroe-street	8	200	Hill-street	5	100
Eagle	22	250			
Rochester	30	400			
Bush's	20	350	Total,	215	2,890

Some of these establishments have manufactories connected with their foundries, whose work varies so much in nature and amount that no accurate enumeration or specification could be given. We proceed to mention a few prominent establishments not comprised in the above statement.

John A. Pitts employs 30 men, exclusive of his furnace, and manufactures yearly nearly 200 thrashers and separators, 200 horse-powers, and from 50 to 100 corn-cob mills.

Barton & Belden occupy two buildings, each four stories high, besides the basement; one of them 50 feet by 66, the other 45 by 55. They manufacture all kinds of coopers', joiners', and carpenters' tools, &c., and have earned a high reputation for superior edge-tools, supplying a considerable part of the market, East, West, and North. They employ 80 men, and their goods may be found all over the United States and in the Canadas.

Stewart & Strong employ 50 men in manufacturing whips, and have a buck-skin tannery connected with their concern, where the raw article is prepared.

There are eleven brick-yards in and around the city, where, at the least calculation, 8,000,000 are manufactured annually, four yards making over 1,000,000 each. Refuse coal is used in burning the bricks; and, by the introduction of an invention of Mr. Hill, of Coxsackie, the density and durability of the article are vastly increased.

H. N. Curtis holds the patent-right of Blanchard's Last for several States, and employs fifteen men at this business, and four in the manufacture of pegs. He turns out 20,000 pair of lasts per annum. The raw material for a year costs \$600; the turning of each last is two cents, the finishing ten, and the worth of the manufactured article from thirty-three

cents to one dollar per pair. The building in which his works are, gives employment to 150 persons, whose occupations are not enumerated in the statement here given.

Rochester has four tanneries in successful operation. D. & L. Graves (one of the largest in this part of the country) employ 25 men, have 101 vats, tan 20,000 pieces a year, besides 15,000 sheep-skins, with a capital of \$60,000. Jennings & Keeler do about half as much. Bark costs about three dollars a cord; 100 vats require over 1,300 cords per annum.

As an evidence of the growing means of a part of our citizens, we would state that the savings bank, of which William Pitkin is President, and D. Scoville Cashier, received of depositors, up to January 1, 1847, \$739,686; that the number of depositors was 1,686; the accounts opened during 1846, 1,326; the accounts closed, 989; funds on hand, January, 1847, \$388,370; loaned during the year, \$109,111. This institution is probably the sixth in size in the State. It was incorporated in 1831, and has been steadily growing in public favor. In 1835, it received of depositors \$100,000.

Another evidence of the prosperity of Rochester is furnished by the fact that, in the fall of 1846, there were in process of erection a cotton factory, to cost about \$25,000, and \$100,000 of other buildings, three of which were churches, one a hotel, and a great part of the residue stores, together with an iron foundry of stone, 113 feet by 54, and three stories high, containing blacksmiths'-shop, pattern-room, machine-shop, &c., all carried on by steam.

The banking capital at present is entirely inadequate to the wants of the city. The "City Bank" has a capital of \$400,000; the "Commercial," \$329,000; and the "Bank of Monroe" \$300,000. These, together, amount to a little over \$1,000,000, to do a business of nearly \$4,000,000. No wonder that, while the banks extend themselves as far as is possible, a constant pressure is experienced, and bitter complaints made, especially by the small dealers. The closing up of the Bank of Rochester, by the expiration of its charter, withdraws \$229,000 from the available capital or credit of the place.

Either of four projects, now exciting public attention, will greatly accelerate the growth of Rochester—the completion of the Genesee Valley Canal; the tapping of the Southern Railroad by a branch terminating there; the starting of a Northern business-route through Ogdensburgh to Boston, or the building of a railroad in connection with the new suspension bridge over the Niagara, by way of Lockport. These works are all practicable, and probable of completion at some period, when this growing city will take a new stride, and its population double and treble in numbers.*

F. W. H.

* For many of these facts, we are indebted to the Rochester Daily Democrat, one of three dailies all well sustained; and this, especially, enjoying a wide influence. The Democrat thus speculates upon the probabilities of the next season in relation to the foreign commerce of that place:—

"Certain it is, that before another season has passed, a sail-vessel of 600 tons measurement, with same power of steam attached, can start from our harbor with 2,500 barrels of flour, and in twenty-four hours reach Ogdensburgh; thence passing down the river, over the galloos, (galop) and through the Long Sault ship canal into the Lake St. Francois, and around the cascades at the foot of this lake into the 'Lake of the Two Mountains,' in Lake Ottawa, by the Beauharnois ship canal, and from the foot of this lake to La Chine,

Art. VI.—SHOPS AND SHOPPING IN CALCUTTA.

THE attention and flattery which ladies, who possess any claims to admiration, receive in India, must be exceedingly gratifying to those who are consoled by such homage for the loss, or rather the curtailment, of one of the most delightful recreations of the sex—namely, *shopping*. In many parts of the upper provinces, years may elapse without affording an opportunity for the purchase of a single European article, excepting by commission. Friends, at some distant station, must be applied to; and should the supply of goods not be very superabundant, the refuse of the *box-wallah's* stores are rummaged over, and the purchaser must take what she can get, and be thankful.

Remote inland stations are very rarely visited by travelling merchants, who are afraid of incurring the expense of the conveyance of their goods upon an uncertainty, and thus trade is wholly confined to native dealers; a solitary *box-wallah* making his appearance occasionally, and asking, upon his arrival, such an extravagant price for his merchandise, as to render the purchase almost out of the question. Europeans are expected to pay exorbitantly for the products of their own country, when the supply is scanty; and ladies have often the mortification of seeing an article, for which a very fair price has been refused, figuring on the person of one of their attendants, who has got it for next to nothing. Stations on the river are better supplied; few boats come up without bringing some small investment, by which the *dandies* (boatmen) hope to increase the profits of their voyage; and European shopkeepers frequently engage a *budgerow*, freighting the vessel with all sorts of articles for which there is any demand. Upon their arrival at the *ghaut*, they send a catalogue round to the different resident families, with the prices affixed, and too frequently a tantalizing notice, "all sold," against the items most in request.

The joy with which the arrival of any long-desired object is hailed, of which the attainment was nearly hopeless, is great. Ladies' slippers, especially of European manufacture, which happen to fit, seem like a blessing sent from heaven, after having gone almost barefoot in the soft, ill-shaped, spongy-soled shoes, of native construction. Even Chinese Crispins, though they are by far the best to be found in India, and bear a very high reputation, do not supply their fair customers with those Cinderella-like shoes, which alone are fitted for delicate feet. The upper portion may be constructed of beautiful and appropriate materials, satin or prunella; but there is always a falling-off in the soles, which are made of leather not sufficiently tanned, while the heels are never properly stiffened. Native shoemakers succeed better with gentlemen's boots, &c., those

seven miles through the La Chine enlarged canal to Montreal—all in twelve hours. This enlargement of the La Chine canal being the last link in this chain of magnificent works, and within a few months of completion, we may anticipate it as being in readiness before vessels are prepared for its navigation. From Montreal to Quebec, the shoals of Lake St. Peter being dredged, is another twelve hours' sail; and from Quebec to the mouth of the river, a distance of 600 miles, we may add three days more—being five days from Rochester to the banks of Newfoundland, which is five days on the route from New York to Europe, and within ten days of easy sail and steam of Liverpool; and then we have a cargo of our own flour in market, without cost of transportation, canal tolls, or commissions, subject only to the payment of moderate locking charges around the different falls of the St. Lawrence."

from Europe soon becoming too hard to be wearable. The happiest efforts of Hoby must be discarded for a base imitation, which has the merit of being more comfortable and better suited to the climate. A wide street in Calcutta, called the Cossitollah, is almost filled with the shops of Chinese shoemakers, who make satin slippers, to order, at four shillings a pair, and prunella, or jean, for three. It seems a thriving trade; these operatives being always well dressed in the costume of their country, wearing upper garments of silk, when they walk abroad or repair to European houses to take orders and measures. Some of the native shoes are very handsome, but they can only be worn by foreign residents as slippers when in their dressing gowns; the heel, though it may be raised at pleasure, is laid down across the inner part of the sole; the points are peaked, and turned up; and the whole is stiffened with embroidery, beneath which, a very small portion of the cloth or velvet, composing the shoe, is to be seen.

The only shops in Calcutta, which make much show on the outside, are those of the chemists and druggists, who bring all the London passion for display to a foreign country; they exhibit splendid and appropriate fronts duly embellished with those crystal vases, in which gems of the most brilliant dye appear to be melted. They are flourishing concerns, and the establishment of manufactories of soda water has added not a little to their profits. Until of late years, this refreshing beverage, which forms one of the greatest luxuries of a tropical climate, was imported from Europe, and sold at a very high price; there is now a large establishment at Futtyghur, which sends out supplies all over the country.

An officer, having a high command at the time that Java was taken from the Dutch, found a mineral spring upon the island of bright, sparkling, bubbling water, as delicious and refreshing as that which, when bottled and stamped with the seal of the Duke of Nassau, travels to every quarter of the globe. He instantly made the discovery known to the captain of a trader, who freighted his vessel with it for the Calcutta market, where it obtained a rapid sale; but it does not appear that any permanent advantage was derived from this event, or that the Dutch government were aware of the existence of this fountain, which springs in the midst of a thick forest, and is in all probability only the resort of the poor natives in its vicinity.

The European jewellers' shops, in Calcutta, are large and handsome. They do not make any show on the outside, but the interiors are splendid. The pavement of one or two is of marble, and the glass cases on the various counters display a tempting variety of glittering treasures—diamonds of the first water, pearls of price, with every precious stone that can be named in rich profusion. The setting of these gems is exceedingly beautiful, and according to the most fashionable patterns of London or Paris, neither of those places boasting a more superb assortment; but the prices are so ruinous, that it is wonderful where sufficient custom can be obtained to support establishments of the kind, of which there are at least four, in addition to the vast number of native artisans, who are not only exclusively employed by their own countrymen, but do a great deal of work for Europeans. Nothing could be more unconscionable than the profits which English jewellers sought and obtained for their goods in those days in which wealth flowed into Calcutta from many sources now cut off. Hitherto, the European shopkeepers of Calcutta have transacted

business in the most arbitrary manner, according to their own devices, without any reference to the regulations of trade at home.* They have had no competition to dread, excepting with the natives, whose retail business, though extensive, has been carried on in a silent, unostentatious manner.

Formerly, an idea was entertained, that European goods could only be obtained in perfection from European dealers; but this notion is now exploded, and it will be seen, in the course of these remarks, that the shopkeepers of both countries obtain their supplies from the self-same sources. It is the policy of Europeans to cast a stigma on their native competitors; for, living at an expensive rate, they are obliged to charge enormously for their commodities; while the humbler-minded native, whose whole establishment is maintained at a very small cost, is enabled to sell at a fair profit. In their anxiety to secure the genuine productions of Hoffman, or some other noted London house, families have sent to the accredited agents of these traders in Calcutta, paying, of course, the highest price, and have afterwards discovered that the vender, being out of the article, has kept the messenger waiting, while he despatched one of his own people to the bazaar, where it was to be had for about a fifth part of the money put down to their account.

Fortunes, however, are not accumulated in the rapid manner which might be surmised from the immense profits thus obtained. The goose is too often killed for the sake of its golden eggs, and customers are driven away in disgust by some piece of rapacity practised upon them. The princely style of living, also, afforded by Calcutta shopkeepers, forms another drawback; they spend nearly as much as they gain, there being little or no difference between the establishment of a first-rate tradesman and that of a civil servant. The modest few, who are content to occupy their houses of business, and who do not display close carriages and services of plate until they have realized sufficient capital for the indulgence of such luxuries, must inevitably acquire considerable wealth; at least, the opportunity has been offered under the old regime. But the stern necessity for retrenchment, felt by so large a portion of the community, and the paralyzation of trade consequent on the late failures, together with the host of adventurers, which the alteration of the East India Company's charter will in all probability send out, cannot fail to effect a striking change in the mercantile classes of Calcutta.

Next to the jewellers' shops, the most magnificent establishment in the city is that of the principal bookseller, Thacker & Co.; there are others of inferior note, which have circulating libraries attached to them; but the splendid scale of this literary emporium, and the elegance of its arrangements, place it far above all its competitors. The profit obtained upon books is more moderate than that of any other European commodity, the retail prices being entirely regulated by those of the London market;

* The jewellers, especially, set no bounds to the exorbitance of their demands. The counterpart of a gold smelling-bottle, set with precious stones, which was sold in London for fifteen pounds, had the modest price of seventy affixed to it in Calcutta. A common chain of hair, with a locket attached to it, of the plainest description, was charged seven pounds ten; not being executed according to order, it was sent back for alteration, and sixteen shillings added to the original bill, for the reparation of the blunders made by the workmen. A perfumer charged six shillings for an old bottle sent with a sample which was disapproved; and whole pages might be filled with similar instances of the utter disdain of the recognized principles of trade exhibited by the shopkeepers of Calcutta.

rupees are reckoned for shillings; a book which is sold at the publisher's at home for a pound, is charged at twenty rupees in Calcutta; and, considering the cost of freight and insurance, the perishable nature of the commodity, and the very great care requisite to secure both leaves and binding from being injured by damp, or devoured by insects, the price cannot be considered high. Books, intended for sale, must be carefully taken down from the shelf and wiped every day, and not only the outside, but the interior, also, must be examined; a work of time, which, in a large establishment, will occupy a great number of servants. The warping of splendid bindings in hot weather, and the rusts and mildews of the rainy season, must be taken into account; while the white ants being no respectors of engravings, notwithstanding the greatest care, a *hiatus* will sometimes be visible in the centre of some superb specimen of art, from the *burin* of Finden, Heath, or others of equal celebrity. The most expensive standard works are always procurable at this establishment; and though it may be cheaper to literary clubs and book societies to import their own supplies from London, so much must be left to the discretion of the agent employed, and, in the trade, there is such great temptation to get rid of unsaleable volumes, that, in the end, little saving is effected.

Immense consignments of books sometimes come out to Calcutta, through different mercantile houses, which are sold by auction, and are often knocked down for a mere trifle. American editions of works of eminence also find their way into the market at a very cheap rate; and those who are content with bad paper, worse printing, and innumerable typographical errors, may furnish a library of the best authors at a small expense. The way in which a fashionable novel is got up, is of little importance out of London, where an inelegant appearance would condemn the ablest production of the day; but in works of science, and those intended for the diffusion of useful knowledge, the mistakes and misprints, which are of constant occurrence in the American editions, may produce mischievous consequences. The inhabitants of Calcutta, or its occasional residents, can alone be benefited by the shoal of books brought upon the coast by a fleet more than ordinarily freighted with literary merchandise. The supply at out-stations never is superabundant; it is only at such places as Meerut and Cawnpore, that booksellers' shops are to be found; and their catalogues are exceedingly scanty, people generally preferring to send to Calcutta, than to take the chance of what may be obtained from a shopkeeper, who has not sufficient custom to lay in an extensive stock. At the Cape of Good Hope, the beach is said sometimes to be literally strewn with novels; an occurrence which takes place upon the wreck of a ship, freighted from the warehouses of Paternoster Row; and certainly, in the streets of Calcutta, those who run may read; for books are thrust into the palanquin-doors, or the windows of a carriage, with the pertinacity of the Jews of London, by natives, who make a point of presenting the title-pages and the engravings upside down. Some of these books seem to be worthy of the Minerva press in its worst days; and it is rather curious that novels, which are never heard of in England, half-bound in the common pale blue covers so long exploded, and which do not figure in any of the advertisements ostentatiously put forth on the wrappers of magazines, &c., are hawked about in the highways and byways of Calcutta; and, as they are not expressly intended for foreign markets, it must be presumed, though the fact appears doubtful, that there is some sale for

them at home, and that "Mysterious Involvements," "Errors of the Imagination," and "Delicate Dilemmas," still find supporters among the twaddlers of both sexes.

Though the jewellers must be styled the ruination shops of Calcutta, the establishment of Messrs. Tulloh & Co. may be called the Howell and James of the city of palaces. It is seldom without a vast concourse of carriages at the door, and the attractions within are of a superior order. On the ground floor, a large, but by no means handsome hall, is set apart for auctions; a pulpit is erected in the centre, and every description of property (houses, horses, carriages, &c., down to thimbles and needles) comes under the hammer in the course of a short time, sales of all kinds being very frequent. The auction-room is accessible to males alone; it is open to the entrance hall; but should a lady wander by mistake into the forbidden precincts, she becomes the talk of Calcutta; it is an act of *griffinism*, which strikes the whole community with astonishment and horror. A broad flight of stairs leads to a suite of apartments above, in which there is a multifarious assortment of merchandise, oddly enough contrasted, the merest trumpery being often placed in juxtaposition with articles of great value. The walls are hung with framed engravings, many of them from plates nearly worn out, intermixed with others of a superior description, and a few bad paintings; an accurate knowledge of the art being confined to a very small number of persons, and the worst specimens having as good a chance, especially with the natives, of procuring purchasers, as those of a higher order. The tables and counters are covered with glass cases, containing various kinds of British and foreign *bijouterie*; others support immense quantities of China and glass, lamps, lustres, and mirrors; there are quantities of silk mercery and linen drapery, and upholstery of all sorts. At one time, a tempting collection of furniture *en suite*, fitted for a boudoir, was displayed in these ware-rooms, which would have formed an appropriate decoration for the most *recherche* cabinet of the fairest queen in the world. It consisted of a work, sofa, and circular table, six chairs, and a couch of the beautiful black lacker, which even Chinese art cannot imitate. The landscapes were of the richest and most splendid enamel, and the cushions and draperies of pale green damask. They had been made in Japan, to order, from drawings or models sent from Calcutta, and were therefore of the most fashionable and approved form.

The gentleman who had despatched this splendid commission, did not live to see it completed, and it was consigned by his executors to Messrs. Tulloh & Co., to be sold for the benefit of the estate. Many bright eyes were directed towards these elegant decorations, although the circumstance of their not being of European manufacture lessened their value in the estimation of the greater number of gazers, who would have preferred glittering trumpery from France. The expense rendered a speculation for the English market rather hazardous; the price of each chair was four pounds, which, together with the freight and the *ad valorem* duty imposed at the custom-house of London, would have rendered it too costly for a fair chance of profit. Stuffed Chinese birds, beautifully arranged in glass cases, are amongst the rarities of Messrs. Tullohs' emporium; these were reckoned cheap at fifty pounds a case, and in all probability found purchasers in the captains of trading vessels. Native sircars, who speak English, attend, to acquaint the visitors with the different prices of the

articles ; but there are no chairs for the accommodation of the ladies, who, in the hottest weather, must either walk about, stand, or sink exhausted upon the stairs. Large consignments of goods, to be sold by auction upon some future day, are frequently exhibited ; but ladies, however anxious they may be to become purchasers, are not permitted to select any of the lots at a fair price, although the sale may be so peremptory as to amount almost to giving them away. Such is the despotism of custom at Calcutta ! Flaming advertisements, which put the ornate and elaborate productions of George Robins to shame, draw crowds of carriages to Tulloh's rooms ; and great is the disappointment of the fair visitants, when, as it frequently happens, they see the old-remembered articles in their accustomed places, as well known as the Ochterlony monument, with as little chance of ever being removed from their site. No abatement whatever is made in the price, in consequence of the dilapidations which time may have occasioned ; bargains are only to be procured at auctions, and the stock remains on hand during time immemorial, while newer and more fashionable importations, of the same nature, are knocked down to the highest bidder for anything they will fetch.

Mackenzie & Lyall, and Leyburn & Co., have establishments similar to that of Messrs. Tulloh, but neither so extensive nor so splendid. The sircars in attendance—fine gentlemen, profusely arrayed in white muslin, and evidently fattening upon their profits—assume a cavalier air, and seem to take any disparagement of their employers' goods in high dudgeon. Auction-rooms are attached to the premises of both these parties, and the heads of all the establishments are expected to officiate in turn. This is a *sine quâ non*, and many gentlemen, who would otherwise have devoted their time and property to mercantile pursuits, have been prevented from entering into a partnership with these firms, in consequence of the unpleasant nature of the duties. According to the old system, an auctioneer, however respectable his connections might be, and whatever his previous rank, was not admitted into society. The rigid exclusiveness of etiquette has somewhat relaxed in the present day, and military and civil servants do not object to meet at other houses, or receive at their own, those persons who were formerly considered to be quite beyond the pale. Still, the ascent of the rostrum is considered to entail the loss of caste ; and it is supposed that the rigid enforcement of the rule is made to preserve equality amongst the partners of the establishment, who are or were all rendered equally unpresentable at the vice-regal court.

Besides the quantity of goods daily disposed of at auctions, there are vast accumulations, which seem to be utterly forgotten, in the *godowns*, or warehouses, belonging to every merchant. The term applied to these receptacles, is a corruption of the Malay word *Gadong*. The ransacking of the vaults and store-places of Calcutta, and the discovery of all the strange things which the rats and white ants have left unconsumed, would be an amusing employment. What a quantity of forgotten lumber would see the light ! Patent leather fids, and other vaunted inventions, equally at a discount, lie mouldering in these recesses with things of greater value and utility, crates of China and glass, hardware, perfumery, &c., &c. Perhaps, in no other place, are there such numerous commodities put out of sight, and totally out of memory, as at Calcutta. The consignees who have failed to dispose of goods according to their invoice prices, and who have not received instructions to sell them by auction, allow them to choke

up their warehouses without an effort for their rescue from oblivion. All that is perishable is, of course, speedily demolished; a destiny little anticipated by the sanguine speculator, who, perchance, hoped to lay the foundation of his wealth in the Calcutta market.

Though this market is sometimes overstocked with the luxuries of the table, yet, as the "eaters of ham and the eaters of jam," as the European community have been styled by a witty writer in the *Bengal Annual*, are insatiate in their demand for the sweet and savory importations from oil, pickle, and confectionary shops, they form the safest investment. Upon the arrival of a ship, freighted with preserved salmon, lobsters, oysters, herrings, and other exotic fish, hams, reindeer tongues, liqueurs, dried fruits, and a long list of foreign dainties, the wholesale purchaser, anxious to sell them in their freshest and purest state, usually puts forth a series of advertisements, in which the art of puffing is carried to its fullest extent. Nothing is too absurd to be printed in the Calcutta newspapers; the vauntings of Day & Martin must hide their diminished heads before those which figure in our Eastern periodicals. Numerous pens are engaged in the composition; the young men in the "Buildings," the grand patronizers of tiffins and suppers, frequently lending their assistance at a sounding paragraph, and encouraging the perpetration of divers execrable jokes, and familiar invitations in the worst taste imaginable. Cheese, in these shops, is sold for three shillings a pound; ham, frequently at four, and everything else in proportion.

Happily, the economical part of society may furnish their tables at a cheaper rate. The native bazaars of Calcutta, in which European goods are sold, though not very tempting in appearance, are well stocked. They consist of a collection of narrow streets, furnished with shops on either side, some of which have show-rooms on the upper floor, but all darker, dirtier, and more slovenly than those in the fashionable quarters of the city. The *Soodagurs*, fat, sleek, well-dressed men, clad in white muslin, and having the mark of their caste (if Hindoos) painted in gold upon the forehead and down the nose, stand at their doors, inviting customers to enter. Capital bargains are to be obtained by those who are willing to encounter the heat, fatigue, and abominations, which beset their path. It is not, however, necessary to inspect these districts in person, as a sircar may be employed, or samples of the goods sent for. The millinery exhibited in these places is absolutely startling, and the people are puzzled to guess how it can ever be disposed of; but this mystery is solved by an apparition not unfrequent, a half (or rather whole) caste female—for many of the Portuguese are blacker than the natives—belonging to the lower ranks, attired in the European costume. No Christian of European descent, however remote, ever wears a native dress. Rich Indo-British ladies attire themselves in the latest and newest fashions of London and Paris, greatly to their disadvantage, since the Hindostanee costume is so much more becoming to the dark countenances and pliant figures of Eastern beauties; those of an inferior class content themselves with habiliments less in vogue, caring little about the date of their construction, provided the style be European. At native festivals, the wives of Portuguese drummers, and other functionaries of equal rank, are to be seen amid the crowd, arrayed in gowns of blue satin, or pink crape, fantastically trimmed; with satin slippers on their feet, their hair full-dressed, and an umbrella carried over their heads by some ragged servant, making altogether an ap-

pearance not very unlike that of Maid Marian on May-day. To these ladies, in process of time, are consigned the blonde lace, or silver lama dresses, to which, on their first arrival in India, so exorbitant a price was affixed that nobody could venture to become a purchaser. After displaying themselves for years in a glass case at Leyburn's, they suddenly disappeared, remaining in the deepest oblivion, until some lucky *box-wallah* procures a customer unacquainted with the changes which have taken place in the London fashions since the period of their debut from the *boutique* of a first-rate professor.

Amidst an intolerable quantity of rubbish, articles of value may be picked out. The piece-goods are equal to those which are obtainable in magazines of higher pretensions, and the hams, cheeses, oil-man's stores, &c., are of the best quality; and furniture, palanquins, in short, all the necessaries and conveniences of life, are to be found at these bazaars. The shopkeepers are, for the most part, very rich native settlers in Calcutta, having derived more benefit from the increasing opulence of the city, than any other class of its inhabitants, since the greater part of the wealth flows through their hands. Having large capitals, they are enabled to purchase the whole of a captain's investments direct from the ship; the principal European establishments do the same, putting about 20 per cent upon the original price. Many, of an inferior class, having no ready money, are obliged to go into the China bazaar, and buy from the natives (perhaps upon credit) those European commodities they are unable to procure at first-hand; yet these men live in the same style as the large capitalist, driving about in the streets in buggies, and disdaining the thrift and economy which their brethren at home are compelled to practice.

Under the British government, the Mussulmans or Hindoos, who have accumulated property, are not afraid of making a display of it in their shops or warehouses. Destitute of those apprehensions which, in the days of anarchy and despotism, embittered the enjoyment of riches, they pursue their avocations with a keenness and avidity which bid defiance to all rival efforts. Ready-money customers do well to make their purchases of persons willing to sell at a fair profit; but there is some danger of getting into debt, or borrowing largely from a Hindoo. The Jews—a class of persons with whom, in other places, pecuniary dealings are to be dreaded—form, in Calcutta, so small a portion of the community, as scarcely to be worth naming. They have little chance against the sircars, banyans, and money-changers, professing Hindooism, whose usurious practices far exceed anything related of the scattered tribes of Israel.

Shops at up-country stations, without being half so well supplied, are generally ten times dearer than those of Calcutta. Raspberry jam, the preserve most in request at an Indian table, bears a most preposterous price; a jar, which is sold in London for about four shillings, will cost twenty-four, and can never be purchased for less than sixteen. The charge at Cawnpore for half a pint of salad oil is six shillings; and, in a camp, a two pound square jar of pickles, and a pine cheese, have sold for three pounds each—an act of extravagance in the consumer which is without any excuse, the native pickles being infinitely superior to those brought from England, and the Hissar cheeses of far better quality than the importations, which are always either dry or rancid.

There are at least half a dozen French and English milliners of note settled in Calcutta, some of whom make regular voyages to Paris and

London, for the purchase of their own investments. The displays of their show-rooms materially depend upon the shipping arrivals; sometimes there is a "beggarly account of empty boxes," and at others the different apartments are replete with temptations. The high rents of houses, in good situations, in Calcutta, and the necessity of keeping large establishments of servants, preclude the possibility of obtaining goods of any kind, at these fashionable marts, at low prices. The milliners of Calcutta seem to depend entirely upon supplies from Europe; they have never thought of enlisting Chinese manufactures into their service. Large importations of silks, satins, damasks, crapes, &c., arrive from Canton, and some of the higher orders of native merchants have pattern-books to show, filled with the richest of these fabrics, woven in the most exquisite patterns; but the ladies of Calcutta disdain to appear in dresses which would be eagerly coveted by those of the great capitals of Europe. Chinese silks and satins are scarcely to be seen in any of the shops; if they should be wanted, they must be sought out, like the Cashmeres, the Dacca muslins, and the Benares tissues, concealed from public view in chests and ware-houses. At half the expense of their present apparel, the Calcutta belles might be more splendidly attired than any female community in the world; but the rage for European frippery is so great, that the most magnificent fabrics of the East would have no chance against a painted muslin. If these rich products were more seen, the purchase would be more highly appreciated; but the custom of the country, founded, in all probability, on the deleterious effects of the climate, forbids the outward show which forms the characteristic, and the attraction, also, of a London shop. The dampness of the atmosphere of Bengal is ruinous to every delicate article exposed to it; and the natives of India have not yet learned the methods, by which careful English dealers preserve their stock from dust and dilapidation; nor can they acquire these arts from their European employers, who are in a great measure ignorant of the principles of trade, and are induced to become general dealers in consequence of finding it the most profitable speculation. The indolence occasioned by the heat is usually too great to admit of much personal superintendence; the details are left to native assistants, and, with very few exceptions, every kind of merchandise is huddled together in confusion, or arranged in the most tasteless manner.

The jewellers, and the establishment of the leading bookseller, have already been exempted from this charge; and the praise which their respective owners merit, must be awarded to the European proprietors of a shop, the prettiest in Calcutta, devoted wholly to the sale of Chinese goods. There is a constant succession of new articles to be seen in this shop, captains of traders, and people desirous of sending presents to England, speedily sweeping away the whole stock. The goods are charged at about double the price for which they may be purchased at Canton; but there are always many pretty things which come within the reach of humble purses, and the privilege of looking over some of the most beautiful specimens of human ingenuity is worth a few rupees. This shop, though not large, occupies a good situation upon the Esplanade. It is remarkably clean and cheerful, offering a striking contrast to the dens of dirt and darkness, which, in many parts of the city, look more like rat-holes than the emporiums of European goods. The door is generally thronged with carriages, and in the hot season there is some difficulty in getting up to it;

the *garreewans*, or coachmen, of Calcutta, ignorant of the etiquette practised in England, do not draw off at the approach of another vehicle with a party to set down or take up. For want of some arrangement of this kind, there are perpetual contests for mastery; and timid people, or those who have a thin attendance of servants to clear the way, prefer walking a few yards to disputing possession with the carriage at the door. In narrow passages, equipages are obliged to drive away to make room for each other; but where space will permit, it seems a point of honor amongst the coachmen to cause as much confusion and hubbub as possible. Everybody drives on which side the road he pleases to take, either left or right; and, considering the vast number of carriages which assemble in the public places, it is wonderful how few accidents occur.

During the cold season, ladies may shop in Calcutta without any personal inconvenience, and many are not to be deterred by the heat from pursuing so favorite an amusement. The arrival of adventurers from France, who hire apartments for the display of their goods, is a great temptation to venture out. These people, who are anxious to get away again with the vessel which brought them, usually undersell the regular shopkeepers, disposing of the stock remaining on hand by public outcry; a favorite method all over India. Upon some of these occasions, amazing bargains are to be had, of which the natives usually avail themselves; boatmen and others upon the very smallest wages being enabled to make purchases, which they are certain of selling to advantage in the upper country, though at 100 per cent below the regular price. English captains of vessels have been known to open a warehouse on their own account, and to sell their investments by retail; but whether the experiment answered or failed, the example has not been generally followed. The first arrivals in the market, or those freighted with goods in demand, of course, speedily get rid of their cargo, while the remainder are frequently compelled to make great sacrifices. The pale ale, so much in request at an Indian table, is often sold at a dead loss, and may be had occasionally, at Calcutta, at three or four rupees a dozen to the consumer; but it is never procurable at the same comparative rate of cheapness in the Mofussil. Should the new steamboats, which have been sent out from England, prove successful in the navigation of the Ganges, to Allahabad or Cawnpore, vast additions and improvements will take place in the shops already established at those and the intermediate stations. The reduced rate of European goods, and the more general introduction of articles of native manufacture, will enable the British residents of India to live as well upon inferior allowances, as they were accustomed to do in the days of splendid incomes and profuse expenditure. Mango, corunder, hybiscus, guava, and various other jams and jellies, when prepared without an admixture of spice, are quite equal to the finest of Hoffman's fruits. Hams and bacon can be as well cured in India as in England; and the table, at least, may be independent of every European article, excepting wine and beer, while very excellent cider may be made from melons.

All the musical instruments used in India are importations; as yet no manufactory of the kind has been ventured upon. Very few carriages are brought from England, there being a large coachmaker's establishment of great celebrity in Calcutta, besides others in different parts of the country, some maintained by Europeans, and others by natives, who work from the instructions of gentlemen, especially artillery and engineer officers, pos-

sessing amateur acquaintance with the art. All sorts of harness and saddlery have attained great perfection at Cawnpore, where the natives work upon leather with much success, producing such delicate articles as white kid gloves of a very fair quality; their saddles and bridles are exceedingly neat and elegant, and if not so durable as those of English make, are infinitely cheaper. The price of a hunting saddle and bridle, imported from England, is twelve pounds; while those manufactured at Cawnpore may be had for one, equally good in appearance, though they probably will not last quite so long. The great demand for leather, at Cawnpore, has proved very fatal to troop-horses, and those of travellers proceeding to that station. The villages, at the distance of a march or two, are inhabited by gangs of miscreants, who do not hesitate to procure so lucrative an article of commerce by the most nefarious means. It is their custom to poison the wells, or otherwise to administer some deleterious mixture to the horses encamped in their neighborhood. They either die immediately, or drop upon the road during their next day's march, and their skins are stripped off and sold at Cawnpore. It is seldom that a native of India can be detected in his knaveries. After many vain attempts to discover the perpetrators of these enormities, gentlemen who lost their horses came to a determination to defeat the projects of the wretches by whom they had been destroyed. Upon the death of any animal, they had it flayed instantly by their own people, and either carried away the skin or caused it to be burned upon the spot. This plan has at length proved effectual; the horse-killers, tired of their vain attempts to secure the object of their villainy, allow the most tempting studs to pass unmolested, the *thanadars* in the neighborhood having received orders to warn all travellers of the danger, and to recommend them, in the event of any casualty amongst their cattle, not to leave the skin behind. There is an exceedingly good English coachmaker settled at Cawnpore, and very excellent and elegant carriages are made at Bareilly, a place famous for the beauty of its household furniture, which is painted and lackered with much taste, and in a peculiar manner.

Art. VII.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF THE ISLE OF BOURBON.

A STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF THE ISLE OF BOURBON, A COLONY OF FRANCE, IN 1846.*

SINCE the loss of the isle of France, that of Bourbon is the only settlement the French now possess between Africa and India. It was discovered in 1542,† by the Portuguese navigator Mascarenhas, and was at that time uninhabited. From him, after the fashion with discoverers of that epoch, it received the name of Mascareigne. Some buccaneers, sent from Madagascar to it, a century afterwards, (1642,) erected factories there, and called the island Bourbon, which, at the beginning of the

* The following paper was translated from the French of M. Aymar-Bression, by Colin T. Campbell, Esq., author of a prize essay "On the Progress of Civilization in England," &c., for Simmonds' Colonial Magazine.

† In the original M. Bression says 1545; but, as his other dates correspond with those usually received, I apprehend this to be a typographical error, and have altered it accordingly.—C. T. C.

French Revolution, was changed into that of Réunion, and afterwards into that of Bonaparte and Napoleon. On the restoration of the Bourbons, however, in 1815, it permanently retook its name of Bourbon.

It is situated in the Indian Ocean, to the E. of Madagascar, 120 miles W. S. W. from the isle of France, and its whole surface is about 2,400 square miles, or about 400 square miles more than the area of the county of Norfolk. Numerous rents and traces of lava, basalt, and other volcanic productions, render it extremely probable that the island owes its origin to some volcanic agency.

The principal mountain, called Snow-peak (*Piton des Neiges*), is 3,067 metres (equal to 6,968 feet English) in height. At the foot of a plateau (table-land or platform,) in descending this peak, thermal springs spout out of a boggy soil, the temperature of which is from 27° to 30° (Reaumur,) bringing, on account of their reputation, many strangers from the neighboring countries. The hurricanes, which are pretty frequent in these seas, cause considerable damage, inasmuch as there is no harbor, and only an open and dangerous roadstead, at St. Denis, the capital of the island. A pier, secured by iron chains, has been constructed for the purpose of enabling boats to land; at the end of it is a ladder, by which persons who wish to go ashore may ascend; in all other parts of the island they must jump into the water. Besides the roadstead of St. Denis, there is another at St. Paul, which is perhaps better, but no other place round the island offers an anchorage ground for vessels. The important question of the establishment of a fort, frequently agitated, has not yet been resolved. We prefer attributing this to the heavy expenditure necessary, rather than to impossibilities which would have some doubts of the scientific qualifications of the engineer.

The mountains almost invariably present arid and denuded tops, the trees with which they formerly were covered having gradually disappeared. A little teak wood, so useful for ship-building purposes, remains; while the other kinds of wood, such as mahogany, black wood, iron wood, and benzoin, are consumed in cabinet-making. This depopulation of different sorts of trees is the more to be regretted, as, in this favored climate, the most differing species easily arrive at perfection.

Formerly the island yielded from 18 to 20,000 quintals (cwt.) of wheat, part of which it exported; now its principal staple commodity is rice, of which it produces about 26,000 quintals. Together with maize and mandioc, it is the principal article of food amongst the negroes and colored people; but the cultivation most developed is that of sugar, the quantities produced of which increased from 4,500,000 kilometres in 1820, to upwards of 20,000,000 kilometres in 1837, and ought still further to progress, owing to the improvements introduced in its manufacture, as well as in the factories themselves. From 30,000 to 35,000 bales of coffee are likewise produced, the most renowned of which are those of St. Paul. In 1776, Poivre, who was then Intendant of Bourbon, introduced the cultivation of the clove; and now upwards of 500,000 kilogrammes are gathered. After him Joseph Hubert succeeded in grafting the nutmeg; and now-a-days Bourbon supplies from 500 to 600 kilogrammes of them. In short, 15,000 to 20,000 kilogrammes of cocoa, and about 20,000 kilogrammes of oil, since the cocoa-nut tree has been acclimatised, completes, together with the rum obtained from the sugaries, and a little tobacco, the list of indigenous products.

These productions are, however, sufficiently numerous, and, above all, sufficiently sought after, to create a flourishing commerce, and to lead to considerable exchanges. If, in fact, the island exports to France all its staples, and especially its sugars, besides hides, horns, tortoises, ebony, and benzoin, it imports from France, besides a large quantity of nutritive commodities, all the manufactured goods that it consumes. From India it imports rice and cotton goods, which serve as clothing for the negroes from the neighboring islands; and formerly, especially from Madagascar, provisions and salted fish.

Of all the French Colonial Possessions, that of Bourbon is the one in which the most marked and rapid progress has taken place. It imports yearly 16,400,000 francs' worth (about £656,400) of French manufactured goods, in exchange for which it sends back 21,000,000 francs' worth (about £840,000) of its own produce. The gross amount of its commerce with France, including foreign goods, which it receives through its marts, is as follows:—

Imports,.....	24,700,000 francs (or £988,000)
Exports,.....	16,500,000 “ (or 660,000)
In all,.....	41,000,000 “ (or £1,648,000)

According to the average of the last three years, there are 190 vessels engaged in its trade, measuring 52,400 tons. In 1825, the corresponding amounts of both imports and exports did not exceed 13,500,000 francs, (or £540,000;) and the measurement of its vessels did not amount to more than 26,000 tons. Ten years later it already engaged 150 vessels of different sizes, measuring 38,426 tons, and manned by 2,387 sailors. The position of Bourbon in the Indian Ocean, its proximity to Madagascar, the Mauritius, and the recent French establishment of Mayotte, one of the four isles of the Comorean Archipelago, discovered in 1598 by the Dutch navigator Cornelius Houtman, contributed not a little to the development of its commerce and navigation. But recent events at Madagascar, the expulsion of traders, the interruption of relations that had existed from an early date, threatened, particularly in these latter times, to render its position often perilous, for it was particularly from the Malegache isles that Bourbon obtained the greater part of its necessaries. But since then it has suffered from a scarcity, or at most from the high price of provisions.

Like all other French Colonies, it is under Colonial regulations (*régime Colonial*.) which are of a restrictive character.

It had ardently longed for the advent of a less restrictive system, which, while giving it greater independence in its commercial relations, would allow for its taking advantage of its geographical position, and of new markets which recent treaties had thrown open to it. It has not had long to wait for the realization of this wish, for by an advice bearing date 23d October, 1846, the customs legislation has been revised. It is not out of place here, then, to examine what commercial relations will be created by these new regulations, and what influence they will exercise as such on the prosperity of Bourbon in particular, as well as on the development of French political influence and commerce in these distant latitudes. Until now, special circumstances did not allow of the application, without restrictions, of the régime in force in the French Antilles; for, although enterprise, agriculture, and navigation were always directed to supply its market, its situation, and long-established intercourse with India, China,

Madagascar, and the Mauritius, augmented, moreover, by a treaty of commerce, and by the recent creation of a French Establishment in these seas, had developed these relations, and imperatively demanded the extension of allowed transactions.

It is to satisfy this want, that henceforth French merchandise of every description will be admitted into Bourbon free of all customs duties. It is the application of the immunity already allowed to the Antilles by the law of the 29th April, 1845. Spirits alone form the exception,—a tax of 50 francs (£2) being levied on every hectolitre (about 250 gallons,) which the Minister of Commerce conceives to be very moderate, although it amounts to, if it does not exceed, the value of the produce taxed.

The foreign merchandise that may be imported direct for Colonial consumption, belongs to nineteen classes, including, however, but the usual articles of consumption with which the Colony is obliged to provide itself. An extra tax on foreign vessels favors the importation in French vessels. Among the duty-free articles are cattle, (oxen, cows, heifers, bulls, steers, calves, rams, sheep, goats, hogs,) and asses, game, poultry, tortoises, fresh oysters, from the Mauritius, to the interest of inter-relations with that island; bones and hoofs of animals, rice in grain from the producing countries, or from the port of first shipment, and coal. We should have been glad to see under the same privilege of freedom of duties, mules, ploughs, winnowing-machines, melting-cauldrons, pipes, and wooden pumps, all articles of the first and indispensable exigency.

Chinese productions are admissible on payment of a duty of 12 per cent on their value. But, unfortunately, under this order, no useful product has been included, it being confined exclusively to fancy table ornaments and toys, which in no case would create any very extended commerce with the Celestial Empire.

The new régime places Bourbon equally in connection with the French Colonies and Establishments, particularly with Pondicherry, which may, henceforth, send it, under a tariff reduced for the profit of French vessels, Indian cotton cloth, Guineas, cocoa-nut oil, &c.

The recent French Possession of Mayotte has been much talked of, especially of late, as one to which troops, provisions, and a colony of different sorts of workmen, have recently been sent. After these preparations and expenses, it is not to be doubted that its occupation is now permanent. The inhabitants of this isle, who are not wanting in intelligence, have even carried on a commerce in provisions and cattle, which cannot fail of being still farther developed by the proximity of our Establishment. It is, besides, frequently a place for vessels going to or arriving from the East Indies to touch at, and which usually take in oxen, tortoises, kids, rice, maize, potatoes, ignames, and mullet. Their intercourse, always advantageous to the isle of Bourbon, is still more so now that almost all relations have ceased with Madagascar; and it will still farther increase by reason of new facilities,—for foreign merchandise that is landed at Mayotte will, henceforth, enjoy at Bourbon a drawback of three-fourths of the duty.

An allowance of half the duty is made in favor of produce coming from the States of the Imaum of Muscat, with which France concluded a treaty of amity and commerce at Zanzibar, 17th November, 1844, which was duly ratified 4th February, 1846, and published by royal ordinance on the 22nd July following. This convention, which one would be disposed to

consider as trifling enough, if one did not consider that the population of the States of the Imaum, which barely amounts to 12,000, obtains a much greater importance when it is known that it is the best port on this part of the coast of Arabia—that it is the key to the Persian Gulf, and the centre of its commerce. Wheat and dates are the principal productions of the country, and would be the only articles of exchange, if it had not a sufficiently large number of vessels, that belong as much to the Imaum as to his subjects. Thanks to the superiority of its ship-owners, who possess the best merchantmen that are to be found in the Indian Seas, Muscat is become an important entrepôt, and has a very considerable transit trade. Her vessels go to British India, Singapore, Java, Mauritius, Bourbon, and, above all, the east coast of Africa. The pearl-fishing which is prosecuted in the Gulf of Persia, is likewise concentrated at Muscat. Every kind of merchandise of importation or exportation of the Gulf is likewise found in its warehouses. There is exported, particularly for consumption in the interior of Arabia, rice, sugar, raw and woven cotton, timber, cocoa-nuts, and Mocha coffee. In return, ivory, gums, hides, ostrich feathers, dried fish, a few horses, and sundry drugs, are brought back. However, our (French) produce being only subject on entry into the States of the Imaum to a simple duty of 5 per cent on their value, and the productions of Muscat enjoying in our Colony of Bourbon a reduction of one-half the duty, one may foresee that these new dispositions will infallibly give rise to considerable and lucrative exchanges, for our commerce, our mercantile navigation, and also our political influence. Our ships, in frequenting these latitudes, will find at all times excellent water, provisions at a low price to re-victual with, besides various articles of freight. Without speaking of the articles we have cited, and which feed commerce and exchange, the Imaum has let some to the Portuguese government, and Latham Island, situate in 6° 45' S. latitude, and 39° 54' E. longitude, which contains, it is asserted, twice as much guano as was found at Ichaboe, and its quality equals, (so at least some reports represent,) if it does not exceed it.

The new régime under which the Colony of Bourbon will, henceforth, be placed, is completed by other privileges, which we here pass over in silence, but which cannot fail of being approved, as they have for their object the extension of its commerce and navigation, as much with the mother-country as with those distant seas where we ought to regret that our influence has not hitherto been more powerful and more extended.

Art. VIII.—MISSISSIPPI AND ATLANTIC RAILROAD.

AN ADDRESS DELIVERED BEFORE THE RAILROAD CONVENTION HELD AT INDIANAPOLIS ON THE 12TH OF MAY, 1847, BY W. S. WAIT, DELEGATE FROM THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.—REPORTED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

THE commerce of the West has received but little aid from the general government, although the navigation of our lakes and rivers is not less important to the nation than the commerce of the ocean; and the population immediately interested in its success is no less numerous, and pays as large an amount into the national treasury, as the Atlantic region.

In the meantime, let us neglect no duty which devolves upon us as citizens, or as independent States, in the endeavor to accomplish that ready

intercommunication which is the life of agriculture, of manufacture, and of commerce—which increases knowledge, and promotes the useful arts,—which overcomes prejudice, reconciles conflicting views, and teaches us that the true art of promoting our own individual interest, consists in a liberal disposition to unite in all just endeavors for advancing the general prosperity.

Railroads, under the operation of locomotive power, are now universally considered one of the most important facilities of commerce and of social intercourse. They have become common in Europe and America. Republics, monarchies, mixed governments, and despotisms, all acknowledge their utility, and hasten to avail themselves of the benefits which they are calculated to bestow. Not only the rugged hills of New England, and the iron mountains of Pennsylvania, echo to the shrill whistle of the locomotive, but they have made their progress into the extreme South, and are already pressing from all sides into the Valley of the Mississippi.

A continuous line of railroad, from the Eastern Atlantic border to St. Louis upon the Mississippi, is not a project of very recent date. It has been a subject of private discussion for many years; and this most desirable enterprise might long since have been accomplished, to the benefit of the whole country, had not the commendable spirit for such improvements run wild in the pursuit of schemes for sectional and local advantage.

A charter was applied for, during the late session of the legislature of Illinois, to construct a railroad from St. Louis to Terre Haute. The bill passed the House of Representatives, in that State, but failed in the Senate by one vote. Had this opposition been seasonably foreseen by the friends of the measure, and the strength of the legislature fairly tested upon this question, such an unprecedented result need scarcely have been apprehended. The assurances since received, however, from a quarter to be relied upon, and a more just apprehension which now prevails relative to the true character of the enterprise, has given confidence to those farmers of the State of Illinois, who have a right to demand this grant for a road to market, as well as the public at large, that no serious opposition will hereafter be made to this most useful and necessary measure. The convention to remodel the constitution of the State of Illinois, come together in June. Should the new constitution be accepted by the people, a session under its provisions may confidently be looked for at as early a period as January next. At this time, the grant of the desired charter will surely be accomplished, should no unexpected and adverse change take place in public opinion.

The action of the legislature of Indiana by the bill incorporating a company to construct a railroad from Terre Haute to Richmond, and the right of way given by the State of Ohio for its continuation through that State, seem now to place this great enterprise, of a continuous railroad between the Atlantic cities and the emporium of the West, fairly within our reach, and to afford a rational prospect of its early consummation.

To promote unity of design, and to be prepared for ultimate and efficient action, it is desirable that some attempt at organization amongst its friends should take place, and that every preliminary measure which may be safely and profitably taken, should be embraced without unnecessary delay. There are always obstacles to be encountered in setting useful enterprises on foot; perhaps, in the present instance, not greater than might have been anticipated; but if we are actuated by the genuine spirit of

American enterprise, such obstacles will be readily overcome, and so far from diminishing our zeal, may prove a stimulus that shall give a fresh impulse to our exertions.

This magnificent enterprise, when accomplished, will surpass, in extent and importance, any public work upon this continent, or, perhaps, in the world. The great railroad of the Emperor of Russia, to connect Moscow with St. Petersburg, sinks into comparative insignificance when compared with this; and, as a sure and profitable investment for capital, none can be devised that will surpass it. It should, however, be fully impressed upon every mind, that an enterprise of this kind, to be successful, should be thoroughly and judiciously undertaken.

A railroad terminating at the present emporium of commerce, upon the Upper Mississippi, should be constructed of sufficient capacity to accommodate all the business which might seek that direction from divergent lines of railway, extending from commercial points on its right and left, from the shores of Lake Erie to the Ohio River.

To enable such an enterprise to compete successfully with any other of the same description, it should be thoroughly adapted to the wants and to the magnitude of the service expected from it; and it should equal, or, if possible, surpass, in safety, economy of conveyance, capacity, and speed, any railroad now in existence.

The States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, contain a population of more than 4,000,000 at this time. When as densely populated as Massachusetts—and the unexampled agricultural capacity of this region assures us that they must be—these four States will equal in number the whole population of Great Britain. We speak now of only four contiguous States; but the entire Valley of the Mississippi, already containing 10,000,000 of souls, and the whole shore of the Atlantic, are immediately interested in a grand central line of communication between these great commercial, manufacturing, and agricultural regions.

The Valley of the Mississippi, the most fertile country in the world, with its 20,000 miles of navigable river coast, and ocean lakes, now launches upon its waters a commerce of more than \$300,000,000, in value. The great medium of commercial intercourse for this region, is found in its navigable waters; but to remedy the inconvenience of drought and of frost, and to furnish a rapid travelling facility, besides affording the ready means of transportation to such points as are remote from rivers and canals, the use of railroads is indispensable. We are now capable of sustaining them, and it is only necessary that we should be judicious in our first selection of routes, and when the enterprise is begun, endeavor to accomplish a work that shall be fully adequate to the public wants.

Between Boston and New York, there are already four routes by railroads, and a fifth is applied for. The travelling from those points has increased since railroads were constructed, until it is nine times greater than the original projectors had anticipated. We can scarcely conceive of a limit to the increase of travelling upon a well-constructed railroad, which shall open a direct communication between our Atlantic coast and the Valley of the Mississippi. In a few years it will be discovered that not one nor two great lines of railroad will be enough. They will be required, and they will be accomplished by tens and twenties; and parallel, divergent, and right-angled lines, will strike every commercial town and agricultural neighborhood of the West. There is a field too vast, too

magnificent, to permit the consideration of local or sectional views. There is room for the enterprise of all.

Agricultural commodities are of great weight and bulk, and at the same time compose the pabulum which sustains all commerce. Compare the capacity of this region with any other in the known world, for the productions of the farm; compare its facilities with that of any other, for the construction of railroads.

The average cost of British railroads has been \$157,000 a mile, and the investments yield 10 per cent. Ours would scarcely cost one-tenth of this amount. The Massachusetts railroads cost \$40,000 a mile. The Lowell Railroad, one of the best constructed and most profitable, cost \$73,000 a mile. They are all said to yield 8 per cent, at this time, and are improving. The Reading Railroad, in Pennsylvania, nearly 100 miles long, cost \$121,000 a mile. It is a profitable investment, and yet takes ordinary freight at less than one cent a mile a ton, and passengers at half a cent a mile.

A continuous railroad of suitable capacity, from St. Louis to the Ohio River, would not equal one-half the cost per mile of the Massachusetts railroads, nor one-fifth the cost of the most profitable railroad in Pennsylvania. The New York and Erie Railroad, of which only 57 miles were completed in 1845, yielded freight exceeding the amount of \$161,000, in that year; thus surpassing, in proportion to the distance run, the business of the Great Western Railroad, between Boston and Buffalo, the value of which is well understood. This fact may be considered as demonstrating the immediate availability of any complete section in our proposed line.

The main line of railroad to Buffalo, 326 miles in length, is owned by seven distinct corporations. It is described to be a fair investment, notwithstanding its restriction as to freight. There would be a manifest advantage in the projected line, to unite the whole under one direction.

The New York and Erie Railroad, now in progress, has a six foot width of track; the Great Western Railroad of England, running between London and Bristol, is gauged to seven feet, whilst the ordinary track on American railroads, is but four feet eight inches. There might be a decided advantage found in selecting a wider gauge. It would insure capacity and speed. And upon a trunk so important, which the lapse of a few years could scarcely fail to crowd to its utmost capacity, there would seem to be an evident propriety in embracing at once a completeness of execution, that might adapt it to all the service required. Considerations of this nature, cannot be weighed at too early a date. Less difficulty would be met with, and less partiality exhibited now, in relation to many important preliminary arrangements, than we could hope to escape when crowded upon the eve of action.

It may be asked, what assurance have we, after the charters are completed, that capital to accomplish this great work could be had? A good promise of support has been offered; but the character of such an investment affords in itself the only safe assurance of success.

The whole length from St. Louis to Pittsburgh or Wheeling, 600 miles, might be completed, upon the best construction, for the gross sum of \$12,000,000, or not to exceed \$20,000 a mile.* Compare this work, in all its magnitude and promise, with the Reading Railroad of Pennsylvania, 94 miles in length, which cost \$11,500,000.

* Through the State of Illinois, \$12,000 a mile would cover the estimated cost.

Independently of its paramount importance in connecting the Atlantic region with the heart of the great Valley of the Mississippi, the trade of the West within itself would constitute it a safe and profitable investment. It would immediately intersect the rivers, canals and railroads of Ohio and Indiana, and embrace an intimate connection with the trade of an extensive, populous and fertile region. But the commercial and miscellaneous intercourse with the Atlantic States, would place it at once far beyond all competition from any existing railroad. If constructed as it should be, and rendered inferior to none in speed and capacity, the journey from the Atlantic to the Mississippi could be safely accomplished in thirty-six hours; or in two days by day-light trains.

That this contemplated enterprise would prove a monopoly, we cannot be so short-sighted as to hope or desire. A route from Buffalo, along the shore of the lakes, to the Mississippi, is already contemplated; another line may soon be expected between us and the lakes; and another still, between us and the Ohio River. Yet there is room for all, nor need any enterprising citizen of the West, however located, entertain any fear but he will soon participate in the benefits arising from the general adoption of this new element of commercial intercourse.

Whilst it is evidently for the interest of the projectors, is it not for the interest of the whole West, that the first endeavor to connect the two great sections of the nation, should be made upon a central and commanding line? That this is one of the best routes for the enterprise, may readily be discovered by its position on the map of the United States. It was selected by able and impartial men as the route of the great Cumberland Road; that noble enterprise of the nation, which has been the victim of unexplained neglect. The selection has directed public attention to this point, and the importance and propriety of the choice is abundantly confirmed. To us this appears to be the most important route, and decidedly the most attractive to capitalists; but convince us that another is preferable, and our whole influence shall be cast at once in its favor. Such, let us hope, may be the feeling which pervades this convention, and the public at large—a disposition to unite their best efforts upon the strongest and most practicable route. This once successfully accomplished, and every ear of corn, and every acre of land in the West, however remotely situated, is immediately enhanced in value; and the unbounded capacity of our fertile States will at once extend the facility to every neighborhood. Begin upon what point it may, the first judicial and successful effort will be equivalent to opening new channels for the Mississippi—channels that will be safe from all peril, and which no vicissitude of season can obstruct. Many of us believe that an enterprise of this magnitude and importance, should be the work of the government, and accomplished for the benefit of the whole people. Unfortunately, however, the dispositions of public servants to misuse their trust, and the sinister influences that are invariably brought into action whenever a disbursement of the public money is to be made, compel us to forego altogether, or abandon to private efforts, a large class of useful enterprises, which the welfare of the public require. This great practical defect in our national and State policy, may hereafter be corrected by wiser constitutional provisions, or a better administration under such as we possess. Corporate power is, however, adequate to our immediate purpose; and liberal charters may be given, that will be safe and advantageous to the stockholder, whilst equally safe and useful to the

people. Nor can the stockholder, at whose sole cost and risk the work is done, reap any benefit from his outlay, but in proportion to his successful efforts to accommodate the public.

Notwithstanding some drawbacks to our progress, which appear to have originated altogether in misconception, there is no similar work of any magnitude in our country, which has been projected under more favorable auspices, or with a better prospect of an early and successful consummation.

It is a work intended for the especial benefit of no one locality, whether city, village, county, or even State; the whole West, and the whole nation, may claim it as their enterprise, and their property. It should be prosecuted in the liberal spirit which its character and importance demand, and when successfully accomplished, it must be acknowledged as the most magnificent enterprise of the age; connecting, by a direct and uninterrupted line, and by a transit the most rapid, economical and safe, that has been devised by man, the commercial wealth and enterprise of our great Atlantic marts with the most fertile and extensive agricultural region of the world.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

SUITS AGAINST ABSENTEES, OR RESIDENTS OF OTHER STATES—PRINCIPLES DECIDED.

1. There is no enactment of the legislature, or recognized principle of law, which authorizes a plaintiff, having a cause of action against an *absentee*, to bring him into court by causing a curator *ad hoc* to be appointed to represent him.
2. The Article 57 of the Civil Code, pre-supposes that the absentee has property in the State, which of itself would give a court jurisdiction, or that a suit be instituted against him.
3. The law only authorizes the appointment of a curator *ad hoc*, in suits which may be lawfully instituted against the absentee, which are pending before the judge who is called upon to make the appointment, but confers no power to bring absentees [persons residing out of the State] into court, on the simple demand of a creditor. [This case overrules the decision of *George vs. Fitzgerald*, 12 La. Reports, 604, and others, decided on the same principle.]
- [4. If the absentee leave his property without an administrator or agent; if it be attached at the suit of a curator; or if an absentee become a necessary party to a suit between other persons lawfully in court, in the furtherance of justice, the law authorizes a curator *ad hoc* to be appointed to represent him.]
5. In the case of *C. Gibson's Curator vs. J. B. Bemiss*, lately decided, and here referred to, it is held, that a foreign creditor may institute suit in the United States Court against a succession, under administration in the Probate Court of the State, and seize and sell the property without its intervention or control; in other words, that the jurisdiction of the United States Courts extends to all cases of law and equity, between the person litigating before them, and which they exercise concurrently with the State courts, in all cases. These decisions *overrule* the cases of *Lowry, Curator, etc., vs. Erwin*, 6 Robinson, 192; and *Collier vs. Stambrouch, idem* 230, which were decided by the late Supreme Court.

In the Supreme Court, (Louisiana,) May 24th, 1847. *Gibson's Curator vs. William Hunt and A. S. Robertson*, late United States Marshal of Louisiana.*

* This important decision was originally published in the *Commercial Bulletin*, having been prepared, in connection with a similar case, for that journal, by a legal correspondent. In publishing it, the editors of the Bulletin remark:—

“They *overrule* several adjudged cases of the late court, and establish new, or different doctrines and principles. They relate to judgments rendered by attachment, and to suits against *absentees*, by the appointment of curators *ad hoc*. In the former, it is settled, that

In this suit, the curator of the vacant estate of Claudius Gibson, deceased, sues to recover certain slaves, and damages for their hire and detention, which were sold by Robertson, as United States Marshal, under an order of seizure and sale, granted and issued by the Fifth Circuit Court of the United States for Louisiana, against the succession of said Gibson, while under administration in the Probate Court of the parish of Carroll, and purchased by defendant Hunt, who then and now resides in Mississippi.

EUSKIS, Ch. J.—Process was served on the *curator ad hoc* appointed to represent Hunt, who, in his capacity of *curator ad hoc*, only, appeared and prayed that the suit might be transferred to the Circuit Court of the United States for this district, Hunt being a citizen and resident of Mississippi. It was objected to this application, that the removal of the cause could not be ordered at the instance of a *curator ad hoc*, merely; the application was disallowed. The *curator ad hoc* then pleaded formally to the jurisdiction of the court; neither the person or property of Hunt having been reached by its process, he being a citizen and inhabitant of Mississippi, and having no residence or domicile in Louisiana. The plea was overruled, and the questions involved in it have been argued on the appeal.

The questions presented, relate to the power of the court to bring Hunt before it, or into court, for the purpose of judgment against him on the appointment of a *curator ad hoc*.

We have not been successful in finding any enactment of the legislature, or recognized principle of law, which authorizes a plaintiff, who has a cause of action against an absentee, to bring him before our courts, by causing a *curator ad hoc* to be appointed to represent him.

Conceding that the Article 57 of the Code, under the term *absentee*, applies to persons who have never resided in the State, that article pre-supposes that the absentee has property in the State, which would of itself give a court jurisdiction, or that a suit be instituted against him. In our opinion, it only authorizes the appointment of a *curator ad hoc*, in suits which may lawfully be instituted against the absentee which are pending before the judge who is called on to make the appointment, but confers no power to bring absentees into court, on the simple demand of a creditor. If the absentee leave his property without an administrator, or agent; if it be attached at the suit of a creditor; if an absentee becomes a necessary party to a suit between other persons lawfully in court, in furtherance of justice, the law authorizes a *curator ad hoc* to be appointed to represent him. There is then something on which the jurisdiction of the court is based; and the judgment rendered, would be within the recognized and ordinary prerogatives of the judicial power.

But, that a court in Louisiana should render a judgment against a citizen of London or New York, who had never set his feet in the State, or had property within it, and was entirely unconnected with any pending or possible litigation, and on a simple matter between himself and his creditors, appears to us to conflict with all sound views of the administration of justice. What effect would be given to a judgment rendered in such a case, in the other courts of the Union? Can we expect that other States will recognize for an instant, an infringement in the exclusive jurisdiction and right of protection, which they have over their own citizens and property within their own limits? Nor do we think that the intentment of the Article 57 of the Code, is changed by the Article 116 of the Code of Practice. The several articles of that code, concerning the appointment of *curators ad hoc* to persons, pre-suppose something upon which the jurisdiction of the court can properly be based, (Articles 194, 195, 924, 963, 964, Code of Practice.) They must all be taken together, and construed with reference to, and further—

a judgment has no effect beyond the value and amount of the property attached. The defendant is brought into court by his property, and then, only to the extent of its value. If the debt or claim exceeds this, no valid judgment can be rendered for the excess. The proceeding is purely *in rem*, and not in *personam*. In the latter case, a resident of another State, who has never resided here, and has no pecuniary interest or property in this State, cannot be sued here, by the appointment of a *curator ad hoc* to represent him, as has heretofore been done."

ance of, the provisions of the Civil Code, and not as creating what would be an anomaly in legislation.

We think the plea to the jurisdiction of the court, made by the *curator ad hoc* of Wm. Hunt, ought to have been sustained.

Robertson justifies his acts complained of in the plaintiff's petition, as done by him in his capacity of Marshal of the United States, under certain orders and decrees of the Circuit Court of the United States, for the Fifth Judicial Circuit and District of Louisiana, which he was bound to execute.

The material facts of the case are stated in the opinion of the court, recently delivered, in the case of this "Plaintiff vs. J. B. Bemiss, No. 771."

It is, therefore, obvious, on the principles we have settled in Bemiss's case, that the plaintiff, curator of the estate of Claudius Gibson, has no recourse in damages against the officers executing the decree of the Court of the United States, etc.

The judgment in favor of Robertson is, therefore, affirmed, with costs in both courts. The suit against Hunt is dismissed at the costs of the plaintiff.

SUIT UPON AN AVERAGE BOND.

A. C. L. Hartwell, for the use of steamboat *Champion*, vs. Edgar Mulford & Co. In the First District Court of New Orleans, 1847.

This was a suit brought by the plaintiff, merchant of New Orleans, agent for the steamboat *Champion*, against the defendants, consignees at New Orleans, upon an average bond.

The bond recited that the *Champion*, having on board a cargo of merchandise, departed from Cincinnati on the 22d of December, 1846, and on the 26th of the same month, while in the due prosecution of her trip, got upon a bank, in the Mississippi river, where, being in peril, as well the boat as her cargo, it became necessary to procure the aid of two steamers, a flat-boat, extra hands, &c., to discharge all the cargo, land it on the river bank, store a portion, and pile up the remainder, by which means certain losses and expenses have been incurred, which, according to the usage of this port of New Orleans, constitute a general average to be apportioned on the said boat, her earnings as freight, and the cargo on board. Then follow the covenants of the defendants, who, with many other consignees of the *Champion*, all sign the bond, binding themselves to A. C. L. Hartwell, merchant, that the losses, &c., shall be paid by them to him: provided, such losses and expenses aforementioned, be stated and apportioned by Thomas N. Cazneau, Esq., adjuster of averages, in accordance with the established customs and laws in similar cases.

This bond is dated the 11th January, 1847. The plaintiff's petition set forth the circumstances under which the *Champion* was grounded, averred that the defendants were liable upon their bond in the sum of \$198 38—that the statement and apportionment had been made by Mr. Cazneau, in accordance with the conditions of the bond, and in accordance with law and custom. The bond itself was filed and made a part of the petition; and the statement of general average was filed for reference, by which it appeared that the sum claimed in the petition had been apportioned to the defendants as due from them in contribution.

The answer of the defendants admitted that there were consignees of the *Champion*, admitted their signature to the bond, but denied generally any liability under the stipulations of the instrument, and especially denied that the adjustment, or any part of it, was made in accordance with the established customs and laws in similar cases, and especial objections were made to the charge of "one thousand dollars, amount allowed the *Uncle Sam* steamboat, for proceeding to the *Champion* to take in cargo, and then transport it to New Orleans." Also, 2nd, to the wages of captain and crew; 3d, to provisions of crew; 4th, to commissions for advancing fund; 5th, to charges paid for services rendered by boats to *Champion*.

It appears by the record that the charge of \$1,000 paid the steamboat *Uncle Sam*, had already, and before this suit was brought, been referred to two gentlemen of the New Orleans bar, and testimony was introduced to show that this reference was made known to the defendants, and that no objection was offered to it at the time, on their part; still, as a tacit consent only was given, it will be well

to review the decision which the referees made, and we best get the facts of the case from the papers connected with this arbitration. We copy the statement agreed upon and submitted to the referees:—

“The steamboat *Champion*, on her trip from Cincinnati for New Orleans, got on a bank or bar, below Randolph, in the Mississippi river, on the Arkansas side, and for the general benefit, her master hired steamers, flat-boat, and extra help; discharged her cargo, and the boat and cargo being in peril, piled it upon the river bank. After the entire discharge of the cargo, the boat still lay fast on the bank, and could not be floated off. Finding there was no immediate prospect of getting his boat afloat, the master of the *Champion* proceeded to Memphis to procure transportation for the cargo, in preference to permitting it to remain on the bank, awaiting the floating of the *Champion*. At Memphis, transportation could not be secured, and the master finally came to New Orleans, and hired the steamboat *Uncle Sam* to proceed to the point of disaster, take the cargo, and deliver it at New Orleans, agreeing to allow the sum of \$2,000 for the performance of these services. Under this agreement the *Uncle Sam* left New Orleans, and on arriving near the *Champion*, found that she had floated, owing to a sudden and unexpected rise in the river, and that her cargo had been replaced on board. The captain of the *Champion* and the captain of the *Uncle Sam*, in view of this change in the state of affairs, produced by the said rise in the river, mutually agreed that the *Champion* should pay the *Uncle Sam* \$1,000 only, in full satisfaction and discharge of the original agreement. The *Champion* arrived at New Orleans, and there delivered her cargo.

“The charges and expenses incident to the unloading and reloading when near Randolph, the damage and loss of cargo by the forced discharge and exposure, and the amount paid the *Uncle Sam*, have been stated as general average, and by the master of the *Champion* claimed of the different parties interested in cargo, boat and freight.

“The sum paid the *Uncle Sam* is disputed as being correctly charged in general average, and claimed to be a special charge on the freight.

“The referees are asked to decide what interest or interests shall pay the amount due the *Uncle Sam*.

“And it is hereby agreed by and between Messrs. Pickett, Perkins & Co., consignees of a certain shipment of cotton by steamboat *Champion*, and Charles C. Sackett, clerk of said boat, for himself, the master and owners of said boat—that the question, as to what interests must bear the charge of \$1,000 paid the steamboat *Uncle Sam* by the master of the *Champion*, as set forth in this statement of facts, shall be submitted to J. P. Benjamin and Wheelock S. Upton, Esqrs., who shall decide the same, and whose decision shall be final. And for the performance, &c., &c.”

[Signed]
[Signed]

PICKETT, PERKINS & Co.,
CHAS. C. SACKETT,
for steamboat *Champion* and owners.

New Orleans, 29th January, 1847.

A very elaborate report was made by the lawyers named as referees, and great care and attention were evidently given to the facts, and the law touching thereon. It is filed in the suit, and is part of the record. We will copy only the decreetal part. “Under the statement of facts agreed on by the parties, and the affidavit of the clerk of the boat, showing that the cargo was in danger on the bank of the river, and that the procuring of another boat was necessary, not merely as a means of transportation, but for the safety and preservation of the property, we are of opinion that the charge for the *Uncle Sam* is properly stated in the adjustment as a general average.”

[Signed]
[Signed]

J. P. BENJAMIN,
WHEELOCK S. UPTON.

New Orleans, February 4, 1847.

The next objection made, is to the wages of captain and crew. The counsel for the defendants read many cases to the Court, going to show that where the

voyage is broken up, wages of the crew cease, for that the original contract under shipping articles is dissolved. Of this there can be no doubt, but these cases the counsel for the plaintiff declared to be in no manner applicable to the statement under consideration, and not to be of the slightest authority upon the question here at issue. It was upon the objections made to the charge of wages of captain and crew, that the defendants laid most stress, and as it is really important to have the dispute settled, let us examine it fully and carefully.

Independent of the agreed statement made to the referees, the fact is, as clearly proved by the testimony of Mr. Sackett, the very intelligent clerk of the Champion, that the boat got ashore by one of those unavoidable accidents peculiarly incident to the navigation of the Mississippi river. She was approaching a well-known and frequented wood-yard, for the purpose of taking in wood, and when within about sixty feet from the shore, was stopped by a sand-bar, upon which she fast stuck, and from off which neither her own engine, nor the united efforts of two other steamboats could force her. This bar, it appeared, had been lately formed—perhaps within a week. No charge of imprudence or want of skill could be justly attributed to the most prudent captain, for having gotten his boat aground under such circumstances. Being aground, and all possible efforts there within reach having been unsuccessfully made for the floating of the boat, fears began to be entertained that, as the river was very rapidly falling, the boat might be broken in two, or thrown upon her side, and with boat and cargo be greatly damaged, perhaps lost. It was necessary to unlade the cargo, both for its own preservation, and for the safety of the boat. The expenses of unloading, being for the common benefit of vessel and cargo, were unquestionably properly imputed to general average. The captain and crew, and all the extra hands which could be hired, were employed in this labor, and it appears did it well and effectively. Now, the counsel for the plaintiff argues, and with great reason, that the captain and crew of the Champion, doing duty for the preservation of boat and cargo, are entitled to a reasonable compensation in the nature of wages, *pro opera et labore*. And why not? It is well understood that when a vessel, freight and cargo, are lost, before the termination of a voyage, the wages of the seamen are also lost, and the original contract is annulled; but when a portion of the vessel or cargo is saved, by the meritorious exertions of the seamen, a new lien arises thereon for their wages, although the freight is lost, and the original contract is annulled. *Adams, et al., vs. The Sophia*, Gilpin's Rep., 77, and the case in 12 Mass. Rep., *Arfridson vs. Ladd*, p. 173, is peculiarly in point. It is there laid down by the Court, that "although the master be entitled to nothing *quasi* wages, after the capture of the ship, yet if he remain to claim the property for the benefit of the owners, and incur expenses on that account, he may recover in *indebitatus assumpsit* an indemnity against the owners of the property." In this case a judgment was rendered in favor of the captain, and the sum was in the amount of what his wages would have been, at the same rate as had been paid before the capture.

In the nature of a *quantum meruit*, for services performed, why not rate the captain in the same sum which has heretofore been paid him for his services, and the men according to the contracts they have made for their labor, or according to the wages usually paid them?

It appears that the charge in general average of wages of captain and crew for services performed, as they were here performed, is by no means novel. It has been usual with Mr. Cazneau so to make his adjustments, and as an adjuster of averages, he is of great experience, and of high reputation for skill and ability in his vocation.

Several witnesses tell the Court that the charge "is in accordance with the usage" in New Orleans—and one, himself an average adjuster, says that of late he has not made this charge in his statements, because of some objections on the part of the Insurance Companies, but yet he thinks the charge as made by Mr. Cazneau right, and if left to his own (the witness's) notions of what was just and correct, he should charge as is here charged. It appears, also, that the bond sued on was signed by upwards of thirty persons, and among them we see the names of many of our most distinguished merchants, and these defendants and one other

firm, are the only ones in the list, who have made objection to the adjustment—all the others have paid.

Under the testimony, the charge is made to appear as a customary and usual one, acquiesced in by discriminating and prudent merchants, and in reason and good policy; should stand undisturbed.

The objections made to the charges paid for services rendered the *Champion*, by the steamboats *Star Spangled Banner* and *Harry Bluff*, were not well made. These boats tugged at the *Champion*, to get her off the bar, while yet her cargo was on board, and of course, cargo, boat and freight contribute; and the charge in general average, as Mr. Cazneau made it, is undoubtedly correct.

The other objections were not sustained, and after deliberating, the Court made the following decree:—

“Considering the arguments of counsel, the evidence, and the bond signed by the defendants, the Court is of the opinion that the plaintiff has made out his case. It is therefore ordered, adjudged, and decreed, that the plaintiff recover from the defendants, the sum of \$193 38, and costs of suit.”

Mr. Upton, for plaintiffs; Mr. Hunton, for defendants.

LAW OF PATENTS—BILL IN EQUITY.

In the United States District Court, (Boston, Massachusetts,) before Judge Woodbury. *Joshua Nesmith and another v. Francis A. Calvert and others.*

This was a bill in equity, brought by Joshua Nesmith and Joseph W. Mansur, of Lowell, against Francis A. Calvert, of Paterson, New Jersey, Alexander Wright, of Lowell, Peter Lawson, of Dracut, and Ziba Gay, of Nashau, N. H. It alleged, that about February 15, 1841, Francis A. Calvert had invented a machine for picking and cleaning wool and cotton, in which he was contemplating improvements, and for which he was preparing to take out a patent. That Nesmith and Mansur, with Royal Southwick and Wm. W. Calvert, agreed with Francis that he should go on and mature his invention, take out a patent, and assign the same to them, so far as related to cleaning and burring wool. That on the 15th of February, he executed a deed of assignment to them, which was recorded in the patent office on the 25th. That by this instrument he covenanted to use due diligence in maturing his invention, and taking out a patent, and then to assign the same to them, so far as related to wool, and to no other persons. That Southwick and Wm. W. Calvert afterwards assigned their interest to the complainants. That Francis A. took out his patent about November 25, 1841. That about June 30, 1843, he obtained another patent for additional improvements in cleaning wool, which improvements were those contemplated in his deed, and embraced in its grants and covenants; and that the complainants were entitled to a transfer of them, so far as they related to wool. That Calvert combined with the defendants and others, and neglected and refused to make such transfer; and had used, and allowed others to use those machines, and had sold them to the other defendants, and had derived great advantage from them.

The bill prayed for answers to certain interrogatories,—for a specific performance of the agreement,—for an account of the machines made by Calvert and the other defendants,—and for an injunction against the further use of the patents so far as they related to wool.

The joint and several answer of the defendants, admitted the inventions, and the agreement to assign the first of them; but denied that the agreement extended to the second, or that the improvements of the latter were contemplated in the agreement. It also denied any use of the first invention by himself, or others under him. It further alleged a conveyance by Calvert of the first patent to the complainants on the 14th of October, 1841, and his readiness to execute any other deed of the same if requested. It denies any connection between the two inventions, any contemplation of the second, when the agreement was made, and the first patent taken out, any profit from either beyond an indemnity for experience, or any right or interest in the complainants in or to the last patent. The defendants admit that they have made or are making several of the machines included in the last patent.

WOODBURY, J., delivered the opinion of the Court. There was a preliminary objection to the jurisdiction of the Court, which must first be considered, although not made till the argument. The objection was, that the matter in dispute did not arise under the patent law itself, but under a contract to transfer a patent, afterwards to be obtained. The Court were inclined to think this objection well-founded. Still, it did not impair the jurisdiction as against Calvert, as he belonged to a different State from the complainants. As his interests were capable of being severed from those of the other respondents, the bill against him would give the Court jurisdiction. The same rule would apply to Gay, who lived in New Hampshire. But the objection was probably too late to operate in favor of either of the respondents, not being made till after the answers, the replications, and the publication of the evidence. There appeared also to be a ground for jurisdiction against all the respondents, so far as regarded the prayer for an injunction, on account of the subject matter. Under these considerations, the objection must be overruled.

The question then recurred upon the merits. The chief inquiry would be, was the original agreement between the parties intended to include anything not actually embraced in the first patent? This was resolved into two subordinate questions; first, did the contract look beyond the first patent, and was it intended to include more? and second, if not so, was some further improvement known, and contemplated at the time of the first patent, but withheld and suppressed, and afterwards introduced into the second patent? In either of these cases, the complainants were entitled to the benefit of the improvement, but not otherwise.

The complainants were manufacturers of woollens, and anxious to obtain possession and control of all the inventions for cleaning wool. Calvert was an ingenious machinist, and was supposed to be making great improvements. By the first agreement, he was to receive one-fourth of the profits from the use of his improvement, but by his deed of October 14, 1841, he transferred all his right, for the gross sum of \$1,000. In this conveyance, he transferred his right to his improvement, "to have and to hold the same," &c., "and all my improvements in machines for burring wool, and all my right to any letters patent, which may be obtained for the same." Calvert was at that time in embarrassed circumstances, and the complainants relieved him by the advances then made. Such engagements, for the real benefit of inventors, as well as the public, ought to be construed liberally, when they tend to enable the inventors to continue their efforts for improvement.

But it was not necessary to decide the first of these two points; as the Court were satisfied from the evidence, that the balance of the testimony was in favor of the fact that Calvert, before maturing his improvements, and taking out his patent in 1841, had in contemplation, and had considered the further improvement patented in 1843. It was not averred, nor was it necessary to infer, that he did this fraudulently. But that the principle of it had occurred to him in 1841, and had been in some degree tested, was clear, notwithstanding his denial, if credit was to be given to the witnesses. The difference between the two machines consisted chiefly in this, that the first had the angular tooth-guard, and the second dispensed with it, by using a receiver beneath, and bringing the saw cylinder nearer to the fine-toothed comb cylinder. One witness testified that the idea of dispensing with the tooth-guard, had been discussed by Calvert, previous to his contract with the complainants. Another witness testified to experiments made by Calvert and himself,—showing that the guard could be dispensed with, in April, 1842. This was carrying out his former idea, to its development. The Court could see no just reason why this further development of ideas entertained in 1841, on the same subject, should not be considered as assigned and granted to the complainants, as was stipulated, in February as well as in October, 1841, in terms covering at least all improvements then contemplated.

It was not necessary to examine in detail the question, whether a demand should be made for a conveyance, before Calvert would be bound to convey. He must be considered as having covenanted unconditionally to transfer the patents, when obtained. He had long since received the consideration, and he now absolutely refused to assign or grant the use of the patent of 1843. This was a neglect of duty, and a violation of his contract, sufficient to sustain the bill.

The Court, therefore, thought the prayers in the bill against Calvert ought to be granted, and the use of both patents, so far as related to cleaning wool, ought to be assigned to the complainants, conferring on them an exclusive license to use both patents for that purpose. An injunction should also issue to all the respondents, as all had interfered in making, using or vending these machines, to do so no more for cleaning wool; and they should be ordered to render an account of whatever had hitherto been received for the same, beyond the expenses incurred.

ASSIGNMENT BY AN INSOLVENT DEBTOR, AT COMMON LAW, FOR THE BENEFIT OF HIS CREDITORS—ATTACHMENT BY TRUSTEE PROCESS OF FUNDS IN THE HANDS OF AN ASSIGNEE—INSOLVENT LAW.

In the Circuit Court of the United States, Massachusetts District, April, 1847, at Boston. *Franklin Adams & Co. v. Joseph F. Blodgett and Wells and Libby, Trustees.*

The question in this case was, whether Libby, one of the trustees, was chargeable on his answer. It appeared that Blodgett, finding himself in failing circumstances, called a meeting of his creditors, and proposed to give up all his property, (the principal part of which was in Maine,) to be equally divided, not asking to be discharged, but promising to pay the balance when able. Libby, at the request of some of the creditors, proceeded to Maine, and had received several hundred dollars, when the plaintiffs, who reside out of the State, and were not at the meeting of the creditors, commenced this suit, and summoned Libby as a trustee of the defendant. The creditors who assented to the arrangement, had claims to a larger amount than what had been collected by Libby.*

WOODBURY, J., in deciding the case, made the following points:—1. It seems, that if the creditors of a failing debtor meet and agree to take an assignment of all his property towards paying the debts of all, and to have him continue responsible for any balance, and this is carried into effect by taking such assignment and possession of the property, it is valid against one of the creditors, who was not present, and brings a trustee process against the agent of the creditors, who has charge of the property. The consideration is good, on account of the trust or contract, and the presumed assent of those creditors not expressly dissenting. But here it was clearly good, as the creditors actually assenting had claims exceeding in value all the property assigned. 2. A conveyance to a portion of one's creditors, for a full consideration, is valid at common law, and *a fortiori* a conveyance to all of them. Such encouragement, the debtor agreeing still to be liable for the balance, is better for them than the insolvent law; and cannot be considered a fraud upon it. The insolvent laws have repealed the act of 1836, in Massachusetts, as to preferring creditors, but do not abrogate all conveyances like this at common law. 3. It seems that the present creditor can now come in and obtain his *pro rata* share of the property assigned for the benefit of all, or can, for the usual reasons, have the case put into insolvency under the statute, and the property thus distributed. But the proceedings already had, are valid until this is done.

The plaintiffs then moved that Libby be charged for the amount in his hands that would belong to them on a *pro rata* division of the estate; and the case was continued, to enable them to ascertain how much this would amount to.

PROMISSORY NOTE—ACTION BY PARTY NOT INTERESTED IN THE NOTE.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of the State of Maine, Judge Tenney presiding. *Robert P. Dunlap v. John D. Buzzell.*

This action was brought on a note of hand, by the plaintiff, as endorsee. It appeared that the plaintiff had no interest in the note; that at the request of the owner, he had consented that the action should be brought in his name. TENNEY, J., delivered the opinion. It was held that this formed no ground of defence to the maker.

* Boston Law Reporter.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

REVIEW OF THE AFFAIRS OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND, FROM 1697 TO THE PRESENT TIME—IMPORTANT PERIOD IN FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL HISTORY—PROSPECT OF A CRISIS IN ENGLAND—ITS BEARING UPON THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—INCOME OF THE PUBLIC WORKS OF PENNSYLVANIA AND NEW YORK—DEBTS OF ILLINOIS, INDIANA, ETC.—THE TRUSTEES OF THE BONDHOLDERS—WABASH AND ERIE CANAL STOCK—PRICES OF STATE STOCKS IN NEW YORK, FIRST WEEK IN EACH MONTH—OPERATION OF THE NEW FINANCIAL SYSTEM IN MEXICO, ETC.

THE year 1847 will be remembered as one of the most important in financial and commercial history. The course of commerce, which, in former centuries, had comparatively a steady flow, has, since the declaration of American independence, been visited by frequently recurring revulsions; each succeeding one of more intensity than those which preceded it. The Bank of England stood one hundred years, up to 1797; and in that time its solvency was twice jeopardized. In 1697, soon after its incorporation, a general re-coinage of the money of the realm caused such a demand for coin, that the bank suspended; and in 1797, (just one hundred years,) the events of the French war caused it again to suspend. In the course of that century, insolvency had been once imminent. That was caused by the rebellion of 1745, and the advance of the Pretender to Derby, which produced a panic; and the institution, to gain time, paid out sixpences for notes. The current of business, throughout the eighteenth century, seemed to run regularly. England commanded most of the trade of the world; her shipping carried most of the goods; and prices in England were such as to afford large and almost certain profits to the merchant. Time was not much of an object, as prices did not fluctuate materially;—if a cargo arrived a month or two sooner or later, the result was nearly the same. Great Britain, with less than half its present inhabitants, raised a surplus of grains, and its colonies were tributary to its wealth. It had little rivalry among the degraded nations of Europe; while the influx of the precious metals from America continually enhanced the supply of currency, and gradually raised prices. In all this, there was nothing to disturb commerce, or throw it out of its usual channels; and war after war was declared, waged, and concluded, without commerce being in consequence much disturbed. With the independence of the United States, a new era commenced. A rival commercial power sprang into existence, followed by the great struggle of France for constitutional government. The aristocracy of England entered into that struggle, apparently determined to sink or swim with legitimate governments. It staked its existence on the restoration of the Bourbon race to the throne of France, and is now about to reap the bitter fruits of that iniquitous conduct. The Bank of England, in February, 1797, was drained of specie to a sum less than £1,000,000. On the 21st of that month, Bosanquet and Thornton, a director and governor of the bank, waited on Mr. Pitt, and asked to be "restrained from paying specie." He advised sending Goldschmidt to Amsterdam to buy gold, and was told that it was too late. On Saturday, the bank held out until the usual hours, and closed its doors, exhausted and broken. On Sunday, an order in council was signed, ordering the institution to pay no more specie, for "great state reasons." On Monday,

the order in council appeared on the door of the bank, with a notice that payment would be resumed in *fifty-three days*—it took place in *twenty-two years*. Messrs. Pitt, Bosanquet, and Thornton, solemnly asseverated that the bank was “able and willing to pay,” but that it was “restrained,” for great state reasons. The government agents then procured a meeting of merchants to declare that they would receive the dishonored notes in payment, as usual. Parliament then passed a law to exempt from arrest any person who tendered bank-notes for a debt, leaving the creditor to recover gold by a suit at law. Soon after, it declared severe punishment to any one who sold sovereigns for more than 20s. each, in paper. It then abolished suits to recover gold; then made it death to *utter* forged notes, and two hundred and seven persons were hanged for this constructive offence. All this did not prevent the notes from falling to a discount of 41 per cent, and the government contracted £600,000,000 of debt, at £100 stock for £50 money, taking pay in this depreciated paper. In 1819, a bill passed (“Peel’s bill”) to resume in 1822, and it was carried into effect. The effect of this was to more than double the actual value of stocks, and one of the wildest of speculations took place, resulting in a revulsion which brought the bank to the verge of insolvency, and (as Mr. Huskisson expressed it) “the country to within twenty-four hours of a state of barter; or, in other words, to a total subversion of all credits.” The discovery of a box of £1 notes turned the tide. The fortunes of Great Britain hung upon a paltry box of printed paper, long before thrown in the cellar as worthless. Political agitation, in 1832, on the reform bill, again involved the ruin of the bank. A drain of £2,000,000 per day was stopped only by the resignation of the Duke of Wellington. In all this time, the consumption of food in Great Britain had been gradually exceeding the home supplies; and the speculations of 1835–6, which had acted adversely upon exchanges, exposed the bank to the difficulties which scantiness of harvests began to inflict upon England with increasing severity. The result was another virtual suspension in the fall of 1839, saved only by a loan of money from the Bank of France. From 1839 down to 1846, the harvests of England were good, though no longer sufficient to feed the British islands without aid from abroad; yet economy and industry had combined to cause capital to accumulate in England.

Capital available to purposes of business, consists of commodities almost altogether; and these commodities are more or less abundant as the productions of national industry exceed the general consumption. When the agriculturists succeed in raising as much food as will supply all the inhabitants, there is no occasion for importing any. If raw materials are at the same time abundant, the production of goods will be great and cheap. The quantities exported will be large, and the returns proportionate, both in the shape of specie and foreign and colonial produce. At the end of such a year, “capital” will be abundant; the stocks of food in granaries good; warehouses well supplied with goods and produce; the circulation full, and the stock of specie in bank ample. In such a state of affairs, money will be very abundant, and interest low; capital of all kinds will be easily commanded on credits. This was nearly the case in Great Britain, in the beginning of 1846. The combined events of that disastrous year have swept away her capital, and she evinces approaching exhaustion. When capital began to accumulate in England after the disasters of 1839, the means of investment presented a problem; and the rate of interest ran down to

1 a 1½ per cent per annum. Of the twenty-eight foreign loans contracted during the speculations of 1825, sixteen had never paid interest. Even the States of America had failed to pay, and foreign credit was at a discount. Of the infinite variety of joint stock companies then projected, railroads had alone presented any degree of success, and they had been very profitable. Hence, these became the basis of new operations, that have been carried to an inordinate extent. The capital authorized to be invested there has exceeded £100,000,000 sterling, and in 1846 near 500,000 persons were employed in their construction. The effect of this employment of so large a population (double that employed in the cotton trade) in the new business of constructing roads, was, to promote the consumption of an extraordinary quantity of commodities. Those persons were withdrawn from other employments, where their labor was directed to the production of commodities or exchangeable values, and in the prosecution of which their wages were small, and the quantity of commodities they consumed moderate. The high wages paid them by railroads enabled them to enjoy more extensively both imported and domestic articles, and the consumption of food and produce was at a greater rate per head than ever, while the production was less. An amount of floating capital equal to £30,000,000, was put into railroads, and the stocks of commodities diminished to that extent. The failure of the Irish crops, and partially those of England, diminished capital by £30,000,000 more. The scarcity of raw materials (sheeps' wool and cotton, chiefly,) took £10,000,000 more from capital in merchandise, and the year 1846 closed with a diminution of £70,000,000 in England's cash capital. The year 1847 opened with an aggravation of all those causes, promoting a still further diminution of capital. The railroad calls for this year are already £30,000,000, and the works in full operation. Of 1,100 mills in Lancashire, 750 are working short time, and stopped. Of 223,000 hands, 23,000 are thrown out of employ, and 100,000 earn diminished wages. The consumption of cotton has sunk from 32,000 bales to 20,000 per week, and Ireland presents little prospect of raising her own food this year. With the fact of very low stocks of goods and produce, there exists the prospect of diminished exports, and the certainty of very large requirements of foreign food, estimated at over £30,000,000. This is to be procured by the disbursement of the remaining capital which exists in specie—£9,000,000 in bank, and £30,000,000 estimated in circulation. This is an appalling situation, more particularly when France is better situated only from the fact that her stock of specie is larger. In this state of affairs, it is no wonder that Parliament exhibits such consternation among statesmen, and the firmest lose apparently their balance. When such men as Lord Ashburton hint at the expediency of prohibiting the export of corn, the British government must surely be at its "wits' end."

Should the next harvest be abundant and early, and the railroad expenditure cease, the crisis may pass; but the hope of that is small. It has been proposed, in one quarter, as the only means of meeting the emergency, to allow the bank to issue £1 notes to the extent of £30,000,000, with the view that they may pass rapidly into circulation, and, by supplanting gold, send it into the bank to be made available in the purchase of corn. Did credit remain so far unshaken as to render this operation practicable, it is at best but a temporary expedient. Should the present state of affairs extend over another year, when the gold shall have been extracted from circulation, and spent, where, then, will be the necessary capital? A stoppage of the bank is felt to be the ruin of the paper system; and it is not

to be disguised that a large party look forward to the event as a blessing, inasmuch as, through it, the whole debt will be repudiated. This repudiation has for thirty years been advocated, under four forms:—

1st. Prompt and entire repudiation, and reduction of taxes to one-fifth.

2d. Alteration of the standard—making two sovereigns into one.

3d. A repeal of “Peel’s bill,” or a return to inconvertible paper money.

4th. The above plan of issuing £1 notes, which is a modification of the third proposition.

The late William Cobbett predicted, in 1815, repudiation, as the inevitable result of a long general peace; and all the opponents of “Peel’s bill” based their enmity to it on the ground that, by it, the stockholders were enriched at the expense of the nation; and, certainly, it has had that effect—although, between it and repudiation, there was no alternative.

Were the United States connected with Europe, as in former years, by outstanding credits, ruin would have been inevitable; but at present the distress of Europe grows out of the transfer of her floating capital hither, under the imperative demands of hunger. Up to the next harvest, at least, must the purchases of England be large; and, the prospect is, mostly for specie. Lord Brougham stated, in Parliament, that mills, with large orders from the United States for goods, were compelled to shut up shop and discharge hands for want of money to pay them. The orders from the United States, for goods, were unusually large, and sent out early; but how far circumstances, such as those alluded to, will prevent their fulfilment, is a question. In usual years, it is the case, that, in seasons of distress, goods are sent in large quantities on which to raise money. Inasmuch, however, as that the imports of raw materials into England were small, the manufacture less than usual, and stocks light, this may not be carried on to so great an extent as expected. Neither do American stocks come here for sale, notwithstanding their great rise here; on the other hand, they seem to increase in favor on the other side. Three per cent consols, in four months, fell 10 per cent—a fall by no means participated in by American securities in London; on the other hand, the fearful nature of the approaching crisis seemed rather to make them rise in favor as consols sank in price. It is not to be disguised that, in face of the growing opposition to the existing debt, the government has been obliged to add £8,000,000 to it for the relief of distressed Ireland. The loan was taken at 87½, and has since fallen below that. It was also the case that the exchequer bills were at a discount, and £9,000,000 fell due May 21, leaving the Chancellor one of three alternatives: 1. To pay off; 2. To raise the interest; 3. To fund the whole. The first was impossible, the second inexpedient, and the third was adopted; but although the interest was raised to 4½ per cent per annum, the bills did not rise over par, and the ultimate necessity of funding them, adding £17,000,000, including the Irish debt, to the national burden in a single year, in face of the hazards of a return to irredeemable paper, is apprehended.

In such a state of affairs, the debts of those American States which are reaping the benefits of England’s distress, are not to be sacrificed at low rates. Indeed, the measures adopted by Michigan, Indiana, and Illinois, in regard to their debts, in connection with their public works, added to the general prosperity of the agricultural interests, are rapidly restoring credit. As an indication of the benefits which States derive from the movements of produce, we

annex a table of the income of the public works of Pennsylvania and New York:—

	1846.	1847.	Increase.
Pennsylvania, November to June 1st.....	\$399,883	\$628,362	\$228,478
New York, opening of navigation to June 1st.....	598,760	709,697	110,937
Total.....	\$998,643	\$1,338,059	\$339,415

The tolls for New York canals, 1846, were for forty-six days, and in 1847, thirty-one days only. The taxes of Pennsylvania have been barely sufficient to meet the \$2,000,000 interest she owes annually. The large revenue of the present year will amply make up the deficit, and afford something to return relief notes. The Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan tolls, show similar results. The works of the last-mentioned State, have, however, passed into the hands of private companies, in exchange for the State's liabilities. The general prosperity will insure the payment of the necessary taxes to discharge the acknowledged debt. The revenues of the Ohio works are such as to swell the amount applicable to the interest, and make the payment more easy. The State of Illinois will soon be in a state of good credit, through the operation of her great canal. It will be remembered by our readers, that the canal was put in the hands of three trustees, for the benefit of the bondholders, who subscribed \$1,600,000 to put it in working order; this new loan to be paid out of the proceeds of the canal lands, to be sold on the completion of the works. At the same time, a small tax was laid to pay a portion on all the debt *pro rata*, except certain Stebbins and M'Alister bonds, on which the State had to pay more than the amount received. Under this law, two trustees, Mr. David Leavitt and Captain Swift, were appointed on behalf of the bondholders, and General Fry, by the State. The two first-named gentlemen voted \$5,000 per annum each, to the trustees, as salaries. General Fry, deeming this exorbitant, refused to receive more than \$2,500. Mr. Leavitt, President of the American Exchange Bank, in New York, received the subscribed funds, which sometimes amounted to \$500,000 on hand, and on which no interest was allowed until one of the bondholders suggested the importance of requiring it, when Mr. Leavitt allowed 3 per cent. The work went on very slowly, and very much to the dissatisfaction of the people of Illinois, in consequence of the continual absence of Messrs. Leavitt and Swift, the one attending to other business in Washington, and the other in New York. General Fry was replaced by Colonel Charles G. Oakely, one of the commissioners to whom Illinois and the bondholders were mainly indebted for the passage of the law. New vigor was at once imparted to the work, and an effort made to procure a change of trustees in order to get in those who would be on the spot, and attend to the business. The matter was not attended to in season, however, and instead of the canal being in operation in July, that both Illinois and the bondholders might have the advantage of the great rise in breadstuffs, and England and Ireland the benefit of Illinois produce, in the hour of their distress, the work will not be done until fall, nor available until spring, a difference of a whole year. This is peculiarly unfortunate, inasmuch as that, at such a season of agricultural prosperity, and abundance of money, the choice canal lands of Illinois would sell well to discharge the loan of \$1,600,000; a sum that would doubtless be exceedingly acceptable to the London houses at this moment of pressure. The great mistake was, in giving high salaries to non-resident trustees.

Indiana has a similar plan in operation, for the completion of her Wabash Canal. Mr. Charles Butler has done for Indiana, what Colonel Oakely did for Illinois. For two sessions, Mr. Butler was successfully engaged at Washington, in aiding to procure a large grant of land to the State of Indiana, to complete the Wabash Canal to the Ohio River. Land, however, is not available property, and it became necessary to borrow sufficient money. For this purpose, a law was passed, through the exertions of Mr. Butler, creating a trust of the canal and its lands, for the repayment of a sum of money sufficient to complete it. The debt of Indiana is as follows:—

State bonds outstanding.....	\$11,068,000
“ interest arrears to January, 1847.....	3,326,940
Total.....	\$14,394,940
Domestic debt, Treasury notes, etc.....	876,310
Total.....	\$15,271,250

This debt and interest was equally divided by law, one-half charged upon the State, and to be discharged by taxation, and the other half upon the canal, to be paid by its lands and operations. The domestic debt is receivable for State dues; hence the taxes available for the interest, will be impaired by the amount of that paper paid in. On the surrender of old bonds, the new stocks are issued, which will make the debt stand as follows:—

STATE STOCK.		WABASH AND ERIE CANAL STOCK.	
$\frac{1}{2}$ principal.....	\$5,534,000	$\frac{1}{2}$ principal.....	\$5,534,000
$\frac{1}{2}$ arrearage int. to Jan., 1847.	1,663,470	$\frac{1}{2}$ back interest.....	1,663,470
1 per cent interest deficit, Jan., 1847, to 1853.....	322,040	Total.....	\$7,197,470
Total.....	\$7,519,510		

After 1857, the State stock principal will bear 5 per cent, amounting to \$276,700, and the interest total, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent interest, being \$49,662, and making together \$326,362, to be paid by taxation. From January, 1847, to 1853, the principal draws 4 per cent, to be paid by taxation, the average 1 per cent to be added to the other interest, in 1853. The canal stock is to bear 5 per cent interest from January, 1847, and January, 1853; all back interest, and all arrears of interest on the new stock, to be funded in a 5 per cent stock. The revenues on the canal, after paying 6 per cent interest on the new loan, and necessary repairs, to be applied to the completion of the canal to Evansville. This complicated bill being passed, Mr. Butler had an arduous duty to carry it into effect, which, by the terms of the law, was to procure the surrender to the State agent of \$5,545,000 of bonds, or one-half the debt, by June, 1847, and a payment of 5 per cent of the instalment. This, Mr. Butler accomplished on the 26th May, and surrendered to the State agent \$6,500,000 of bonds. The agent of the State commenced the issue of the new bonds in the middle of June, and paid the first instalment of interest on the state stock on the 1st of July. For these services Mr. Butler received no compensation; but the bondholders, we understand, surrender to him one past due coupon on each bond, in acknowledgement of his services.

By these arrangements, the most important works of internal improvement, in the lake States, will be put in a state of usefulness, and already the influence upon the prices of the stocks has been considerable.

PRICES OF STOCKS IN NEW YORK, FIRST WEEK IN EACH MONTH.

	U. States 6's, 1862.	N. Y. 6's, 1860.	Penn. 5's.	Ohio 6's, 1860.	Indiana 5's, 1870.	Ill's 6's, 1870.
1846—May.....	102	100	61½	95	33	34
August.....	107	101	66	93	32	34½
October.....	106	105½	66½	93½	33	32½
November....	107	106½	67½	94½	30	33½
December..	101	106	68½	91½	31	33
1847—January.....	101	106	69	91½	32	33½
February....	102½	106	72½	95½	42	40½
March.....	101½	103	69½	95½	40	40
April.....	102	103½	72	96	39½	40½
May.....	106	106	74	98½	39½	40
June.....	107	106½	82½	102	47	49½

The advance is very considerable during the past month, particularly in those stocks to the revenues of which we have alluded, as affected by the prosperous export trade of the country.

Under all these circumstances, money has become very cheap in New York; and the operation of the new system of finance in Mexico, is understood to be such as to afford hope that sufficient will be derived to support the permanent occupation of that territory.

The advices which reached us to the 4th June, were highly favorable in a general point of view. Two weeks of fine weather, in connection with favorable accounts of continental harvests, had wrought a considerable fall in the prices of breadstuffs. The harvests, both of England and the continent, promised to be much earlier than was at first anticipated, and accounts of large quantities on the way from the Mediterranean and North of Europe, had contributed to inflate prices, and the fall in wheat was estimated at 15s. to 18s. per quarter; that is to say, a cargo of Dantzic wheat, of which the sale commenced in London, on the 19th May, at 105s., was closed on the 28th, at 85s.; after that period, a reaction and recovery to some extent was experienced. The enormous high prices had, to a considerable extent, affected consumption, and the fall had eased the money market. The public deposits in the bank were accumulating, on account of the taxes, and the Irish loan had increased, swelling the amount of "notes on hand," and giving the bank the means of discounting freely, which it did, at the rate of 5 per cent for sixty days' bills, and 5½ per cent for longer; out of doors, the rate was 5½ to 6 per cent. Inasmuch as that exchanges had been favorably affected by the stringent movement of the bank, it was feared that returning ease would again give an impulse to the export of bullion. The quantities of foreign and colonial produce imported, for the three months ending April 5, were large, while exports were less. The following were some of the leading imports:—

CONSUMPTION OF PRODUCE IN ENGLAND, JANUARY 5 TO APRIL 5, DUTY PAID.

	1845.	1846.	1847.
Provisions.....cwt.	28,715	45,153	87,960
Butter.....	38,727	37,320	62,166
Cheese.....	55,078	61,809	101,524
Cocoa.....lbs.	775,193	802,415	1,002,382
Coffee.....	11,328,937	9,920,773	13,102,861
Sugar.....cwt.	980,677	1,152,404	1,454,524
Tea.....lbs.	11,526,965	12,207,443	13,373,154
Rice.....cwt.	7,711	21,658	204,598
Grain.....qrs.	183,614	111,667	1,292,946
Flour.....cwt.	16,484	66,959	1,201,843

In spite of this large consumption of produce, the imports of raw material have declined, and the export of goods also, but the latter not to an extent which the small import of raw material would warrant, showing that the home consumption of goods has diminished. The following is a statement of the cotton taken for consumption, and the value of goods exported :—

	1845.	1846.	1847.
Cotton consumed.....cwt.	1,023,419	961,480	823,508
Cotton goods exported.....£	5,728,577	5,839,386	5,361,353

When we reflect that the price of cotton has been much higher this year, we become aware that the balance of the cotton trade was considerably against England for the quarter. The cotton cost them much more *money*, and they obtain less for the goods. With this prospect, and the continual expenditure of the railroads, by which England's labor continues to be applied to fixtures rather than to exchangeable values, the future is not propitious.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON.

WE have received a copy of the Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of this useful and well-managed institution. The past year appears to have been one of signal prosperity and success, "far exceeding, in these respects, all previous years, whether we consider the number of members, the state of the treasury, the attendance upon the lectures, or the general favor it enjoys in the community." The present number of members is 1,108, exhibiting a gain of 225, since the last annual meeting of the Association. The library embraces 5,026 volumes, 375 of which were added during the year. The reading-room of the Association is well supplied with the best newspapers and magazines of Europe and America. The lecture system, adopted a few years since, has been quite successful. Every ticket to the course was sold within a few days after its public announcement. Of the 1,200 tickets issued, 775 were taken by members. The receipts from this source amounted to \$1,650, which, after deducting the expenditures for lecturers, etc., of \$1,257 43, left a profit to the treasury, of \$392 57. The liberal donations made to the funds of this Association, will not leave it long without a suitable edifice. In the Report of last year, donations to the amount of \$1,000 each, were acknowledged from the following gentlemen, to be applied to that purpose: Hon. Abbott Lawrence, Amos Lawrence, William Sturgiss, John Bryant, John P. Cushing, William Appleton, Samuel Appleton, Esqrs., and Hon. Nathan Appleton. During the present year, donations of from \$25 to \$500, have increased the fund to \$9,225, which has been paid in and invested in substantial stocks. The Report of the President, MR. THOMAS J. ALLEN, is a model of brevity, clearness, and comprehensiveness.

The following is a list of the officers of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, for the present year: Warren Sawyer, President; Thomas H. Lord, Vice-President; John Stetson, Corresponding Secretary; Charles H. Allen, Recording Secretary; James Otis, Treasurer; J. M. Richardson, John L. Lathrop, George H. Briggs, H. P. Chamberlain, W. H. Kennard, W. S. Tilton, George F. Woodman, and Custis Guild, Directors; J. M. Atkins, Jr., D. N. Haskell, Thomas J. Allen, W. N. Fairbanks, and E. C. Cowdin, Trustees.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF CINCINNATI.

The Twelfth Annual Report of this Association, a well-written document, covers thirty-two octavo pages, and is occupied in a great measure with the local concerns of the institution, which appear to be in a flourishing condition. A single paragraph from the Report, on this head, will not perhaps be uninteresting to the friends of these valuable associations:—

“The career of the Association in the past year has been onward. It is free from debt. It has surmounted great difficulties, and borne itself in every good word and work, steadily and unobtrusively forward. It stands at this moment, stronger in numbers, spirit, and resources, than at any former period, and as we trust more deeply rooted than ever in the affections of its members, the respect and confidence of the community. We have been successful, but our success has not been accidental. Such success is ever found on the side of persevering industry. In the past, we have done well; in the future, we can do better. To insure this, it is only requisite that each member appreciate that he is in part chargeable with the task of maintaining the efficiency of the whole organization; that he owes to the Association the benefit both of his labor and example; and that it is his duty, as well as his privilege, to co-operate in the building up, in this community, of a noble and public-spirited institution, commensurate in some small degree to its growing wants, and which, in coming years, shall prove its pride and ornament. In watchfully providing for the present, we may safely leave the future to care for itself, if we do but remember that we are bound to transmit stronger and more prosperous, to those who shall succeed us, the charge we have received from those who have gone before; that we are amongst the humble pioneers of a great movement, responsible at home and abroad for its ultimate and triumphant success.”

The Report then proceeds to give a business statement of the official transactions of the Board of Directors; and we are pleased to notice that a course of free lectures, or literary addresses, were delivered during the year by the active members of the Association—an interesting feature, and one which might be adopted by similar associations, in other cities, with advantage to the members. The library now contains about 5,000 volumes, the additions to which, during the last year, amounted to 536 volumes. Besides the lectures by active members, a course was delivered, during the winter, by some of the most distinguished statesmen, divines, etc., of the West; the introductory, being delivered by the Hon. James T. Morehead, of Kentucky, and the valedictory, by the Rt. Rev. Bishop McIlvaine. The lectures were largely attended, and the services of the lecturers rendered gratuitously. The society numbers 1,007 regular members, 198 being added to the number during the past year. The receipts into the treasury from all sources, for the year, amounted to \$7,950; which, with the exception of about \$200, was expended in enlarging the library, and for other purposes connected with its maintenance and growth.

The following is a list of the officers of the Association for the present year: John W. Hartwell, *President*; George T. Stedman, *Vice-President*; James Lupton, *Corresponding Secretary*; Joseph C. Butler, *Recording Secretary*; E. B. Hinman, *Treasurer*; T. R. Biggs, James T. Annan, Benoni Sprague, C. Taylor Jones, and William I. White-man, *Directors*.

We cannot better close this brief notice of the Association and its affairs, than by extracting the just and manly sentiments of Mr. Hartwell, the Vice-President, in behalf of the Board:—

“The Association now occupies an eminence, from which it may calmly look back upon the steep and rugged ascent up which it has toiled, and rightfully indulge exultation over the past, and felicitous anticipations of the future. The annals of no similar body in the Union exhibit a progress more rapid, or a career less chequered by failures and reverses.

“If much has been achieved with feeble means and under many discouragements, what may not now be accomplished? Established as the institution stands, upon a firm foundation, and proudly conscious, though we be, that its influence has ever been conservative of good, nevertheless, it has not yet fulfilled its mission. Through the watchful and fostering care of its early friends, it has attained a vigorous growth and independence, which fit it for energetic action and widely extending usefulness. Its valuable property, its well-stored book-shelves, its crowded reading-room, and its rapidly augmenting list of members,

demand that it take rank with the foremost of our public institutions, and that it exert a controlling influence in moulding the character of its young men—the pride and strength of the Association—the future merchants of our city; that it advance the cause of knowledge and virtue; that it prove the friend of social order and public happiness; that it cherish laudable industry, generous enterprise, pure morals, varied intelligence, unimpeachable integrity, and the loftiest sense of mercantile honor.

“This can be done. This must be accomplished. As young men, the spirit of the age demands that we labor earnestly and heartily in the great cause of moral and intellectual advancement—that, as young men, we may do in our day and generation some good, the beneficence of which shall not die with us. As young men, let us see that we appreciate our position and fulfil our destiny;—too young, in every sense, to flag in our efforts;—too young, to halt in the onward march of the age;—too young, to fail in whatever noble undertaking we may have enlisted our energies.

“Let us remember that we are among the supports on which rests the character of our city for intelligence and self-culture. Let this suffice. Let us form a large conception of the character of the liberal and upright merchant, ever remembering that the keys of knowledge are in our hands—that the portals of her temple are open wide before us.

“Nor is it by the fleeting power of gold alone, that the annals of commerce have been rendered dignified and illustrious. It is true that money is power, but it is the heart and intellect that ennoble its uses; and wheresoever the name of ‘Merchant’ has been written in legible and enduring characters on the page of history, it has been the mind, and not the gold, that grasped the pen and inscribed it there.

“Let us, then, strive with manly, vigorous, and united effort,—many hands to labor with a single purpose to guide,—to build up for the ‘Young Mens’ Mercantile Library Association,’ a reputation co-extensive with, and as enviable as that of Cincinnati itself.”

SHOPPING IN ROME.

CHARACTER OF TRADES-PEOPLE—SHOPKEEPING MORALITY—NATALETTI'S SHOP THE BEST IN ROME.

Our views have become so completely identified with the commercial matters of the age, that on taking up a new book, especially of travels, we run our eye over its pages to see if we can find anything that will be likely to interest the mercantile reader; and our estimate of the value of a work is apt to depend very much upon the information it contains pertaining to subjects connected with trade and commerce. Running over the pages of Mrs. Butler's (late Fanny Kemble) “Year of Consolation,” just published by Wiley & Putnam, we find a few passages of her experience of the morality of shopkeeping, &c., in Rome, which we consider of sufficient interest to transfer to our pages:—

“English people are the only honest trades-people that I am acquainted with, and I say it advisedly; for Americans are unpunctual, and an appointment is a contract with time for its object, and they are as regardless, for the most part, of that species of contract, as of some others of a different kind. I have now been six months in Rome, and have had leisure and opportunity to see something of the morals of retail trade; at any rate, in matters of female traffic, among the shopkeepers here. In the first place, the most flagrant dishonesty exists with regard to the value of the merchandise, and the prices they ask for it of all strangers, but more particularly of the English, whose wealth, ignorance, and insolence, are taxed by these worthy industrials without conscience or compassion. Every article purchased in a Roman shop, by an English person, is rated at very nearly double its value; and the universal custom here, even among the people themselves, is to carry on a haggling market of aggression, on the part of the purchaser, and defence, on that of the vender, which is often as comical as it is disgusting. In Nataletti's shop, in Rome, the other day, I saw a scene between the salesman and a lady-purchaser, an Italian, that would have amazed as well as amused the parties behind and before the counters of Howell & James, Harding's, &c. The lady, after choosing her stuff and the quantity she required, began a regular attack upon the shopman; it was *mezza voce*, indeed, but continuous, eager, vehement, pressing, overpowering, to a degree indescribable; and the luckless man having come for a moment from behind the shelter of his long table, the lady eagerly seized him by the arm, and holding him fast, argued her point with increasing warmth. She next caught hold of the breast of his coat, her face within a few inches of his, her husband meanwhile standing by and smiling approvingly at the thrift and eloquence of his wife; I think, however, she did not succeed. The shopman looked disgusted, which I am afraid is a consequence of their having adopted the English mode of dealing in that

house, as they themselves informed me, to signify that they did not cheat, lie, or steal, but dealt like honest people. I felt proud of his manner of speech: 'Madame, nous avons adopte la maniere Anglaise; nous vendons au prix juste, nous ne surfaisons pas, et nous ne changeons pas nos prix,' so that to deal in the English fashion is synonymous to dealing justly. It pleases me greatly, and it is true; for, in France, too, they have abandoned the abominable system of prices for the English; and it delights me to think that integrity, justice, truth, cleanliness, and comfort, follow in the footsteps of my own people wherever their wandering spirit leads them through the world. It is very fit and just that they should bring such compensations to the foreign people, among whom they so often introduce, also, habits of luxury, of ostentation, and that basest habit of bartering for money the common courtesies and amenities of life, the civilities and the serviceableness which are priceless, which the continental people have, and our own have not, and which we should have learnt to imitate rather than taught them to sell. I may as well mention here, that I have found Nataletti's shop the best in Rome, in every respect. In one morning's shopping, the other day, we had two or three curious instances of the shopkeeping morality here: going into Gagiat's, in the Corso, the great omnium gatherum, or, as the Americans would call it, variety store, they first attempted to cheat my sister upon the change due to her for some gold she gave them; I was looking at some fans which were being shown to an Italian purchaser at the same time; I had taken up one, which the shopman told me was worth eighteen scudi; the Roman buyer took up another, which had been shown me at the same price, and with sundry 'nods and becks and wreathed smiles' at the shopkeeper, said, in an under tone, 'Dunque quindici?' the latter nodded, returned the significant pantomime, and adding, 'Eh! capite.' I capited too, and, perceiving that I was attentively observing what was going on, the salesman took the fan I had in my hand, and without uttering a syllable, said, 'Ebbene, Signora, seidici scudi;' 'but,' said I, 'a moment ago, you told me the price was eighteen.' 'Oh!' exclaimed he, with the most dauntless impudence, 'se piace a lei di pagar dieci otto va bene e padrona.' I was so utterly disgusted, that I laid the commodity down without another word. Further on, we bought some tin pails and water-buckets for our bed-rooms in the country. At one shop, I was made to pay nearly three scudi for that which my sister purchased immediately after for a scudo and a half a little distance further on, and she no doubt paid, as an Englishwoman, much more than the goods were worth. We then proceeded to a perfumer's for some hair pomatum—we had already repeatedly purchased the same thing at the same place. On this occasion, however, we were charged an additional paul upon each small article, and upon remonstrating, and stating that we had repeatedly bought the same thing at the same place, and always paid such a sum for it, the shopman replied, 'Yes, that was true, but now they had altered the price;' a sort of *ad libitum* mode of dealing, which may be pleasant and mournful to the souls of the vendors, but is mournful alone to those who buy. Of truth, and its inviolable sacredness, the Italians generally seem to have as little perception as the French; and dishonesty and falsehood are so little matters of shame, that detection in either of them only excites a shrug and a grin on the part of the offender."

THE BABY TRADE OF LONDON.

We notice, in a late London paper, as one of the curiosities of commerce, that the baby trade has been opened in London, as will be seen by the following advertisement:—

"*To Ladies without children, and others.*—A very promising and genteel LITTLE BOY, five years old, and without parents, requires a permanent home, where he would be educated and brought up with kindness and motherly affection. Address, with particulars of family, &c., to A. N., Post-office, Great Russell-st. Terms expected, about £10 10s."

On this, the London Athenæum remarks:—

"So the baby trade is to be opened! and following the law of competition we may look shortly to read of 'very promising little boys,' purchasable at *five* pounds—girls for less, and twins, like 'family tickets,' on a reduced scale of prices. It has long been a fact well known in St. Giles', that 'the children of the *mobility*' were movable—could be hired for the day, as well as a sore-eye, or a lame-leg, or the *properties* of epilepsy! But the Huggins and Muggins market is now about to be invaded by 'the genteel'—and to judge from the extreme moderation of the terms, 'the operation' is intended to be extensive. There will be next, we apprehend, a joint-stock company for the sale and exchange of old people."

POETRY OF COMMERCE.

Iron forms the material of the sharpest needle and the strongest bar, the mechanism of the musical snuff-box, the delicate and glittering wheels and spindles that play within the most exquisite watch, and the crashing machinery of the steamship that drives the huge fabric through the ocean. It provides for war its most formidable weapons, for peace its most valuable implements; and may be considered a fruitful source of domestic comfort and political strength, the grand Archimedian lever of nations.—[MER. MAG.]

IRON.*

BY MRS. SARAH J. HALE.

"Truth shall spring out of the earth."—PSALMS lxxxv. 11.

As in lonely thought, I pondered
On the many'ous things of earth,
And, in fancy's dreaming, wondered
At their beauty, power, and worth,
Came, like words of prayer, the feeling—
Oh! that God would make me know,
Through the spirit's clear revealing—
What, of all his works below,
Is to man a boon the greatest,
Brightening on from age to age,
Serving truest, earliest, latest,
Through the world's long pilgrimage.

Soon vast mountains rose before me,
Shaggy, desolate, and lone,
Their scarred heads were threat'ning o'er me,
Their dark shadows round me thrown;
Then a voice, from out the mountains,
As an earthquake shook the ground,
And like frightened fawns the fountains,
Leaping, fled before the sound;
And the Anak oaks bowed lowly,
Quivering, aspen-like, with fear—
While the deep response came slowly,
Or it must have crushed mine ear!

"Iron! Iron! Iron!"—crashing,
Like the battle-axe and shield;
Or the sword on helmet clashing,
Through a bloody battle-field:
"Iron! Iron! Iron!"—rolling,
Like the far-off cannon's boom;
Or the death-knell, slowly tolling,
Through a dungeon's charnel gloom!
"Iron! Iron! Iron!"—swinging,
Like the summer winds at play;
Or as bells of Time were ringing
In the blest Millennial Day!

Then the clouds of ancient fable
Cleared away before mine eyes;
Truth could tread a footing stable
O'er the gulf of mysteries!
Words, the prophet bards had uttered,
Signs, the oracle foretold,
Spells, the wierd-like Sybil muttered,
Through the twilight days of old,
Rightly read, beneath the splendor,
Shining now on history's page,
All their faithful witness render—
All portend a better age.

Sisyphus, forever toiling,
Was the type of toiling men,
While the stone of power, recoiling,
Crushed them back to earth again!
Stern Prometheus, bound and bleeding,
Imaged man in mental chain,

While the vultures, on him feeding,
Were the passions' vengeful reign;
Still a ray of mercy tarried
On the cloud, a white-winged dove,
For this mystic faith had married
Vulcan to the Queen of Love!

Rugged strength and radiant beauty—
These were one in nature's plan;
Humble toil and heavenward duty—
These will form the perfect man!
Darkly was this doctrine taught us
By the gods of heathendom;
But the living light was brought us,
When the gospel morn had come!
How the glorious change, expected,
Could be wrought, was then made free;
Of the earthly, when perfected,
Rugged Iron forms the key!

"Truth from out the earth shall flourish,"
This the Word of God makes known,—
Thence are harvests men to nourish—
There let Iron's power be shown.
Of the swords, from slaughter gory,
Ploughshares forge to break the soil!—
Then will Mind attain its glory,
Then will Labor reap the spoil,—
Error cease the soul to wilder,
Crime be checked by simple good,
As the little coral builder
Forces back the furious flood.

While our faith in good grows stronger,
Means of greater good increase;
Iron, thundering war no longer,
Leads the onward march of peace;
Still new modes of service finding,
Ocean, earth, and air, it moves,
And the distant nations binding,
Like the kindred tie it proves;
With its Atlas-shoulder sharing
Loads of human toil and care,
On its wing of lightning bearing
Thought's swift mission through the air!

As the rivers, farthest flowing,
In the highest hills have birth;
As the banyan, broadest growing,
Oftenest bows its head to earth,—
So the noblest minds press onward,
Channels far of good to trace;
So the largest hearts bend downward,
Circling all the human race;
Thus, by Iron's aid, pursuing
Through the earth their plans of love,
Men our Father's will are doing
Here, as angels do above!

* Originally published in "Godey's Lady's Book," an excellent periodical, conducted with singular judgment and ability by the gifted author of this poem.

ENTERPRISE AND WEALTH OF JACQUES CŒUR,

THE FRENCH ARGONAUT.

The Life and Times of Jacques Cœur, the French Argonaut, has recently been published in London. This work contains the only notice, we believe, in English, of the great French merchant and financier of the middle ages, during the reigns of Henry V. and VI, in England. The "London Examiner" thus states the leading facts in the life of Jacques Cœur:—

"It was the money of Jacques Cœur which enabled the French to profit by the genius and enthusiasm of Joan of Arc; and it was his honest sympathy, and steady, manly counsel, which seems to have sustained the tender and brave heart of the noblest of royal mistresses, Agnes Sorel, in her efforts to save the king. On her death, she selected him for her executor. He had sprung from the people, and raised himself, by successful commercial enterprise, to a level with the princes of his age. He found French commerce behind that of every other nation, and left it prosperous and increasing. Direct and speedy communication with the East seems to have been his great idea. Modern Europe is still contending for it. He had at one time, in this employment, three hundred factors; and the rest of the merchants of France, with the whole of those of Italy, are not supposed to have equalled this one man in the extent of their commercial dealings. *As rich as Jacques Cœur*, became a proverb. It was even rumored and believed that he had found the philosopher's stone. And he proved worthy of his wealth by giving it noble uses. He raised three armies for Charles at his own cost; and he repaired and re-established, in his office of *Argentier*, the deranged finances of the kingdom. But his weakness seems to have lain in the direction of personal magnificence and splendor, and to this we may trace his fall. He did not allow sufficiently for the prejudices of his age, and at last armed them for his ruin. He is described to have far transcended, in his personal attendance and equipments, the chiefs of the most illustrious families of France; and when Charles made his triumphal entry into Rouen, the merchant, Jacques Cœur, was seen by the side of Dunois, with arms and tunic precisely the same as his. His destruction was planned by a party of the nobles, and an indictment of all sorts of crimes preferred against him; among them the charge of having poisoned Agnes Sorel. He narrowly escaped torture and death; and only this by confiscation of his treasures (which his judges divided among them) and perpetual banishment. The latter resolved itself ultimately into a sort of strict surveillance in a French convent, which he at last escaped by the fidelity of one of his agents, who had married his niece. He was again characteristically engaging in active pursuits, and beginning life anew as the Pope's captain-general, on the coast of Asia Minor, when illness seized him in the Island of Scio. He left, in his death, another example of the world's treatment of its greatest benefactors."

From the memoir, we make a single extract in regard to the commercial enterprise of the great French merchant:—

"In the course of twenty years, Jacques Cœur had more commercial power than all the rest of the merchants of the Mediterranean put together. Three hundred of his agents resided at the different ports, not only of Europe, but of the East, and in all the nations contiguous to France. Everywhere his vessels were respected, as though he had been a sovereign prince; they covered the seas wherever commerce was to be cultivated, and from farthest Asia, they brought back cloths of gold and silk, furs, arms, spices, and ingots of gold and silver, still swelling his mighty stores, and filling Europe with surprise at his adventurous daring, and his unparalleled perseverance. Like his great prototype, Cosmo de Medici, who, from a simple merchant, became a supreme ruler, Jacques Cœur, the Medicis of Bourges, became illustrious and wealthy, and sailed long in the favorable breezes of fortune, admired, envied, feared, and courted by all.

"His wealth gave rise to a proverb, long retained by the citizens of his native town: 'As rich as Jacques Cœur,' expressed all that could be conceived of prosperity and success. Popular tradition asserts that, so great was the profusion of the precious metals that he possessed, that his horses were *shod with silver*; a common reputation, even at the present day, enjoyed by persons of singular wealth. The adornment of Bourges, where he was born, was not one of the least projects of the great merchant; and having, with a large sum, purchased a considerable tract of land in the town, he began, in 1443, to build that magnificent mansion which still remains a noble relic of his taste and wealth."

LEATHER TRADE OF OHIO.

The following interesting remarks in relation to the product and export of leather from Ohio, are published in the *Cincinnati Atlas*, as an extract from a letter written by a merchant, in New York city, to our friend, Mr. George M. Young, firm of Messrs. Forbes & Young, commission and forwarding merchants, in Cincinnati. The facts and suggestions are worthy of consideration. Alluding to a rapid change which is taking place in the leather trade of our country, the writer says: "The shipments of leather from your State to this city, have become, within the last two years, quite important, and the trade in this article will undoubtedly increase. For the kind of leather made in your State, your facilities are very great—principally, in the cheapness of bark, and large number of your domestic hides. The bulk of your leather being light, and the tannin principle in your bark not being as strong as that of the bark nearer the seaboard, renders the Ohio leather the best article in the market, for finishing into the upper leather, and for export to Great Britain. There is now no duty on leather of any description in that country, and a large trade has been carried on the past year, with England, in American leather, three-fourths of the Ohio leather arriving here having been shipped to Great Britain. With no duty on this article, they cannot compete with this country in its manufacture, and therefore the trade must in time be very large. Our market, last year, was overstocked with all kinds, and prices, consequently, ranged very low throughout the season. Good leather, of oak tannage, weighing ten to twelve pounds average, would only command from fifteen to sixteen cents per pound, and these prices only for a very good article. The same quality will now bring twenty cents per pound, and there is a fair prospect, not only that the advance will be maintained, but that prices will advance still farther." In regard to consignments, the writer gives the following as the usual rate of commissions charged by regular leather houses: "The regularly established rate of commission on leather, is 6 per cent. This includes guarantee, and all charges, except cash paid for cartage and freight."

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 PRODUCTION OF TEA IN BRITISH INDIA.

The great tea-growing experiment undertaken by the East India Company, appears to have answered the most sanguine expectations, and even to have gone beyond them. The tea produced at the farm of Kunsoor is described as equal to the finest Chinese, and has proved very profitable. It has sold on the spot for from four to five rupees the seer, the highest price of the best imported Chinese. The climate, the produce, and the identity of the plant, are beyond doubt. Only 176 acres have been cultivated; but 1,000,000 of acres are now open to capital and enterprise, capable of supplying one-sixth of the consumption of Great Britain and Ireland. The cultivation is described as not being difficult, and the returns certain. The natives, even to the most bigoted in caste, are getting excessively fond of tea, and regularly use it. Dr. Jameson, who is at the head of the company's tea farm, states that tea at 1½ rupees a seer, yields a profit of 200 per cent, giving facts for his calculation.

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 BEQUEST OF A BOSTON MERCHANT.

The late William Oliver, Esq., of Dorchester, Mass., has left the whole of his property, valued at not less than *a hundred thousand dollars*, to be divided equally between the Perkins Institution for the Blind, at South Boston, and the McLean Asylum for the Insane, at Somerville. One-third of this sum is to be paid over immediately, and the remainder at the decease of his two sisters. Mr. Oliver commenced life as a poor boy, and acquired his property by his prudence and energy in mercantile pursuits. One hundred thousand dollars was the amount he fixed upon as the extent of his wishes in early life; and when he had made that sum, he retired to his country residence in Dorchester, and passed the summer and autumn of his days in unceasing, but unostentatious benevolence.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS OF CANADIAN AND AMERICAN COMMERCE.

IMPORT OF BREADSTUFFS INTO CANADA, AND REGULATIONS FOR THE TRANSIT OF VESSELS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM ONE AMERICAN PORT TO ANOTHER.

THE report that the British government had sent instructions to allow American vessels to pass up the St. Lawrence River, is fully confirmed, as will be seen by the following notices from the Inspector-General's office, which appeared in the Official Gazette of the 15th of May:—

Notice is hereby given that his excellency, the Governor-General in Council, has been pleased to approve of the following regulations, for the introduction into this province of foreign wheat and maize, for exportation, without the payment of duty, under the provisions of the act 9th Victoria, chapter 1:—

1. Foreign wheat or maize brought in for exportation, shall be duly entered under bond conditioned for its arrival at and exportation from the port of destination within the period of six calendar months; such bond to be given to the collector at the port of entry or port of destination, at the option of the importer or his agent; and if given to the collector at the latter port, a certificate thereof, under his hand, shall be produced to the collector at the port of entry where the importation is to be made, previous to such entry being made.

2. After such entry, the collector receiving the same shall furnish a certificate, under his hand, to such importer, particularizing the quantity of such wheat and maize, and when and from where, and by what vessel imported; the port of destination for exportation thereof, and the time for its exportation specified in the bond; and it shall be the duty of the importer to deposit such certificate, and report such wheat or maize to the collector at the port of destination, immediately on its arrival thereat.

3. The bonds so to be given shall, in all cases, be for three times the amount of duty otherwise payable, and shall not be discharged unless such foreign wheat or maize shall have been duly reported at such port of destination, and exported or warehoused, within the period specified in the bond. And if the bond shall have been given to the collector at the port of entry, other than the port of destination, the collector at such latter port shall furnish a certificate, under his hand, to such importer, of the due entry of such foreign wheat or maize, on arrival at such latter port, and for the exportation or warehousing of the same, as the case may be, within the time specified in the bond; the production of which certificate to the collector at the port where the bond shall have been so given shall have the effect of discharging the same.

4. On the arrival of such foreign wheat or maize at its port of destination, and report or entry thereof, the collector thereat shall permit the same to be exported or warehoused in the manner provided by law; and upon the exportation or warehousing of the same, the bond given therefor shall be cancelled.

The following order relates to the transit of vessels of the United States from one port to another:—

Notice is hereby given that his excellency, the Governor-General, in Council, has been pleased to approve of the following regulations for the transit of vessels of the United States, from one American port to another, through the inland waters of this province:—

1. That during the pleasure of his excellency, American boats and vessels, laden and unladen, may be permitted to pass down the St. Lawrence, from Fort Covington on the Salmon River, to Sorrel, and thence up the River Richelieu to Champlain, and vice versa, upon the payment of the usual tolls and dues for the use of the canals and other works, chargeable on the boats and vessels owned and navigated by her majesty's Canadian subjects.

2. That no such boat or vessel of the United States, passing through the Canadian waters or canals, shall have any right to land or take on board freight at any port or place within the province of Canada.

3. That such boats or vessels may be permitted to land passengers at any port or place between Dundee and St. John, but they shall not take any on board, during the voyage between those ports; boats and vessels on the downward passage, after arriving at St. John, may take on board passengers, as other vessels do at present at that port.

4. That before leaving the port of Dundee, on the Salmon River, to proceed on the downward voyage to Lake Champlain, the master of such boat or vessel shall apply to the collector of customs of that port, whose duty it shall be to furnish a preventive officer to such vessel, with instructions to remain on board during the voyage, until she reaches the American waters of Lake Champlain, such officer to be allowed for the time he shall be on board, five shillings per diem, together with diet and lodging on board the boat or vessel, and twenty-five shillings for his expenses homeward.

Boats or vessels leaving Lake Champlain for Fort Covington, shall make a like application to the collector of St. John, and be under the same restrictions, and subject to the like conditions.

5. That the master of every such boat or vessel shall, on arriving at the port of Montreal, report such arrival to the collector of customs, who shall, without charge, permit such boat or vessel to proceed on the voyage without delay.

MODIFICATION OF MEXICAN TARIFF REGULATIONS.

The following modifications in regard to the military contributions proposed to be levied in Mexico, under the tariff and regulations sanctioned by the President of the United States, on the 31st of March, 1847, recommended by the Secretary of the Treasury, are approved by the President of the United States, who directs the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy to carry them into effect:—

1. On all manufactures of cotton, or of cotton mixed with any other material except wool, worsted and silk, in the piece or in any other form, a duty, as a military contribution, of 30 per cent ad valorem.

2. When goods on which the duties are levied by weight, are imported into said ports in the package, the duties shall be collected on the nett weight only; and in all cases an allowance shall be made for all deficiencies, leakage, breakage or damage, proved to have actually occurred during the voyage of importation, and made known before the goods are warehoused.

3. The period named in the 8th of said regulations, during which the goods may remain in warehouse before the payment of duties, is extended from thirty to ninety days; and within said period of ninety days, any portion of the said goods on which the duties, as a military contribution, have been paid, may be taken, after such payment, from the warehouse, and entered free of any other duty at any other port or ports of Mexico in our military possession; the fact of the case, with particular description of said goods, and the statement that the duties thereon have been paid, being certified by the proper officer of the port or ports of re-shipment.

4. It is intended to provide by the treaty of peace, that all goods imported during the war, into any of the Mexican ports in our military possession, shall be exempt from any new import duty or confiscation by Mexico, in the same manner as if said goods had been imported and paid the import duties prescribed by the government of Mexico.

IMPORTATION OF MOLASSES.

Treasury Department, May 27, 1847.

Representation having been made to the Department giving reason to the belief that a want of uniformity exists at the respective ports in the mode of estimating the loss or deficiency in the article of molasses, occasioned by fermentation, stress of weather, or accident during the voyage of importation, it is deemed proper, under the circumstances, and in view of the peculiar liability of molasses to loss or deficiency from the causes before mentioned, to establish an equitable and uniform rule for the government of the officers of the customs in making such allowances.

To ascertain the loss or deficiency in these cases, the collectors will have the casks containing the molasses properly gauged to determine their capacities, and also ascertain what is technically termed the *outs* or ullage in American gallons, together with the capacities of the empty casks, (the entire contents being lost,) if such be the fact. The *outs* or ullage, with the capacity of the empty casks, will constitute the aggregate amount of loss or deficiency to be allowed on the importation in question.

It is deemed proper to remark that this rule applies only to deficiencies arising from the cause stated, and not to cases where the article is alleged to have sustained damage in character or quality during the voyage of importation. In all cases of the latter description, the actual damage is to be ascertained as in other cases, by appraisement in pursuance of law and existing regulations.

R. J. WALKER, Secretary of the Treasury.

MEMPHIS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

TARIFF OF CHARGES ON MERCHANDISE, ETC., ADOPTED BY THE MEMPHIS (TENNESSEE) CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Storing cotton, per bale, and shipping, when required.....	50 cents.
Draying on same, when shipped, per bale.....	7
Selling cotton, including storage, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on sales.	
Purchasing and shipping cotton, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on purchase.	
Cotton sold by owner, after being stored, shall be subject to a charge (additional to storage) for sampling and weighing, per bale.....	25
Advancing on cotton, or other produce, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and interest.	
Cotton weighing less than 350 lbs. per bale, shall be subject to a deduction of \$1 per bale; over 350, and less than 400, at 50 cents per bale.	
Commission for selling merchandise and produce.....	$7\frac{1}{2}$ per ct.
Commission for purchasing, with funds in hand.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Commission for drawing, endorsing, and negotiating bills.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Commission for effecting insurance, on premium.....	5
Commission for adjusting insurance, on amount received.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Commission for receiving and remitting money.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Commission for guaranteeing sales on time.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Commission for advancing freight and charges.....	5

No abatement of commission on sales made by consigners, except for cotton.

All goods or produce under advances may be kept under insurance at the expense of the owner. When no advances are made, insurance will not be effected without a written order.

Negotiating notes, or attending to the renewal of the same in bank, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

Collecting debts, without litigation, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; with litigation, or extraordinary efforts, in proportion to the labor.

RECEIVING AND FORWARDING, INCLUDING STORAGE FOR ONE MONTH.

On all merchandise, &c., freighted by the pound, per 100 lbs.....	\$0 12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sugar, per hhd.....	1 00
Oils, wines, and spirits, per bbl. or quarter cask.....	30
Molasses, per bbl. (half-bbls. in proportion).....	40
Flour, per bbl.....	20
Bacon and pork, in bulk, per 100 lbs.....	12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bacon and pork, per cask.....	75
Bacon and pork, per bbl.....	30
Other barrels freighted by the barrel.....	25
Iron castings and lead, per ton of 2,000 lbs.....	2 50
Gunpowder, per keg, including magazine charges.....	50
Salt, per sack, and other sacks freighted by the sack.....	20
Cotton gins, wagons, carriages, and pianos, each.....	5 00
Buggies and carts, each.....	3 00
Corn-mills, first size, \$4, second size, each.....	3 00
Fan-mills, each.....	2 00
Wheel-barrows and ploughs, each.....	25
Chairs, per dozen, (arm-chairs charged as half dozen,).....	50

SUNDRIES.

Storage per month, for the second and succeeding months, to be charged at half the rate for receiving and forwarding.

Draying, on cotton, per bale, 7 cents; on other articles, 40 cents on the amount charged for receiving and forwarding.

Bills lading, per set, in all cases, except for cotton, 50 cents.

TARE.

All barrels, kegs, or other packages, packed in this city, on which tax is allowed, shall be taxed at the actual weight of the empty package.

Tare on lard, in bbls., 16 per cent; in half-bbls., 18 per cent; in kegs, 20 per cent.

WEIGHT OF GRAIN PER BUSHEL.

Wheat & Rye..... 60 lbs. Corn..... 56 lbs. Oats..... 32 lbs.

The foregoing tariff of charges shall take effect immediately, except what relates to cotton; that shall take effect on the 1st day of July, 1847.

METHOD OF PREPARING CORN AND MEAL FOR EXPORTATION.

OFFICE OF THE PHILADELPHIA BOARD OF TRADE, }
 Philadelphia, June 16, 1847. }

A communication signed by a number of merchants and others engaged in the Western Trade, was laid before the Board, asking for information in answer to numerous inquiries from the West, as to the most approved method of preparing corn and corn-meal for exportation to foreign countries.

The subject was referred to a special committee of the Board, who prepared the following report, which was read and approved at a stated meeting of the directors, held on Monday, June 14, 1847.

On motion, the report was ordered to be printed on letter paper for distribution.

The committee to whom was referred the memorial and queries addressed to the Board of Trade respecting the most approved manner of preparing corn and corn-meal for market, beg leave to report the annexed answers to the questions propounded:—

Quere 1st.—What description of corn would be best for the purpose of exportation?

Answer.—Prime quality yellow round is preferred, and commands, in price, more than any other description—flat yellow usually commands per bushel more than *white*—the latter in least request.

Quere 2d.—What kind of package is best, whether barrels, puncheons, or bags,—and if the latter, what size?

Answer.—Barrels are esteemed the best, not only on account of facility in handling, but as commanding more nearly their original value, when emptied—besides, not being liable to have their contents affected when on ship-board, as in case of bags.

Quere 3d.—If manufactured into meal, is kiln-drying a pre-requisite in order to pass inspection for exportation—and if so, what is the best process, and also its fineness?

Answer.—Section eight of our Inspection Laws requires “all meal liable to inspection, shall be made of kiln-dried corn, and also ground to a due degree of fineness—and be bolted, and cooled, before being packed.”

Quere 4th.—The best manner of packing; that is, whether hot or cold; and whether there is any advantage in sifting and bolting, equal to the cost of it?

Answer.—The most desirable manner of packing is undoubtedly cold, or otherwise the meal would undergo a sweating process in the cask, which must cause it to sour in a warm climate, or if the barrels are not properly *seasoned*, extract the moisture from the wood. The remainder of the question is answered by reference to the preceding reply, quoting the inspection law on the subject.

Quere 5th.—What kind of apparatus is considered the best for the kiln-drying process—and, if possible, the cost per 100 bushels, or 500 bushels capacity?—and finally, any other information calculated to be useful to those who may be supposed to be entirely unacquainted with the subject?

Answer.—The most approved apparatus for drying, is the double sheet-iron pans, or one placed above the other, commonly known as *Crook's Patent*—and which your committee are unable to describe, with the minuteness necessary to be of practical use—the cost of course varies, as to the manner and the materials of which the kiln is built—whether of wood or brick exteriorly—and with soap-stone foundations and sills, or fire-brick—or a less costly material than either. The casks in which meal is packed, must be of *well-seasoned* stuff; the staves twenty-seven inches in length, and the diameter at the head sixteen and a half inches, and contain one hundred and ninety-six pounds of meal. Particular reference should be made to our inspection laws for full information respecting penalties for short weight, false tare, &c., which are appended. All which is respectfully submitted

by

SAMUEL C. MORTON, }
 N. B. THOMPSON, } Committee.
 THOMAS RIDGWAY, }

SEC. 8.—All corn-meal liable to inspection, as aforesaid, shall be made of kiln-dried corn; and also ground to a due degree of fineness, and be bolted and cooled, before being packed.

SEC. 10.—Flour of wheat liable to inspection, as aforesaid, shall be packed in barrels or half barrels, well made of good seasoned materials, and tightened with ten hoops, sufficientlly nailed with four nails in each chine hoop, and three nails in each upper bilge hoop.

SEC. 11.—The barrels which shall be used for the purpose aforesaid, shall be of the diameter of sixteen inches and a half at the head, and shall be marked No. 1, and every such barrel shall be made of staves twenty-seven inches in length. Every half barrel which shall be used for the purpose aforesaid, shall be of the diameter of twelve inches and a half

at the head, and shall be made of staves twenty-three inches in length, and shall be denominated No. 2.

Sec. 28.—If any miller or bolter of flour or meal shall pack any cask of the dimensions aforesaid, with a less quantity of flour or meal than is specified for the same, he shall forfeit for every pound deficient in weight, *ten cents* per pound; to be paid to the inspector who may find the same short in weight.

Sec. 37.—If any person shall put a false or wrong tare upon any cask of flour or meal, to the disadvantage of the purchaser, such person shall forfeit for each and every cask so falsely tared, the sum of seventy-five cents. By order of the Board.

Attest—C. G. CHILDS, *Secretary*.

THOMAS P. COPE, *President*.

NEW CUSTOMS REGULATIONS OF MANILLA.

The following regulations, recently brought into operation at Manilla, will be of interest to parties connected with the trade of that port:—

Attention having been called to the practice observed in the custom-house of this capital, (Manilla,) by the captains or consignees of vessels, of not expressing in the manifest the contents of the bales, packages, cases, and other sorts of packages of goods which they convey, before their introduction into the custom-house, and in order to correct a practice which, although founded on the tariff in force, in these islands, may give rise to very great abuses, it has been decreed as under:—

Art. 1. The manifest that, according to rule No. 24 of the present tariff, captains, supercargoes, or consignees of ships, national, as well as foreign, are bound to present within thirty hours after being visited in this port, and forty-eight hours if in covite, shall contain, —1st. Class, country, name, tonnage of the vessel, and number of crew. 2d. The name of captain or master. 3d. The port or ports whence she comes. 4th. The name of consignees to whom the cargo is directed. 5th. The bales, packages, casks, barrels, hogsheads, &c., of all kinds, with their corresponding marks and numbers, expressing the quantity of each class by figures and letters. 6th. The different descriptions of goods or contents of the packages. 7th. The number and kind of those that contain goods prohibited from importation by the tariff, expressing the foreign port to which they are destined, in the manner permitted by the law. 8th. That the ship does not bring any other goods, and that none of those on board are prohibited from a fear of plague.

Art. 2. Goods which, on account of their nature, cannot come baled or packed up, as iron in bars or sheets, metal in slabs, logs or beams of wood, planks, seeds, and other like articles, shall be expressed in the manifest by the descriptions, without specifying the quantity.

Art. 3. In the continuation of the manifest, but separately, shall be put a circumstantial note of warlike stores and provisions, and marine, on board such vessels.

INSPECTION OF TURPENTINE IN NORTH CAROLINA.

The following act to amend the laws regulating the inspection of turpentine in North Carolina, has become the law of that State on the subject, and is now in force:—

Sec. 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of North Carolina, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same,* That every barrel of soft turpentine shall be of the weight of two hundred and eighty pounds gross, free from any fraudulent mixture, packed in good and sufficient casks, made of good seasoned staves, three-quarters of an inch thick, and not exceeding five inches wide, and not less than thirty nor more than thirty-two inches long, and heads not less than one, nor more than one inch and a half thick; each barrel of soft turpentine secured with twelve good hoops, and each barrel of hard turpentine secured with ten good hoops, with the joint of the head placed perpendicularly to the bung; and if the turpentine shall be fraudulently mixed, the same shall be condemned by the inspector and delivered to the owner on demand; and every barrel of turpentine, after the same shall be inspected, weighed, found clean, and in merchantable order, shall be branded or marked by the inspector, the soft with the letter S., and the hard with the letter H. And forasmuch as it is difficult for the makers of turpentine to so regulate the size of their barrels, that every barrel shall weigh the number of pounds required by this act, it is provided, that the inspector shall make out two fair bills of the same, the one for the seller and the other for the buyer, in which he shall designate the quantity and quality of the same, making a proportional allowance to the seller, when the barrel shall

weigh more than the standard number of pounds established by this act, and the same allowance to the buyer when the barrel shall weigh less.

Sec. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That every maker of turpentine shall brand or mark every such barrel with the initial letters of his or her name; and in case of his or her failure, the inspector is hereby required to mark the same with the initial letters of the maker's name, for which he shall receive one-half cent per barrel, which fee shall be paid by the person paying the fee of inspection, and by him may be charged to the maker; and every inspector shall keep a book, in which shall be fairly entered the maker's name, and the number of barrels inspected of the same mark.

This act shall be in force from and after the first day of June, 1847.

BIRKENHEAD DOCK CHARGES.

A circular, issued by the Birkenhead Dock Company, Liverpool, specifies the rate of charges established. We select some of the items most interesting to our shippers:—

ON GRAIN OF ALL SORTS.

The quay delivery is 2½d. per quarter. This includes receiving from ship, weighing and tallying, marking, loading from landing scales, and furnishing landing weights. An addition of one-half this rate will be made for piling on the quay, when goods are not delivered direct from the landing scales.

COTTON-WOOL.—RATES TO THE IMPORTER—CONSOLIDATED CHARGES.

If sold and delivered from landing scales, the charge is 10d. per bale, and includes receiving from ship, weighing, mending, and sampling.

If housed, the charge is 1s. 6d. per bale, and includes, in addition to the preceding items, housing, re-weighing, and one month's rent.

A discount of 20 per cent is allowed on East India and Brazilian cotton.

The rent per week is ¼d. each for square, and ⅜d. for round bales.

The rates on re-housed, &c., are, for re-weighing, 2d. per bale; unpiling and repiling, 2d.; and for marking and sampling, ¼d. per bale.

The rates for discharging cargoes of American cotton, when landed by the Dock Company, are 6d. per ton, as per register. For Brazilian or Egyptian, 8d.

No dock rates are chargeable on any goods entering the Birkenhead Docks.

The dock rates for American vessels are 1s. 6d. per ton. If remaining in dock or basin for more than six months, a further sum of 9d. per ton to be paid, and so on for any further period.

CARRIAGE OF PASSENGERS IN MERCHANT VESSELS.

The following Treasury Circular, addressed to collectors, and other officers of the customs, is published in the Merchants' Magazine, for the benefit of the shipping interest:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *May 13, 1847.*

The collectors and other officers of the customs are directed to regard the provisions of the circular instructions of the 7th of March, 1847, accompanying the acts of Congress regulating the carriage of passengers in merchant ships, so far modified as to allow the passenger's berth to be included and embraced within the respective spaces of *fourteen, twenty, and thirty* clear superficial feet of deck, in the cases specified in the act. Those spaces, as enjoined by the law, must be "unoccupied by stores or other goods, not being the personal luggage of such passengers."

The other provisions of the circular instructions referred to, will remain in full force and operation.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

PROTECTION OF COMMERCE IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.


The underwriters of New York have received a communication, dated Washington, June 5th, 1847, signed by John Appleton, Acting Secretary, in which it is stated that, "on the 7th April last, Commodore Read was directed to detach a sloop-of-war from the forces under his command on the coast of Africa, and send her to cruise in the Mediterranean, for the purpose of affording protection to our commerce in that vicinity."

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DISCOVERY OF A CORAL REEF.

THE "*Le Mauricien*" publishes the following extract from the log of the Nabob, from China, bound to London. It seems that the Nabob touched on a reef heretofore unknown, or not laid down on any of the charts.

"October 12th, 6 P. M., Panter Island's east end bore S. E., and Green Island S. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W., steering for the Alloo Passage, at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ A. M., passed the latter island, saw the Flat Islands bearing W. S. W. The wind being at S. S. E., kept the ship away W., to give the latter islands a clear berth, to round the west end, and to pass between them and the Lomblen shore, which is recommended by Horsburgh's Directory as being safe, and clear of any danger. At 5 P. M., saw discolored water close to the vessel. The helm was then up; but before the vessel wore round, she struck against an extensive coral reef, about four miles in length, N. E. and S. W., and about three broad. Ran out the small stream-anchor and hawser, and hove the ship off the bank; but the current or tide changed at the time, and drove the ship on the reef again. Ran out stream-anchor and cable, hove both cables taut; but the ship by this time had grounded forward, although there were four fathoms under her stern. The ship rounded, and struck very heavily, and made water. At 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ P. M., being then high water, set all sail aback on the ship, hove taut on both hawsers, when the ship backed off the reef; and for the safety of the ship and cargo, was obliged to cut away both hawsers—ship making a great deal of water, both pumps working. At midnight, when the ship was in stays off Middle Island, in the aforementioned strait, the coral rock was seen visible underneath the ship's bottom. N. E. point of the latter island bore W. S. W. about two miles. Passed over a dangerous coral reef in the Gillolo Passage, having on it about twenty feet of water. Boe Islands bore from it E. by S., and Pulow Passage S. S. W., extending East and West about two miles, and a quarter of a mile in breadth."



LIGHT-HOUSE ON THE ISLAND OF FARO.

The following information has been received at the Department of State, (Washington, June 8, 1847,) from the Charge d'Affaires of the United States at Stockholm:—

"The Royal Marine Department of Sweden hereby give notice, that a light-house will be erected on the N. E. point of the Island of Faro, North of Gottland. This structure will show revolving lights from a height of 80 feet; and, unless unexpected circumstances delay its completion, will be in operation during the month of October next.

"STOCKHOLM, April 16, 1847."

LIGHT ON LE FOUR ROCK.

The proposed improvements in the revolving light on Le Four Rock, which stands in lat. 47° 17' 53" North, lon. 2° 37' 56" West of Greenwich, were completed on the 15th of December, 1846. Its flashes now succeed each other at intervals of 30 seconds, instead of one minute, but the light will not entirely disappear within the distance of seven or eight miles. The lantern is 70 feet above the sea at high-water, and is visible, in clear weather, at the distance of eighteen miles.

LIGHT OF THE PHARO ON THE PUNTA DELLA CAMPANELLA.

Mariners are hereby informed, that from the 15th of April, 1847, a Catadioptrical apparatus of the 4th class, giving a constant and invariable light, was fixed on the Punta della Campanella, at the headland, opposite the island of Capri, lat. 40° 34' 11" N. and lon. 11° 59' 17" East of the meridian of Paris. The light is raised 90 pal. (about 24 metres) above the level of the sea, and is visible at a distance of ten miles, of sixty to the degree.

7. On hemlock, when not weighed,.....	0	2	5
8. On subs, 6 and 7, if transported in rafts,.....	2	0	0
25. On mahogany, (except veneering,) reduced to inch measure,.....	1	5	0
26. 1st. On sawed lath, less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop-poles, hand-spikes, rowing oars, broom-handles, spokes, hubs, tree-nails, fel-loes, boat-knees, plane-stocks, pickets for fences, and stuff manufactured or partly manufactured, for chairs or bed-steads, and hop-poles,.....per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
2d. On brush-handles, brush-backs, looking-glass backs, gun-stocks, plough-beams, and plough-handles,.....	0	2	0
27. On staves and heading, and empty barrels and casks, transported in boats,	0	1	0
28. On the same, if transported in rafts,.....	0	5	0
29. On shingles, carried in boats,.....	0	3	0
30. On the same, if conveyed in rafts,.....per M. per mile	0	4	0
31. On split posts, (not exceeding ten feet in length,) and rails for fencing, (not exceeding fourteen feet in length,) carried in boats,.....	2	0	0
32. On the same, if conveyed in rafts,.....	3	0	0
33. 1st. On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in manufacturing salt, which shall be exempt from toll,).....per cord per mile	0	5	0
2d. On tan-bark,.....	1	0	0
34. On the same, if transported in rafts,.....	2	0	0
35. On sawed stuff for window-blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window-sashes,.....per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0

Agricultural Productions, &c.

36. 1st. On wool,.....per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
2d. On cotton,.....	0	2	0
37. On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs and bones,.....	0	2	0
38. On horses, (and each horse when not weighed to be computed at 900 lbs.,)	0	3	0
39. On rags and junk,.....	0	4	0
40. 1st. On Manilla,.....	0	4	0
2d. On hemp and unmanufactured tobacco, going towards tide-water,....	0	1	0
3d. On unmanufactured tobacco, going from tide-water,.....	0	4	0
41. On pressed hay, and pressed broom-corn,.....	0	2	0
42. 1st. On corn and corn-meal,.....	0	3	0
2d. On potatoes, apples, and onions,.....	0	1	0
3d. On wheat, and all other agricultural productions of the U. States, not particularly specified, and not being merchandise,.....	0	4	0
43. On merchandise, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, viz:—			
1st. On sugar, molasses, coffee, nails and spikes, iron, steel, and crockery, oysters and clams in the shell, going from tide-water,.....	0	5	0
2d. On other merchandise,.....	0	8	0
3d. On mineral water,.....	0	4	0

Articles not enumerated.

44. On all articles not enumerated and excepted, passing from tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	8	0
45. On all articles not enumerated or excepted, passing toward tide-water,....	0	4	0

Boats and Passengers.

46. On boats used chiefly for the transportation of persons navigating the canals, per mile, viz:			
1. Genesee Valley, Cayuga and Seneca, and Chenango Canals,.....	3	0	0
2. All other canals,.....	5	0	0
47. On boats used chiefly for the transportation of property,.....per mile	2	0	0
48. On all persons over ten years of age,.....	0	0	5
49. On all articles of the manufacture of the United States, going towards tide-water, although they may be enumerated in the foregoing list, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	5	0

STATE OF NEW YORK, CANAL DEPARTMENT, }
Albany, April 12, 1847. }

I certify the foregoing to be a correct copy from the minutes of the Canal Board, on file in this office.
G. W. NEWELL, Chief Clerk.

NEW REGULATION OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

At a meeting of the Canal Board, State of New York Canal Department, Albany, May 20, 1847, the following resolution was passed:—

Resolved, That when a canal-boat is ascertained by a weigh-master to draw, at any part of the boat, over three and a half feet of water, collectors of tolls are prohibited from clearing or passing the boat, until enough of the cargo shall be unladen to reduce the draught of the boat to three and a half feet. If, in consequence of subsequent lading, the draught of the boat shall be found to exceed three and a half feet, the master or owner of such boat shall forfeit and pay a penalty of \$25, at each weigh-lock at which such overdraught shall be ascertained. *This order is to apply to boats laden after the 25th day of May, instant.*

PENNSYLVANIA STATE CANAL AND RAILROAD TOLLS.

The following statement of tolls received on the lines of canal and railroads of Pennsylvania, from the 30th November, 1846, to the 1st May, 1847, is derived from official sources:—

Offices.	April, 1847.	Total since Nov. 30.	Offices.	April, 1847.	Total since Nov. 30.
Easton.....	\$13,128 23	\$17,077 99	Johnstown.....	\$23,229 17	\$34,585 79
New Hope.....	954 09	1,599 36	Blairsville.....	1,115 79	2,941 26
Bristol.....	2,505 74	4,445 85	Freeport.....	445 17	752 95
Philadelphia.....	46,800 14	116,199 20	Pittsburgh.....	19,295 68	28,039 07
Paoli.....	1,232 29	6,161 91	Dunnsburg.....	2,655 50	3,926 77
Parksburg.....	2,189 78	16,813 13	Williamsport.....	2,095 09	2,660 22
Lancaster.....	4,602 96	34,003 99	Northumberland..	8,157 42	10,857 99
Columbia.....	39,999 61	67,147 60	Berwick.....	4,299 22	5,731 79
Portsmouth.....	1,157 84	1,721 75	Liverpool.....	1,599 19	2,457 77
Harrisburg.....	3,400 11	6,731 05	Schuylkill Viaduct	29 04	97 21
Newport.....	1,185 22	1,902 09	Portsmouth Outlet	216 22	240 87
Lewistown.....	4,000 35	7,596 22	Swatara Aqueduct	42 41	169 06
Hutingsdon.....	3,429 14	5,080 34	Duncan's Island..	266 53	1,236 53
Hollidaysburg....	21,884 22	33,094 71	Juniata Aqueduct.	4 96	29 59
Total.....	\$209,921 15	413,311 96			
Same period in 1846.....	123,376 83	241,336 51			
Increase in 1847.....	\$86,544 32	171,975 45			

UNITED STATES MAIL STEAMERS FOR EUROPE.

The following are the rates of postage prescribed by the act of the 3d of March, 1845, for mailable matter sent by this line to Europe:—

Upon all letters and packages not exceeding half an ounce in weight.....	24 c.
For all letters and packages over half an ounce, and under one ounce.....	48
For every additional half ounce.....	15
For every letter, newspaper, pamphlet, and price current.....	3

The Washington Union, the semi-official organ of the government of the United States, publishes the following explanation of the law regulating the mails of American steamers for Bremen, Cowes, &c.:—

“The act of Congress also requires that the United States postage will be charged in addition to the above upon all mailable matter sent through the mails of the United States to New York, from whence the ship sails for Bremen. Upon inquiry at the department, we learn that all mailable matter addressed to England, Ireland, or Scotland, will be left at the British post-office in Cowes or Southampton; and all for France, the Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, Spain and Portugal, and Africa, will be sent to Havre, in France; and that a separate bag will be made up for Hamburg, and delivered at Bremen-Haven. And as no arrangements have yet been completed between the post-offices of the United States and those of the above countries, pre-payment of the postage will be required at the office

from which sent upon all mailable matter directed to those countries. Upon mailable matter sent to other countries on the Eastern continent, pre-payment will not be required. It will be mailed for Bremen, where all unpaid postages will be collected for the United States by the Bremen office."

MISSISSIPPI AND ATLANTIC RAILROAD.

The following note, appended to the interesting address of Mr. Wait, which commences on the 67th page of the present number of this Magazine, was inadvertently omitted:—

The convention was organized by the appointment of Governor William Bebbs, of Ohio, President; Vice-Presidents—C. Rose, of Indiana; W. S. Wait, of Illinois; E. Morgan, of Ohio; S. Verbake, J. D. Early, J. M'Carty, of Indiana; Secretaries—Dr. J. S. Bobbs, and S. Dagg, of Indiana. There were eighty-eight members in attendance. Governor Bebbs presided with great ability, and the whole proceedings evinced a determination on the part of the members, and of the numerous and most respectable auditory that were present, to hasten the accomplishment of the great enterprise in view, with their best efforts, and to see it executed in a manner worthy of its character and importance.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

WE give below, from the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, a summary statement of the quantity and value of goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the United States, in American and foreign vessels, during the year ending 30th June, 1846:—

<i>Free of duty.</i>		Quantity.		Value.
	Quantity.	Value.		
Bullion, gold.....		\$14,150		
silver.....		33,579		
Specie—gold.....		896,263		
silver.....		2,833,740		
Teas.....	19,903,145	5,022,600		
Coffee.....	132,611,596	8,404,958		
Copper, in plates & sheets.....		840,815		
Copper, in pigs, bars and old.....		1,251,450		
Brass, in pigs, bars, and old.....		2,673		
Dye-wood, in sticks.....		588,654		
Barilla.....		24,428		
Burr stones, unwrt.....		44,688		
Crude brimstone.....		91,334		
All other articles.....		4,718,407		
Total.....		24,767,739		
<i>Paying duties ad valorem.</i>				
Manuf. of wool—				
cloths and cass'res.....		\$4,192,310		
merino shawls.....		296,124		
blankets, not over 75 cents each.....		165,393		
do. over 75 cents.....		468,852		
worsted stuffs.....		2,658,023		
hos'ry, gloves, etc.....		838,866		
wool. & wors. yarn.....		266,330		
other articles.....		788,027		
Manuf. of cotton—				
dyed, pr'd, or col'd.....		\$8,755,392		
white or uncol'd.....		1,597,120		
velvets, cords, fustians, etc.....		459,626		
twist, yarn or thr'd.....		656,571		
hos'ry, gloves, etc.....		1,308,202		
other manufact'res.....		753,714		
Silk & wors. goods.....		1,778,202		
Camlets and other manuf. of goats' hair and mohair.....		69,091		
Silks, floss, and manufac. not spec'd.....		1,864,811		
Lace, thr'd & cott'n do. gold & silv., etc.....		982,166		
Flax, linens, bleached and other.....		35,260		
Flax, other articles.....		4,492,602		
Hempen goods—sheetings, br'n and white.....		605,903		
ticklenburgs, osnaburgs & burlaps.....		64,010		
other articles.....		278,309		
Clothing r'dy-made.....		201,211		
oth. art. of wear.....		64,397		
Grass-cloth & carpeting, not spec'd.....		783,345		
matting and mats.....		64,992		
Wire, brass, copper and plated.....		176,673		
				16,794

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
dates.....	318,759	\$4,290	apothecar's vials, etc.....gross	513	\$2,583
raisins.....	11,290,178	665,166	bottles.....	12,626	64,623
Nuts, except those used for dyeing.	2,679,074	83,289	Demijohns.....No.	22,015	6,386
Spices—			Patent sheath. me- tal.....lbs.	45,567	11,341
mace.....	9,037	7,139	Pins, solid-headed, in packs of 5,000 each..... packs	18,844	14,764
nutmegs.....	129,869	108,566	do. pound pins. lbs.	3,377	1,470
cinnamon.....	14,045	12,040	Musk's & rifles.No.	2,973	6,700
cloves.....	360,907	58,344	Wire—		
pepper, black.....	3,117,758	100,998	iron and steel, cap and bonnet. lbs.	26,960	12,561
Cayenne pepper..	19,547	2,733	all other.....	72,828	11,898
pimento.....	2,261,145	133,780	Manuf. of iron—		
cassia.....	1,153,135	101,813	tacks, brads, sprigs	11,664	1,105
Ginger.....	1,009,034	43,480	wood-screws.....	64,177	17,037
Camphor.....	431,925	64,374	nails, cut & wr'ght	770,240	67,536
Cheese.....	57,436	7,051	spikes.....	10,306	351
Pearl barley.....	15,022	632	chain cables.....	2,374,925	77,911
Beef and pork.....	11,639	776	chains & oth. cab's	66	12
Hams and bacon...	36,936	4,276	wrought iron for ships, locomot's and st. engines.	54,621	7,297
Bristles.....	445,725	244,719	malleable iron....	17,599	2,406
Saltpetre.....	237,722	10,705	mill, cross-cut and pit saws.... No.	4,442	12,177
Indigo.....	1,292,877	898,518	st'm gas pipes. lbs.
Wood, or pastel....	31,319	754	anchors.....	49,755	2,133
Ivory black.....	16,045	1,682	anvils.....	1,270,451	78,684
Opium.....	61,678	295,859	blacksmith's ham- mers & sledges.	103,411	5,244
Glue.....	29,567	3,534	castings of vessels	631,194	20,415
Gunpowder.....	902	132	all other.....	656,678	10,323
Bleaching powder.	3,132,179	114,450	glazed or tin'd hol- low ware.....	363,386	29,101
Cotton.....	2,508,776	144,055	sad irons, hatters' & tailors' irons.	43,968	1,506
Thibet, Angora, & other goats' hair.	71,918	20,323	cast-ir. butt hinges	634,065	40,618
Cigars.....	880,208	1,282,861	axle-trees, or parts thereof.....	71,910	9,590
Dry ochre, & in oil	2,863,282	37,715	braziers' rods, from 3-16 to 10-16th inch diameter..	305,883	14,748
Red and white lead	215,434	15,685	nail or spike-rods, slit, rolled, or hammered.....	8,471	253
Cordage—			sheet & hoop iron	10,087,507	481,828
tarred, and cables	805,591	47,289	band, scroll, case- ment rods, etc...	6,754	200
untarred, and yarn	825,828	38,618	Iron—		
Twine & packthr'd	457,341	87,760	in pigs.....cwt.	483,756	489,573
Seines.....	9,045	3,753	old and scrap.....	47,247	56,534
Hemp.....cwt.	31,131	180,281	bar, man. by roll'g	482,176	1,127,418
Manilla, sun, and other hemps of India.....	128,283	457,276	bar, man. otherw'e	426,569	1,165,429
Jute, Sisal grass, coir, &c., used as hemp for cord'ge	21,758	92,507	Steel.....	103,141	1,234,408
Cordilla, or tow of hemp and flax...	Leather—		
Flax, unmanufac'd.	4,139	16,337	sole and upper. lbs.	5,554	1,582
Rags, all kinds. lbs.	9,897,706	385,397	gloves.dozens	176,061	800,287
Manuf. of glass—			boots & shoes. prs.	18,619	37,572
watch crystals and sp. glasses.gross	4,499	19,563	Skins—		
cut glass.....lbs.	14,830	13,416	tan'd & dress'd. lbs.	15,619	147,084
plain, moulded, or pressed, weigh- ing over 8 oz....	6,125	1,555			
do. do. do. w'ghing 8 oz., or under.	5,845	1,633			
plain tumblers...	4,277	1,177			
cylinder....sq. feet	76,260	6,420			
crown.....	105,833	17,814			
polished plate.....	106,646	31,849			

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
tan'd, not dressed	5,015	\$16,408	lexicons and all		
Paper, writing .lbs.	93,489	23,148	other.....	6,928	\$6,215
" all other....	192,609	54,276	Coal.....tons	156,853	378,597
Books—			Salt.....bush.	6,423,317	768,682
pr'd 40 yrs. before			Potatoes.....	62,589	22,721
imp'n.....vols.	21,031	16,170	Fish—		
in Lat. & Gr'k..lbs.	10,095	8,492	dried or smok.cwt.	875	9,319
in Hebrew.....	10,241	8,613	pickled.....bbls.	31,402	279,515
in English.....	141,769	130,294	Articles not enu-		
in oth. lang's..vols.	119,747	74,287	merated....value		121,756
in pamphlets and			Total.....		36,263,605
sheets.....lbs.	11,576	11,333			

IMPROVEMENT OF RIVERS AND HARBORS.

APPROPRIATIONS BY THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF RIVERS AND HARBORS.

The Secretary of War, in obedience to a call from Congress, communicated, a short time since, a report showing the amount appropriated by Congress, since the adoption of the federal constitution, for the improvement of rivers, harbors, &c. It appears that the first appropriation was made in 1806, the sum of \$48,400 being then voted by Congress for these objects. Since that time, appropriations have been made every year, except the following, viz:—1807, 1808, 1809, 1813, 1814, 1819, 1820, 1821, 1822, 1840, and 1846.

The total amount of the appropriations which have been made for the objects mentioned, since 1806, is \$17,199,223. Of this sum, \$5,150,518 was appropriated for harbors; \$4,349,850, for rivers; \$7,266,296, for roads, and \$432,559, for miscellaneous.

The following table shows the sums which have been appropriated to each State for all the above-named improvements. In some cases, as, for instance, the improvement of a river running through two States, the amount so expended is separately classified, as will be seen in the table:—

Maine.....	\$276,575	Mississippi.....	\$46,500
New Hampshire.....	10,000	Louisiana.....	717,200
Vermont.....	101,000	Arkansas.....	486,065
Massachusetts.....	526,148	Tennessee.....	11,920
Rhode Island.....	32,000	Kentucky and Tennessee.....	155,000
Connecticut.....	160,407	Missouri.....	75,000
New York.....	1,632,115	Mobile and Arkansas.....	100,000
New Jersey.....	28,963	Illinois.....	993,601
Pennsylvania.....	207,981	Indiana.....	1,270,734
Pennsylvania and Delaware....	38,413	Ohio.....	2,617,662
Delaware.....	2,038,356	Michigan.....	845,724
Maryland.....	55,000	Iowa.....	75,000
Maryland, Penna., and Virginia	1,901,228	Wisconsin.....	167,500
Virginia.....	25,000	States through which the Ohio,	
North Carolina.....	370,377	Missouri, Mississippi, & Ar-	
Georgia.....	243,043	kansas rivers run.....	1,698,000
Alabama.....	204,998		
Florida.....	287,713		\$17,199,223

From the above it will be seen that appropriations have been made for improvements in all the States, except South Carolina.

The following are the appropriations which have been made in Massachusetts, viz:—three appropriations for the improvement of Sandy Bay, amount, \$50,000; seven for Provincetown Harbor, \$27,850; two for Bass River Harbor, \$20,000; nine for Hyannis, \$70,932; two for Edgartown, \$3,725; one for New Bedford, \$10,000; three for Nantucket, \$44,265; two for the preservation of Rainsford Island, \$22,353; three for the preservation of Deer Island, \$159,390; one for the preservation of point of land at Duxbury, \$5,000; eleven for the preservation of Plymouth Beach, \$52,266.

The following table shows at a glance the total amount appropriated each year for the various objects named:—

1806.....	\$48,400	1823.....	\$32,920	1831.....	\$926,312	1839.....	\$60,500
1810.....	60,000	1824.....	175,000	1832.....	1,225,008	1841.....	75,000
1811.....	50,000	1825.....	176,712	1833.....	1,159,452	1842.....	100,000
1812.....	30,800	1826.....	284,253	1834.....	1,641,621	1843.....	230,000
1815.....	100,000	1827.....	398,541	1835.....	1,352,244	1844.....	696,500
1816.....	10,000	1828.....	1,020,121	1836.....	1,837,520	1845.....	50,000
1817.....	4,000	1829.....	608,560	1837.....	1,768,219		
1818.....	317,990	1830.....	672,506	1838.....	2,087,044	Total.	\$17,199,223

MARINE DISASTERS FOR 1846.

The particulars of the loss of vessels enumerated below, have been published in the Sailors' Magazine for the past year:—

Ships.....	64	Sloops.....	33
Barks.....	61	Steamers.....	9
Brigs.....	129		
Schooners.....	194	Total.....	490

The above belonged to the following countries:—

United States—Ships.....	28	France—Brigs.....	1
“ Barks.....	18	Spain—Ships.....	1
“ Brigs.....	74	“ Barks.....	2
“ Schooners.....	168	“ Brigs.....	3
“ Sloops.....	17	“ Schooners.....	1
“ Steamers.....	6	Sweden—Ships.....	1
England—Ships.....	27	“ Barks.....	2
“ Barks.....	28	“ Brigs.....	1
“ Brigs.....	29	Holland—Brig.....	1
“ Schooners.....	17	Sardinia—Sloop.....	1
France—Ships.....	1		
“ Barks.....	5	Total.....	442

To which are to be added 58 vessels lost in a single gale, at Havana and Matanzas; making 490 in all. The number of lives known to have been lost is 535. Twenty-seven vessels are still missing.

CANADIAN EXPORT OF BREAD-STUFFS.

The following is a table of the exports, by sea, of wheat, flour, oats, and peas, from Montreal and Quebec, for the last nine years:—

Years.	Flour. Bbbs.	Wheat. Bush.	Oats. Bush.	Peas. Bush.	Years.	Flour. Bbbs.	Wheat. Bush.	Oats. Bush.	Peas. Bush.
1838,	59,204	1,415	1843,	209,957	144,233	3,651	88,318
1839,	48,427	3,336	2,855	1844,	415,467	282,183	24,574	130,355
1840,	315,612	142,059	59,878	1845,	442,228	396,252	53,530	220,912
1841,	356,210	562,862	123,574	1846,	555,602	534,747	46,060	216,339
1842,	294,799	204,107	5,666	78,985					

PHILADELPHIA CATTLE MARKET.

The following is a comparative statement of the supply of Cattle at this market during the last three years:

	1846.	1845.	1844.
Beef Cattle.....	47,500	51,298	45,732
Cows and Calves.....	14,480	18,805	18,519
Swine.....	18,670	26,445	25,420
Sheep and Lambs.....	55,810	56,948	54,056
Total.....	136,460	153,506	143,727

PRO-FORMA ACCOUNT SALES 1,293 BUSHEL INDIAN CORN,

Shipped in bulk by ———, *Fulton county, Illinois, put in sacks at New Orleans, consigned to ———, Boston.*

1845.		
June 25,	Sold 411 sacks, (at auction, on arrival),—gross weight, 55,896 lbs., tare, 411 lbs., leaving 55,485 lbs., or 1,055 bushels, at 55 cts.	\$508 25
"	Sold 50 sacks, damaged,—gross weight, 6,850 lbs., tare 50 lbs., 6,800 lbs., nett, or 128 bushels, at 37½ cts.	48 00
"	461 sacks, (gunny bags,) containing same, at 6¼ cents each.....	28 81
		\$657 06

CHARGES.

Freight on Illinois River to St. Louis, 1,293 bush., at 5 cts.	\$64 65
Forwarding charges at St. Louis.....	10 00
Freight, per steamer from St. Louis to New Orleans, on 1,293 bushels, at 12½ cents per bushel.....	161 62
Forwarding at New Orleans, 1 cent per bush.; drayage, labor, &c., at 2 cents per bush.,—1,293 bush., at 3 cts.	38 79
461 gunny bags, at 12½ cents each; twine, \$2 00.....	59 62
Insurance on Illinois and Mississippi Rivers, at 1¼ per cent, on \$387.....	4 84
Freight from New Orleans to Boston, at 14 cents per bushel, and 5 per cent primage.....	173 90
Wharfage, at ½ cent per bushel.....	5 91
Labor and weighing, 25 cents per ton.....	6 95
State duty, (on auction sales,) 1 per cent.....	6 33
Marine insurance, from N. Orleans, 1½ per ct. on \$700.	10 50
Labor, use of tarpaulins, advertising, postage, &c.....	3 72
Commissions, 2¼ per cent on \$657 06.....	16 42
	\$563 55

Nett proceeds..... \$93 51

Boston, Mass., July 1, 1845.

E. E.

The above sales are a fair average as regards prices, freight, &c., in ordinary years. One-half of the Illinois River freight, and all transshipping charges at St. Louis, can be saved when the rivers are high enough to allow first and second class steamboats to load above St. Louis. A saving can also be made by landing at Lafayette, or Thayer's warehouses, in New Orleans, where the whole charge is one cent per bushel, for storage, forwarding, &c. Corn is sold at 56 lbs. to a bushel, in the Western States; 53 lbs. are considered a bushel of Western corn, in Boston.

TRADE OF CANTON, SHANGHAE, AND AMOY, IN 1846.

British authorities, received by the *Britannia*, furnish us with a summary of the official returns of the trade with these ports, during the year 1846; and the revenue of Hong Kong, during the same year, as follows:—

The total public expenditure at Hong Kong, in 1846, was £60,351; the total revenue received, £27,047. The heaviest items of expenditure are:—Judicial and police department, £19,365; civil government, £14,340; public works and buildings, £17,575; revenue departments, £6,614. The principal sources of revenue are:—Rents, £15,572; licenses, £7,102; police assessment, £1,575.

The estimated value of British imports into Canton, in 1846, was 10,214,383 Spanish dollars; or, at 4s. 4d. per dollar, £2,213,116 6s. 4d. About two-fifths of this amount consisted of British manufactures; the remainder, of products of India and other countries. This merchandise was imported in 182 British vessels, of 85,937 tons, and 100 Hong Kong lorchas, 5,510 tons burden. The British exports from Canton, in the year 1846, are valued at 15,378,560 Spanish dollars, or £3,332,021 6s. 8d. They were exported in 175 British vessels, of 78,374 tons, and 58 Hong Kong lorchas, of 3,456 tons burden. There

arrived at Canton, in 1846, 214 British vessels, of 92,896 tons; 64 American, of 29,049; 4 French, of 1,283; 8 Dutch, of 2,747; 1 Belgian, of 300; 1 Danish, of 305; 6 Swedish, of 1,791; 4 Hamburg, of 1,097; 1 Bremen, of 152; 1 Prussian, of 550; in all, 304 vessels, of 130,170 tons. There sailed 207 British vessels, of 88,880 tons; 65 American, of 29,788; 4 French, of 1,283; 8 Dutch, of 2,574; 1 Belgian, of 300; 1 Danish, of 305; 6 Swedish, of 1,978; 4 Hamburg, of 1,097; 1 Prussian, of 550; in all, 297 vessels, of 126,755 tons.

The British imports into Shanghai, in 1846, are valued at £810,200; they were imported in 54 British vessels, of 15,069 tons. The exports for the same year are valued at £1,352,530; they were exported in 50 British vessels, of 14,159 tons. There arrived at Shanghai, in the course of the year, 54 British vessels, of 15,069 tons; 17 American, of 5,322; 2 Spanish, of 750; 1 Swedish, of 206; 1 Bremen, of 152; 1 Hamburg, of 260; in all, 76 vessels, of 21,759 tons. There sailed 50 British vessels, of 14,159 tons; 17 American, of 5,322; 2 Spanish, of 750; 1 Swedish, of 206; 1 Bremen, of 152; 1 Hamburg, of 260; in all, 72 vessels, of 20,849 tons.

The estimated value of British imports into Amoy, in 1846, was £1,667,935 5s.; they were imported in 45 British vessels, of 9,378 tons. The estimated value of British exports was £8,436 15s. 2d.; they were exported in 45 British vessels, of 9,378 tons.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

PERFUMERY: ITS USES AND MANUFACTURE.

MESSRS. CAREY & HART, of Philadelphia, have recently published a work on the manufacture and use of perfumery.* The importance which is attached to perfumery by reason of its large and increasing consumption in the United States, renders the instructions as to the mode of its manufacture, imparted in the present volume, necessary, in a commercial point of view at least; and valuable, moreover, as a guide-book for the manufacturer, and as a protection to the purchaser against all improper and deleterious compositions. The knowledge which this work conveys, we are assured by the highly respectable publishers, and the learned chemist who prepared it, may be relied on for its accuracy and completeness to the present time. Extending to every branch and subdivision of the art, and comprising authoritative recipes for all the fashionable preparations now imported from the Parisian and Italian markets, and much other information, it may in justice be considered a complete preceptor in the matters of which it treats. The three distinct classes connected with the trade—the manufacturer, the merchant, and the trader, or retailer of perfumery—to each of which the work is addressed, will find it useful, if not indispensably necessary, in the prosecution of their business.

We copy the opening chapter of the work, which treats of

THE TRADE OF THE PERFUMER.

“The manufacturer of perfumery has more facilities for the furtherance of his art, either in large cities where there are ready opportunities for the disposal of his products, or in those places where the plants required in this branch of fabrication are indigenous and at hand. For instance, Paris consumes largely of perfumery, besides being an extensive export mart, whilst Greece and Italy afford abundant harvests of flowers. These three localities furnish the most important fabrics of perfumery.

“There are manufactured different qualities of perfumery; the best and most elegantly embellished is consigned to an appropriate market in cities, whilst the ordinary and inferior kinds, deficient in costly wrappings and trimmings, are sent to the smaller traders in lesser towns, or disposed of to pedlars. The house of Hadancourt, St. Bridge, Paris, is a pattern establishment of this class, enjoying a sure and profitable encouragement.

* Perfumery: its Manufacture and Use. With Instructions in every branch of the Art, and Recipes for all the fashionable preparations. The whole forming a valuable aid to the Perfumer, Druggist, and Soap Manufacturer. Illustrated by numerous wood cuts. From the French of Clenart and other late authorities, with additions and improvements by Campbell Morfit, Practical and Analytical Chemist. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

"Another class, embracing all the expensive preparations, choicest perfumes and rich accessories, is represented at the fashionable bazaar of Houbigaut, whose pre-eminence, as to correct taste, in his profession, and strict compliance with the vagaries of fashion, have obtained for him an enviable success.

"The third class, uniting the other two, exhibits itself in the manufactures of Laugier, Dissey & Pivert, of Paris, and Roussel,* and Huel, of Philadelphia. In their vast warehouses are packed all kinds and styles of perfumery, from the plain delftware pot of simple pomade, to the brilliant flagons and porcelain cases, of innumerable designs, richly embellished, and well filled with perfumes of exquisite and multifarious odors.

"To insure success in this business, there are requisite talent, great activity, and considerable capital. Each manufacturer issues a list of his products with the *wholesale* prices annexed, as a guide to the retailer, who heretofore and still, by an arbitrary rule of general practice, as his profit, makes an exorbitant addition to the original cost of 100 per cent. As to the policy of this, a word or two may not be inappropriate. It is a well-known fact, that, generally speaking, the sale of an article is in a ratio proportional to its price, and with perfumery, for instance, it is the high and unreasonable charges, therefore, that limit its consumption. To sell in quantity and cheaply, though diminishing the gains in detail, augments the gross profits by extending the market—an axiom which would be of profitable application in the commerce of perfumery."

THE AMERICAN MINING JOURNAL.

The first number of a new semi-monthly journal, with the above title, was published by JOHN E. GRANT, ESQ., on the 9th of June, 1847. It closely resembles, in its appearance, the celebrated "Mining Journal and Railroad Gazette," of London, and like that journal is to be "devoted to the subject of mines and mining, metals, and minerals." It is conducted by a gentleman of intelligence, who will doubtless secure the aid and co-operation of a large class of persons interested in mining. From the introductory remarks to the first number, we give a single extract, from which our readers may form some idea of the general character and design of the enterprise:—

"In former times, and in a different state of society from that which now exists, when the whole circle of the useful arts was within the geographical limits of less than one-half of the Eastern continent, and animal power was used for most of the purposes of transportation, but a small comparative amount of metals was required for the uses of human life. The discovery of this continent, the introduction of a more intelligent and higher civilization, the discovery of steam-power, and the various inventions and improvements which have followed, upon land and sea, have produced wonderful changes in the business of the world, and extended widely the uses of the metals in the service of mankind. In iron and lead, the reduced price shows that the supply has kept pace with the demand; while, in copper, the advanced and still advancing price gives evidence that the demand has increased upon the supply. Many of our citizens will recollect the time when most, if not all the iron and lead used in the United States was imported from other countries, and with what suspicion and fear our citizens embarked in any enterprise which had for its object the mining and smelting of those metals. The wonderful discoveries of lead on the Upper Mississippi, and the immense quantities mined and manufactured, have astonished all who have given attention to the subject, either in Europe or America. The immense deposits of iron ore, in various parts of the United States, and the discoveries continually being made, are not less surprising; and if not so much now the subject of remark as formerly, it is because the public ear has become so familiar with the reports of new discoveries that they have lost their public interest. The fact of a discovery of a mountain of iron ore, an ore-bed covering thousands of acres, or a coal-field extending scores of miles, now creates but little attention and no excitement.

"The discovery of the immense deposits of copper, in the region of country bordering on Lake Superior, at first attracted some attention, and afterwards created considerable excitement; but the excitement over, the fact of their existence was added to the many

* While on a visit to Philadelphia, in January last, we visited the extensive perfumery manufactory of Eugene Roussel, the most extensive establishment of the kind in the United States, an account of which we prepared and published in the Merchants' Magazine for February, 1847. M. Roussel was for many years, previous to his settlement in Philadelphia, in the employ of Laugier, Dissey & Pivert, of Paris, and now manufactures perfumery and soaps, in all their variety, equal to the Parisian house.

evidences of the great mineral wealth of this country. The development of these mines is left now to private enterprise and ingenuity, and promises profitable rewards. To aid that portion of our fellow-citizens who are, or may be hereafter engaged in exploring for, locating, and working these mines, we shall place before them full and correct information as to the discoveries of new mines, the annual yield of those discovered, the improvements made from time to time in tools and machinery used in the mines, the discoveries of new, and the improvements of old methods of smelting and manufacturing the metal, and the new purposes to which the metal has been or can be applied."

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**THE BRITISH IRON MANUFACTURE:**

WITH REFERENCE TO THE VALUE OF MECHANICAL SKILL AND LABOR.

To show how cheaply iron is obtained, and how the mechanical skill and labor expended upon it totally overshadow the original price, a late number of the British Quarterly Review gives the following curious and instructive calculation:—

|                                                             |        |                                 |           |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------|-----------|
| Bar-iron worth £1 sterling, is worth, when converted into—  |        |                                 |           |
| Horse-shoes,.....                                           | £2 10  | Pen-knife blades,.....          | £657 00   |
| Knives (table),.....                                        | 36 00  | Polished buttons and buckles,.  | 897 00    |
| Needles,.....                                               | 71 00  | Balance springs of watches,.... | 50,000 00 |
| Cast-iron worth £1 sterling, is worth, when converted into— |        |                                 |           |
| Ordinary machinery,.....                                    | £4 00  | Neck chains, &c.,.....          | £1,396 00 |
| Larger ornamental work, .....                               | 45 00  | Shirt-buttons,.....             | 5,896 00  |
| Buckles and Berlin work,.....                               | 600 00 |                                 |           |

Thirty-one pounds of Shropshire iron have been made into wire upwards of 111 miles in length; and so fine was the fabric, that a part of it was humorously converted, in lieu of the horse-hair, into a barrister's wig. The process followed to effect this extraordinary tenuity, consists of heating the iron, and passing it through rollers of eight inches diameter, going at the rate of 400 revolutions per minute, down to No. 4 on the wire-gauge. It is afterwards drawn cold, at Birmingham or elsewhere, down to the extent of 38 on the same gauge, and so completed to the surprising length of 111 miles. Of the quantity of iron manufactured in Great Britain, South Wales produces 279,500 tons; Staffordshire, 219,500; Shropshire, 81,250; Scotland, 37,750; Yorkshire, 33,000; Derbyshire, 22,500; and North Wales, 25,000.

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THE COMMISSIONER OF PATENTS' REPORT.

The Report of the Hon. Edmund Burke, the able and efficient Commissioner of Patents, recently published, shows that, during the year ending December 1, 1846, there were 1,272 applications for patents. The number of patents issued, during the same period, was 619, including 13 re-issues, 5 additional improvements, and 59 designs. The number of patents expired, 473. Three applications for extensions have been made, two of which were rejected, and one is still pending. Two patents have been extended by Congress. There have been received by the Commissioner, \$50,264 16; of which sum, \$11,086 99 have been repaid on applications withdrawn, and for money paid in by mistake. The expenses of the office, during the year, were as follows: for salaries, \$16,142 97; temporary clerks, \$5,785 61; contingent expenses, \$7,485 19; compensation of district judge, \$100; library, \$675 96; agricultural statistics, \$2,610 68; making the total amount of expenses, \$33,700 41. There was also paid for the restoration of records and drawings, \$786 31, and for duplicate models, \$585; making the aggregate of expenditures, including the amount paid back on withdrawals, \$46,158 71; leaving a balance to be carried to the credit of the patent fund, of \$4,105 45. The amount of money in the Treasury, to the credit of the patent fund, on the 1st of January, 1845, was \$182,459 69. The balance paid in on the 1st of January, 1847, increased it to \$186,565 14. The Commissioner, in

his Report, speaks of the existing law, by which a subject of Great Britain is compelled to pay into the Treasury the sum of \$500 before his application can be examined, and the citizens and subjects of all foreign countries to pay \$300 on their respective applications. He says :—

“ These duties were designed to bear some proportion to the duties required of American citizens making applications for patents in other countries, and on that ground may, perhaps, be justified and defended.

“ The effect of this provision is, unquestionably, to prevent the introduction into this country of many useful and valuable discoveries, which would otherwise be patented and introduced. Similar high duties have the effect to exclude American inventions from other countries. Thus, all countries are injured by this system of taxing genius for the exertion of its powers, in order to obtain, comparatively, a very small and trifling amount of revenue.

“ It affords no protection to the American inventor, to keep out the discoveries of his foreign emulator (not rival) in the arts, by taxing the emanations of his genius with high duties, while the country would derive much benefit from their introduction.”

We shall have occasion to refer to this Report in a future number of the Merchants' Magazine.

REAL CHALK IN THE UNITED STATES.

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

It is mentioned as a well-known fact, by all writers on the Geology of the United States, that true “ chalk has never been discovered in this country ;” yet the chalk formation, or the cretaceous system, extends, in nearly a straight line, from New Jersey to Florida ; because a great many fossil marine shells, which are found in the chalk of France and England, have been identified in the calcareous and sandstone rocks of New Jersey, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama ; because many other animals, which are extinct at the present day, have been dug out in the green sand of both Europe and this country, and because the cretaceous system, which includes the marls, oolite, the beds of clay, and the magnesian limestone, correspond to that general great era of Revolution which must have taken place coterminously in both hemispheres. Chalk is said not to have been found *in situ*, but the doubt hitherto expressed on this subject may safely be cleared up ; for I brought with me, a few weeks ago, from Georgia, an interesting specimen of *real chalk*, enclosing flint ; a most striking characteristic of the chalk of Lunenburg, Paris and London. The specimen I have exhibited to a number of my scientific friends, who all pronounce it in the highest degree interesting. I have treated it chemically, and its effervescing in muriatic acid, its behaviour before the blowpipe, convinced me that chalk must be found in larger deposits. I have also a few specimens of *Echinus infolatus*, from the same locality, and hope, in a short time, to discover a continuous bed of the substance.

LEWIS FEUCHTWANGER.

Dr. Feuchtwanger has shown us a specimen of the real chalk, as described in the foregoing communication, and has no doubt that it is to be found in great abundance in a large region of our country, so that it will not be necessary to go to France or Newcastle for the article.—[*Ed. Merchants' Magazine.*]

MANUFACTURE OF REFINED INGOT COPPER.

It is stated in the *Baltimore American* that the Baltimore Copper Smelting Company have recently commenced the manufacture of *refined ingot copper*, designed for the supply of founders and other workers in brass. It is turned out, after the process of refinement, in ingot shape, and of great purity ; and, as far as it has yet been submitted to the test of the practical worker, has met with decided approval. There is every reason to believe that the production of the metal in this form will become an important part of the company's steadily growing operations.

THE COAL AND IRON TRADE.

We published in the June number of the Merchants' Magazine, an article, which we entitled "The Iron Trade of Europe and the United States: with Special Reference to the Iron Trade of Pennsylvania." That article was prepared by Col. C. G. Childs, and originally appeared, in a series of numbers, in the "Philadelphia Commercial List." With the permission of Col. Childs, who had secured the copyright, we transferred it to our pages. We have since received from the author a pamphlet, entitled "*The Coal and Iron Trade, Embracing Statistics of Pennsylvania; a Series of Articles Published in the Philadelphia Commercial List, in 1847. Prepared by C. G. Childs;*" which embodies all that was reproduced in our Journal, with much additional matter. It now forms a most valuable compend of the leading interests of Pennsylvania, with full statistical tables of the coal and iron trade of that State; and reflects the highest credit on the research and industry of the able and indefatigable editor of one of the best commercial journals in the United States. It is, we understand, the intention of the author to issue in all this year, a second edition, which will contain an account of about one hundred additional iron-works, with a concise account of several of the principal rolling-mills in the United States, the whole brought down to the close of 1847.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK STATE BANKS AT PAR IN THE CITY.

We give below a list of the banks, in the State of New York, which are redeemed at different banks in the city of New York. The table, it will be seen, also exhibits a statement of the condition of their affairs on the 1st of May, 1847:—

Names of banks.	Place of redemption.	Loans and Specie.		Reg. notes Due de- iss'd & in posit. on circulat'n. demand.	
		Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Albany Exchange.....	Merchants' Bank.....	369,432	7,149	79,655	150,516
Dutchess County.....	Manhattan Bank.....				
Farmers', Troy.....	Merchants' Bank.....	680,356	14,028	188,266	178,129
Powel, Newburgh.....	Amer. Exchange B'k.	114,876	5,995	106,478	82,453
Hudson River.....	Leather Manuf. Bank .	315,215	5,851	157,115	96,761
Farmers', Hudson.....	Mechanics' Bank.....	124,136	5,452	95,018	87,619
Farmers' and Drivers', Somers.	Merch. Exch. Bank...	77,274	5,538	42,577	19,268
Farmers' and Man., Poughk'e.	State Bank.....	523,149	21,143	242,310	197,750
Kingston.....	State Bank.....	351,097	8,906	197,609	54,155
Tanners', Catskill.....	Amer. Exchange B'k.	198,306	5,177	140,000	68,859
Catskill.....	Mechanics' Bank.....	173,112	7,320	120,856	28,164
Highland, Newburgh.....	Phoenix Bank.....	361,132	12,467	196,474	111,379
Long Island.....	Phoenix Bank.....	622,535	34,350	163,950	426,661
Bank of Poughkeepsie.....	Fulton Bank.....	201,074	17,707	142,127	101,083
Atlantic, Brooklyn.....	Fulton Bank.....	911,628	40,239	251,766	339,944
Bank of Newburgh.....	Merch. Exch. Bank...	248,214	12,295	112,375	84,643
Ulster County.....	Merch. Exch. Bank...	212,588	6,082	138,636	47,063
Westchester County.....	Merch. Exch. Bank...	308,131	10,495	165,912	54,294
Bank of Kinderhook.....	Amer. Exchange B'k.	106,738	3,336	71,537	60,994
Prattsville.....	Mechanics' Bank.....	144,058	2,764	91,644	16,877
Commercial, Albany.....	Bank of Commerce...	596,295	22,317	187,099	213,958
Merchants', Poughkeepsie.....	Phoenix Bank.....	187,474	4,595	116,951	100,387

PAYMENT OF INTEREST ON TREASURY NOTES.

By an official letter, dated Treasury Department, Register's Office, May 18th, 1847, the interest on 6 per cent Treasury notes, issued under the act of 28th of January last, which run two years, will be paid semi-annually, on the first days of July and January; but it is not likely that any interest less than an entire half year will be paid on such notes, so that the first payment of interest will probably be on the first day of January, 1848.

RESOURCES AND LIABILITIES OF THE BANKS OF NEW YORK.

We are indebted to the politeness of A. C. FLAGG, Esq., Comptroller of the State of New York, for an official copy of the abstract of the quarterly reports made to the comptroller's office, by the several incorporated banks, banking associations, and private bankers, in pursuance of an act of the Legislature of the State, passed April 18, 1843. This statement embraces 154 banks and two branches, including one from which a report was not received. From this statement of the condition of the banks of New York, on the morning of the 1st of May, 1847, which gives the name of each bank, and the various resources and liabilities of the same, under each head, we compile the following summary of the total resources and liabilities of the 154 banks, &c.:—

RESOURCES.	
Loans and discounts.....	\$70,216,117
Loans and discounts to directors of the banks.....	4,806,415
Loans and discounts to brokers.....	1,666,021
Real estate.....	3,531,016
Bonds and mortgages.....	2,745,020
Stocks and promissory notes.....	11,652,804
Due from directors, other than loans and discounts.....	49,025
Due from brokers, other than for loans and discounts.....	221,044
Bank fund.....	175,802
Loss and expense account.....	274,121
Overdrafts	111,856
Specie.....	11,312,171
Cash items.....	8,793,286
Bills of solvent banks on hand.....	2,511,920
Bills of suspected banks on hand.....	3,301
Due from banks and bankers.....	11,886,943
Total resources.....	\$129,956,862
LIABILITIES.	
Capital	\$43,176,159
Profits	5,641,560
Bank notes issued and in circulation.....	754,000
Registered notes issued and in circulation.....	23,055,548
Due treasurer of the State of New York.....	296,401
Due commissioners of the canal fund.....	534,822
Due depositors on demand.....	35,799,954
Due individuals.....	1,011,522
Due banks.....	18,831,900
Due treasurer of the United States.....	178,517
Amount due not included under other heads.....	676,435
Total liabilities.....	\$129,956,862

 THE DOLLAR MARK.

In the Merchants' Magazine for March, 1847, we published several statements as to the origin of the dollar (\$) mark. A correspondent of the "New Orleans Commercial Times" publishes the following from a correspondent, and expresses the opinion that it is the most likely to solve the difficulty. Here it is:—

"I have observed in several public prints lately, some amusing attempts to make a mystery out of a very simple matter—I mean the dollar mark, or prefix. One paragraph derives it from an abbreviation of a representation of the pillars of Hercules, which are supposed to be represented upon the Spanish dollar. Another makes it an abbreviation of U. S. The true derivation of it is the figure 8. The Spaniards, from whom we derive the dollar, count by reals—as the French do by francs. A real is in value 12½ cents, or one-eighth part of a dollar. Any one who has read Gil Blas or Don Quixotte will recollect the phrase "PIECE OF EIGHT," which is frequently used by the authors of those works. This

term, then, means nothing more than a dollar, or 8 reals. When, therefore, the dollar became generally used, the figure 8 was prefixed to express dollars, and in process of time the 8 has been changed to the present mark. It has been asserted, but I know not whether correctly or not, that Gen. Hamilton first used this mark, soon after the adoption of our currency of dollars and cents. However this may be, the figure 8 is no doubt the original of the mark, and the derivation I have given above the correct one."

STOCK INVESTMENTS.

A New York correspondent of the "Banker's Magazine and State Financial Register," published at Baltimore, on the first of each month, by J. Smith Homans, furnishes the following stock list and calculator, which we transfer to the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, as matter of interest to dealers in stocks:—

In the annexed stock list, you will find the value of each stock at different periods so as to yield 6 per cent until redeemed. If you think that it would be interesting to add that value to your monthly quotations, as a guide for the speculator or capitalist, I will send you a list of the values on the 1st June, July, August, &c. In that value, the interest accrued at the time of purchase is taken into consideration.

I have another calculation which would prove useful, in showing the per centage produced on a purchase at any given price, and might attract attention if you gave a monthly list of sales of State stocks in our market with the above information.

Let us suppose that, on the 15th May, the following sales were made, viz:—

U. S. 6 per cent of 1862, at 107 00 (redeemed in 16½ years.)
 4½ months interest, or 2 25 having accrued, the cost

is reduced to 104 75 which is equal to an investment at 5.563 per cent.

Again, 5 per cent City Water Stock, of 1860, thirteen years to run, at 92½, interest payable quarterly, yields 5.994 per cent.

My system has been thoroughly examined by several competent persons, and you can therefore rely upon its correctness. I have avoided two great errors in Mr. Price's tables: 1st. The interest I always deem to be re-invested at 6 per cent, and to accumulate every six months.

If a person were to buy stock, to yield 10 per cent, at the rate indicated by Mr. Price's tables, it would be necessary that he should always re-invest the dividends at 10 per cent, which is impossible, otherwise the result would turn out different.

2d. His tables show a 6 per cent stock purchased at par, to yield more than 6 per cent, because he accumulates once a year. My tables enable a speculator to make a close comparison with every kind of investment, in stocks, as well as on bond and mortgage.

State and city stocks, June 1st, 1847.	Pres. value at 6 p. ct.	State and city stocks, June 1st, 1847.	Pres. value at 6 p. ct.
U. S. Loan, 6 p. ct. ½ 1862 & 1856	102 50	N. Y. State, 5 p. ct.	1851 97 80
" 5 " ½ 1853	97 05	" 5 " 1853	95 67
N. Y. State, 7 " 1848	102 28	" 5 " 1858	93 13
" 7 " 1849	103 22	" 5 " 1859	92 66
" 6 " 1854	101 28	" 5 " 1860	92 21
" 6 " 1860	101 42	" 5 " 1862	91 42
" 6 " 1861	101 45	" 4½ " 1849	97 30
" 6 " ½ 1861	102 50	" 4½ " 1858	88 64
" 6 " 1862	101 46	" 4½ " 1859	88 29
" 6 " 1867	102 50	" 4½ " 1864	85 50
" 5½ " 1860	96 86	City, 7 " 1852	104 83
" 5½ " ½ 1860	97 79	" 7 " 1857	108 24
" 5½ " 1861	96 71	" 5 " 1850	98 16
" 5½ " ½ 1861	97 69	" 5 " 1856	94 14
" 5½ " 1865	95 92	" W. L'n. 5 " 1848	92 97
" 5 " 1848	100 36	" " 5 " 1860	92 01
" 5 " 1849	99 00	" " 5 " 1870	88 40
" 5 " 1850	98 12	" Fire L'n. 5 " 1868	89 83

N. B. The present value, to yield 6 per cent, includes the interest accrued since the last payment. The interest on State stocks marked ½, is payable semi-annually—on the others, quarterly.

DISCOUNTS IN LONDON.

The following is the rate of discount paid in London on the first class bills, on the first day of every month, from January, 1824, to September, 1844:—

Years.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1824.....	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	4½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½
1825.....	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	4	4	4	4	4	4½	4½
1826.....	5	5	5	5	5	4½	4½	4	4	4	4	4
1827.....	4	3½	3½	3½	3½	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
1828.....	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3½
1829.....	4	3½	3½	4	3½	3½	3½	3	3	3	3	3
1830.....	3	3	2¾	2¾	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2¾	3	4
1831.....	3¼	3	3½	3½	4	4	4	4	3½	3½	4	4
1832.....	4	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3	3	3	2¾	2¾	2¾
1833.....	2¾	2½	2½	2½	2½	3½	3½	2½	3	3	3½	3½
1834.....	3½	3	2¾	3	3¼	3¼	3¼	3¼	4	3¾	3¾	3¾
1835.....	3¾	3¼	3½	3¾	3¾	4	4	3½	3¾	3¾	3¾	3¾
1836.....	3¾	3¾	3½	3¾	3¾	4	4	4½	5	5	5½	5½
1837.....	5½	5½	5½	5½	4½	4½	4½	4	3½	3	3½	3½
1838.....	3½	3	3	2¾	2½	2¾	3	2¾	3	3	3½	3½
1839.....	3¾	3	3¾	3¾	4	5	5½	6	6½	6	6½	6½
1840.....	6	4¾	4¾	4¾	4¾	4¾	4¾	4½	4¾	5	6	5¾
1841.....	5½	5	5	4½	4½	5	4½	4½	4¾	5	5½	5
1842.....	4¾	4½	3¾	3¾	3¼	3½	3½	3	2½	2½	2½	2½
1843.....	2½	2½	2	2	2	2¼	2¼	2	2	2¼	2	2½
1844.....	2¼	2	2	2	1¾	2	2	1¾	2

NATIONAL BANK OF IRELAND.

The annual meeting of the National Bank of Ireland was held on the 26th May, 1847. The Report stated that the Directors had contributed upwards of £1,000, towards relieving the general distress in Ireland. The bank had been prosperous during the past year. In addition to the two half-yearly dividends which were paid for 1846, amounting to £22,500, there remained a surplus of £10,612, which had been carried to the credit of the reserve fund, whereby it was increased to £50,108 15s. 3d. It was thus accounted for:—

Undivided profit, December, 1845.....	£39,496	15	0
Nett profit for year ending December, 1846.....	33,112	0	3
	£72,608	15	3
Deduct two half-yearly dividends.....	22,500	0	0

Leaving amount of undivided profit..... £50,108 15 3

In answer to a question from a proprietor, who was anxious to know in what state the bank stood with regard to its accounts with the late Governor, Mr. O'Connell, the chairman said, the balance due from the late Governor was not more than £4,000, and that they held life policies to the extent of £7,500, besides other securities, so that there would be no loss to the company. He stated this the more readily, as reports had got abroad that the late Governor was indebted to the bank £60,000 or £70,000.

BANK BILLS OF INDIA RUBBER.

The editor of the New London Star has been shown a one dollar bill, of the New Haven County Bank—genuine—the paper of which was of India rubber, manufactured in Lisbon. It was slightly elastic, but little thicker than the ordinary paper, and perfectly impervious to water. Indeed, to so great perfection had it been brought, both in the filling up, and in the ink used for the signatures, that it seems to have defied the common, and even some uncommon methods of obliteration. It had been soaked and boiled in strong potash lye, with scarcely any perceptible effect.

FRENCH REVENUE FIRST QUARTER OF 1847.

The *Moniteur* furnishes the following tabular statement of the receipts of indirect taxes for the first quarter of 1847, compared with the same time in 1846, which shows a decrease, in 1847, of 4,155,000 francs. Compared with 1845, the increase is 9,435,000 francs:—

	1847.	1846.		1847.	1846.
	Francs.	Francs.		Francs.	Francs.
Regis. dues, &c....	53,440,000	55,162,000	Public carriages .	8,341,000	8,866,000
Stamps.....	11,064,000	10,917,000	Tobacco sales..	27,581,000	27,822,000
Customs, nav., &c.	1,128,000	1,104,000	Gunpowder sales	1,436,000	1,230,000
French col. sugars.	9,866,000	8,946,000	Letters and duty		
Foreign sugars.....	1,775,000	1,078,000	on send. money.	12,277,000	12,497,000
Corn.....	772,000	5,083,000	Passengers by the		
Imp't dues on sund.	20,407,000	21,414,000	malles-postes..	468,000	512,000
Exp't dues on sund.	749,000	483,000	Do. by mails and		
Indigenous sugars.	6,591,000	5,340,000	packets.....	181,000	205,000
Salt dues (extra'c'n)	3,360,000	3,307,000			
Salt dues (cons'on)	11,594,000	11,187,000	Total.....	194,274,000	198,429,000
Potable liquors.....	23,094,000	23,576,000			

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF CONNECTICUT.

The report of the Commissioners to the General Assembly, represents the Banks to be in a sound, healthy and safe condition. During the year, every bank in the State has made at least its customary dividends, averaging $3\frac{3}{8}$ per cent semi-annually. The resources and liabilities of the thirty-two banks and branches are as follows:

RESOURCES.		LIABILITIES.	
Specie.....	\$462,165 53	Circulation.....	\$4,437,631 06
Bills of other Banks.....	227,481 00	Deposits.....	1,751,655 26
Checks and cash items.....	43,139 02	Due other Banks.....	245,816 88
Due from Banks.....	1,250,410 91	Dividends unpaid.....	31,266 59
Due from Brokers.....	332,542 20	Other liabilities.....	7,809 79
Overdrafts,.....	17,943 51		
Stocks.....	301,901 93	Aggregate of liabilities,	\$6,474,179 58
Real estate.....	349,004 89		
Bills discounted.....	12,781,857 43		
Aggregate of resources,...	\$15,776,486 42		

DEPOSITS OF AMERICAN GOLD FOR COINAGE.

The deposits of gold, for coinage, at the Mint of the United States and its branches, from mines in the United States, during the year 1846, amounted to \$1,139,568; of this amount, \$466,069 was deposited at the United States Mint, in Philadelphia, and the remaining \$673,283, at the Branch Mints of Charlotte, Dahlonega, and New Orleans. Of \$1,139,568, deposited at all the Mints, Virginia furnished \$55,538; North Carolina, \$286,105; South Carolina, \$100,641; Georgia, \$13,601; Tennessee, \$2,642; Alabama, \$7,542. In the Merchants' Magazine for June, we published a statement showing the coinage of the Mint of the United States, in each year, from its establishment, in 1793, to 1846, from which it appears that the total value of the coinage of the United States, from 1793, has been \$122,480,322; of this amount, \$69,052,014 was gold, \$52,347,543 silver, and \$1,083,764 copper—cents and half cents. The largest coinage in a single year, from the establishment of the Mint, took place in 1843, and amounted to \$11,967,830. The smallest sum coined, was in 1815, amounting to only \$20,483. Of the large coinage of 1843, but \$1,045,445 was from the mines in the United States. The total number of pieces of every denomination, coined at the United States Mint and Branches, from the commencement of their operations to 1846, is 315,239,606.

PROGRESS OF THE PARIS SAVINGS' BANK IN 1846.

The Paris journals of the 1st January, 1847, contained an account of the transactions of the Paris Savings' Bank, during the year 1846; from which it appears that the deposits, 274,235 in number, including transfers from the savings' banks in the departments, amounted to 37,558,742 francs, or £1,502,349 sterling; and the withdrawals, 104,514 in number, amounted to 43,561,599 francs, or £1,742,463 sterling; showing the amount of withdrawals to have exceeded that of the receipts, by 6,002,857 francs, or £240,114 sterling.

The sums vested in the 3 and 5 per cent securities, at the desire of 3,881 depositors, amounted to a capital of 5,803,619 francs, or £232,144 sterling, producing an annual interest of 239,345 francs, or £9,173 sterling. If the amount of capital so converted into government stock, be deducted from the amount of the excess of withdrawals over receipts, the actual excess will be only 199,238 francs, or £7,970 sterling; a trifling sum, compared with the aggregate amount of capital deposited in the savings' bank.

On comparing the results of the transactions, during 1845 and 1846, it will be found that, while the amount due to 178,266 depositors, on 31st December, 1845, was 100,037,370 francs, or £4,001,495 sterling, the amount due to 184,908 depositors, on 31st December, 1846, was 91,864,574 francs, or £3,674,582 sterling, including interest capitalized on those days respectively; showing an increase in the former of 6,642, and a decrease in the latter of 8,872,796 francs, or £326,911 sterling.

The anticipations which had been formed, as to the successful result of that portion of the law of 22d June, 1845, relating to the direct conversion of deposits into government stock, were fully realized during the year 1846; the depositors, who had availed themselves of the advantages of that provision, having increased 2,203 in numbers; the capital converted, having increased 3,243,808 francs, or £129,752 sterling, in amount; and the annual revenue produced, having increased 133,245 francs, or £5,329.

COINAGE OF THE MINT AT NEW ORLEANS.

The quantity of gold and silver money coined at the United States Branch Mint, at New Orleans, in the first five months of the year 1847, was as follows:—

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.
Gold.....	\$250,000	\$130,000	\$300,000	\$160,000	\$110,000
Silver.....	76,000	170,000	203,000	110,000	180,000
Total.....	\$326,000	\$300,000	\$503,000	\$270,000	\$290,000

LEGAL WEIGHT OF GRAINS, ETC., IN OHIO.

The Legislature of Ohio have passed a law, fixing the following weights as the standard bushel of the articles enumerated, when sales are made by the bushel, without some special agreement to the contrary, between the parties to the measurement. The details of this law are:—

Wheat.....	per bush.	60 lbs.	Rye.....	per bush.	56 lbs.
Indian corn.....		56 "	Flaxseed.....		56 "
Barley.....		48 "	Cloverseed.....		64 "
Oats.....		39 "			

EARLY CURRENCY IN THE WEST.

Mr. Cist, of the Cincinnati Advertiser, says:—It may surprise many to learn that the first issue of paper money, or promises to pay, in the United States, is of Indian origin. In 1760, Pontiac, the great Indian chief, issued bills of credit, or promises to pay, in hieroglyphics of his own, drawn upon bark, with the figure of an otter—his arms—beneath. I extract this fact from a rare work, published in England, in 1765, called, "A Concise Account of North America, by Major Robert Rogers." The Major visited Pontiac, in the course of his travels through the country, and saw this currency. He adds that the whole emission was duly redeemed.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Reports of Cases Argued and Determined in the Court of Chancery of the State of New York, before the Hon. Lewis H. Sandford, Vice Chancellor of the First Circuit, while Assistant Vice Chancellor.* Vol. II. New York: Banks, Gould & Co.

These decisions of Vice Chancellor Sandford come to us in the most desirable, because most authentic form possible, being reported by the learned judge himself. To a lawyer, nothing can be more satisfactory, in the way of law books, than a volume of reports which, in all those formal parts that, by the long usage of reporters, have become as indispensable as the formal parts of a pleading—the marginal note, the statement of facts, and the opinion of the court, have been thoroughly and carefully prepared. When decisions are published to the world by the judge who made them, we have a right to look for a volume, like the present, satisfactory in all these respects. The learned Vice Chancellor remarks, in his preface, that “well considered decisions of cases in equity, presenting new points, or new applications of important principles, will still be valuable contributions to judicial science,” notwithstanding the changes in the judiciary of this State, brought about by the new constitution. Nothing would be more laughable, were it less dangerous, than the notion of those who imagine that this new constitution, because it has abolished the old equity courts, has also abolished equity jurisprudence! Have these good people given up all idea of ever, hereafter, making their wills, or executing mortgages or trust deeds, or of forming partnerships—nay, more, of marrying and giving in marriage? Now, as long as these things continue to be done—as long as the world goes on doing its business in the forms now in use—as long, in fact, as the social relations and civilized human nature remain the same, reports of cases involving these subjects, and, like those in this volume, terse and clear in style, vigorous in reasoning, and reliable for their fulness of research into authorities, must continue to be, in the highest degree, useful, not to say indispensable. Of the 652 pages, besides the index, in this book, cases involving wills and testaments occupy 173, and cases of mortgage 116 pages, the two thus taking up not far from half the work. Even the merchant may find here several important decisions on bills of exchange and partnerships, and on the subject of the right to trade-marks are the strong cases of *Coates v. Holbrook*, and *Taylor v. Carpenter*. And the general reader, whom chancery cases, being freer from technicalities than law reports, are more likely to interest, will learn from a hard case, like *Williams v. Walker*, how groundless is the notion that equity is a thing of judicial discretion and not a system of settled principles. Were there room, we should like to make a single remark on the case of *Williamson v. Field*, pp. 533–573, and to respectfully suggest that, perhaps, hardly enough weight is attached, in that case, to the acts of the legislature authorizing the sale and mortgage of the premises in question, and that those acts, which, it would seem, allowed a sale, outright, of the vested interests of infant devisees, without their being parties, might, *a fortiori*, be fairly construed as allowing a foreclosure of those interests without making them parties. From the dates at the foot of the marginal note of each case, the highly satisfactory and creditable fact appears, that these decisions were all made in from one to three months after they were argued. We hope to see many more cases in equity from the same source with these, and they will be equally acceptable, whether from a Vice Chancellor of the First Circuit, or from a Justice of the Superior Court of the city of New York.

- 2.—*Scripture Illustrated by Interesting Facts, Incidents, and Anecdotes.* By Rev. CHESTER FIELD. With an Introduction. By Rev. JOHN TODD, D. D. 16mo., pp. 203. New York: Harper & Brothers.

In this little volume, the author has illustrated numerous passages of scripture by anecdotes which have been collected from various sources, and it forms altogether a convenient manual for reference.

- 3.—*The Pictorial History of England; Being a History of the People, as well as a History of the Kingdom. Illustrated with Several Hundred Wood Cuts of Monumental Records, Coins, Civil and Military Costumes, Domestic Buildings, Furniture, and Ornaments, Cathedrals and other Great Works of Architecture, Sports and other Illustrations of Manners, Mechanical Inventions, Portraits of the Kings and Queens, and Remarkable Historical Scenes.* By GEORGE L. CRAIK and CHARLES MACFARLANE, assisted by other Contributors. 8vo., pp. 857, 876. New York: Harper & Brothers.

In the advertisement of the American publishers, which is prefixed to this work, they say that it is presented to the American people, because it contains, "in many very important respects, the most valuable history that has ever been written of that colossal empire." It was originally issued in numbers, under the auspices of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. Differing from most historical works in its general plan, it is very copiously illustrated with engravings, which exhibit the condition of that country from the earliest ages, in its general facts, as well as in the progress of its more minute interests. It is, in fact, a history, not only of the general train of political events, but also, that of the condition of the people, manners, industry, literature, science, the fine arts, and of everything throwing light upon the advance of that nation.

- 4.—*Orators of the Age: Comprising Portraits, Critical, Biographical, and Descriptive.* By G. H. FRANCIS, Esq., editor of "The Maxims and Opinions of the Duke of Wellington." 12mo., pp. 314. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This exhibits what appear to be faithful portraiture of the present orators of Great Britain. It must be admitted that oratory, or the power of addressing public assemblies, exercises a mighty influence in our own age. Its agency is most effective in moulding the action of popular and deliberative bodies, aided by that engine—the press, which distributes its spoken productions abroad in the community. The design of the present volume is to delineate the character of the leading British statesmen, so far as their oratorical efforts are concerned. The eminent names of Lord John Russell and the Duke of Wellington, of Sir Robert Peel and Macaulay, of Palmerston and Lyndhurst, flit before us in their positions as orators, besides other individuals scarcely less distinguished. The author appears to have studied his subject, and has doubtless presented it in a faithful form. He claims to have been impartial in his judgment of those distinguished public men, whose personal character and efforts exercise an important influence upon the affairs of the British empire, and alleges that "his impressions are the result of constant observation, and a long personal experience."

- 5.—*The Life of Wesley, and Rise and Progress of Methodism.* By ROBERT SOUTHEY, LL. D. With Notes, by the late SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE, Esq., and Remarks on the Life and Character of John Wesley, by the late ALEXANDER KNOX, Esq., edited by the Rev. CHARLES CUTHBERT SOUTHEY, M. A., Curate of Cockermouth. Second American Edition, with Notes, etc. By the Rev. DANIEL CURRY, A. M. In 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 476, 454. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Perhaps it is not necessary to state, that the present work was prepared by one of the most eminent poets of the present age. It presents to us the leading facts connected with the life of a zealous, eloquent, and popular preacher, of a denomination which has become widely extended, both in Great Britain and in our own country, together with the history of the progress of the denomination itself. In composing the volume, no pains seem to have been spared in the examination of the facts relating to the subject. It is, perhaps, well known, that Mr. Wesley performed his ministerial labors, for a considerable period, with signal success in the United States. Without entering into a particular examination of the bias of the work, we would remark, that it exhibits many circumstances of interest associated with the progress of a powerful sect, as well as the biography of its founder. The book contains also a critical examination of Mr. Southey's work, by the Rev. Richard Watson.

- 6.—*A Familiar Exposition of the Constitution of the United States; Containing a Brief Commentary on every Clause, Explaining the True Nature, Reasons, and Objects thereof. Designed for the Use of School Libraries, and General Readers; with an Appendix, containing Important Public Documents Illustrative of the Constitution.* By JOSEPH STORY, LL. D., Dane, Professor of Law in Harvard University. 12mo., pp. 372. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This exposition of the Constitution of the United States, by one of our most eminent jurists, is a work of great value. It embodies a view of the general principles of that instrument, from a judge who occupied a prominent position upon the bench of the Supreme Court for many years, and whose duty it was made to adjudicate them. It may, therefore, be deemed authoritative. The present volume, which is an abridgment of the larger work by the same author, entitled "The Commentaries on the Constitution," is designed for private reading, and also for the highest classes in the common schools and academies, containing allusion to all the principal points which are embraced in that larger work, where they are more fully discussed. It is provided, also, with an appendix of important public documents.

- 7.—*A Year in Spain.* By A. SLIDELL MACKENZIE, Author of "The American in England," etc., etc. 3 vols., 12mo., pp. 262, 265, 320. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is the fifth edition of a very popular and excellent work. The author, who is a man of the world, as well as an elegant writer, enjoyed the opportunity of visiting Spain under favorable auspices, and he has described the scenes and circumstances associated with that country, in a most interesting way. The year that he passed in the Spanish territory, appears to have been profitably employed; and he has given us, doubtless, faithful and graphic sketches of his own personal experience, during his sojourn there, as well as judicious reflections regarding the people of that nation. The volumes have already earned a wide and deserved reputation; and, indeed, we know of no single book of travels that can be read with greater satisfaction and profit than these. The publishers, we think, have exercised a sound judgment in reproducing them in a cheap and popular form.

- 8.—*Homes and Haunts of the Most Eminent British Poets.* By WILLIAM HOWITT. The Illustrations engraved by H. W. Hewet. 2 vols., 12mo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present handsome volumes are designed to exhibit brief sketches of the most eminent poets of Great Britain, with numerous anecdotes of some of the principal vicissitudes of their lives. They are illustrated with engravings, either of their homes or of the places to which they were accustomed to resort. The work itself is not, in the strict sense, biographical, but it refers rather to the places of abode of those who have been most prominent in this department of literature. There are, accordingly, many individuals who have attained much distinction as poets, yet who have here received but brief notices, from the fact that there has been but little of interest collected respecting their places of residence. It is decidedly the most attractive reprint of the season.

- 9.—*The Correspondence and Miscellanies of the Hon. John Cotton Smith, LL. D., formerly Governor of Connecticut, with a Eulogy pronounced before the Connecticut Historical Society, at New Haven, May 27th, 1846.* By the Rev. WILLIAM W. ANDREWS. 12mo., pp. 328. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume contains a eulogy that was delivered during the last year before the Connecticut Historical Society, upon one of the former Governors of that State, together with a portion of his letters addressed to numerous individuals upon miscellaneous topics, and also a few of his essays and addresses upon various subjects. Governor Smith was a gentleman, of what is termed "the old school," who, in all the public stations to which he was called, performed his duty with uniform ability. Originally a lawyer by profession, he occupied successively the position of a Member of Congress, a Judge of the Supreme Court of his native State, and its chief magistrate. To his merely intellectual character, may be added a reputation, which appears to have been based upon moral and religious principles. The portion of his correspondence and miscellaneous efforts which is embodied in the work, presents the general cast of his intellectual, moral, and political character.

- 10.—*The Lawyer's Daughter*. By JOSEPH ALDEN, D. D., author of "Elizabeth Benton," "Alice Gordon," etc. 18mo., pp. 186.
- 11.—*Arthur Morton; or, the Mother's Trials*. By CHARLES BURDETT, Esq., author of "The Convict's Child," "Lilla Hart," "Never Too Late," "Changes and Chances." 18mo., pp. 225. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These two volumes form part of a series, the design of which is to supply a choice collection of books, chiefly American, which shall be adapted to the domestic circle, by combining, in an eminent degree, entertainment with moral culture. "Alice Gordon," the first of the series, we noticed in a previous number of this Magazine. "The Lawyer's Daughter," by the same author, fully sustains his well-earned reputation in this important department of literature. Mr. Burdett's contribution to the series of "Arthur Morton; or, the Mother's Trials," furnishes new evidence of his success, as a writer of tales, and of his power of imparting the lessons of truth and goodness in the most agreeable and attractive form. The series, thus far, admirably sustains the original design of the publishers. The style of publication is extremely neat, and we have no doubt but that the undertaking will meet with the encouragement it deserves.

- 12.—*A Year of Consolation*. By MRS. BUTLER, late FANNY KEMBLE. Two volumes in one. pp. 136, 171. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This work of Mrs. Butler's promises to be one of uncommon interest. It consists of the narrative of a year spent away from London, her journey to Rome, and her consequent sojourn in Italy. If, in these days of travels, vivid descriptions and a hearty interest can serve to point out new beauties in an oft-trodden way, surely no one is more competent to the task than Mrs. Butler. Never allowing anything of note to escape her observation, she finds occasion for comment where none other would, and by her powers of telling her own feelings and impressions, she inspires the same opinions in the mind of the reader. It is delightful to be thus led along by one fully able to appreciate all that is beautiful in nature and art. This volume possesses peculiar interest to Americans; for, whereas her views concerning this country have ever been liberal and mature, she turns to ask pardon of us, "on her knees," for some few things in our manners which she had dwelt upon with peculiar severity, for she found others in Europe, who were, in these very respects, far worse than ourselves. It is, in short, a work from which much information may be derived, and very much of abiding interest.

- 13.—*Supplement to the Hand-Book of Needle-Work, from Mrs. Gangain and Mrs. Gore*. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This supplement is a valuable appendix to Miss Lambert's larger work. In that part written by Mrs. Gangain, are many directions for making D'Oyley's, Tidy's, knit cuffs, purses, etc., etc., of the simplicity of which, Mrs. G. says, "that nothing more is requisite for an inexperienced pupil of moderate capacity, to enable her to execute any of the following elegant designs, than a knowledge of the elementary stitches of knitting—all of which any child may be taught in the short space of half an hour." Illustrations of the patterns are given, for both Mrs. Gangain and Mrs. Gore, which adds greatly to the value of the work. The Hand-Book of Needle-Work, the only complete work on the subject ever published in this country, will, in connection with the supplement, form one of the most delicate, tasteful gifts, which could well be made to a lady.

- 14.—*The Life of Col. James Gardiner: to which is added, The Christian Warrior Animated and Crowned*. By PHILIP DODDRIDGE, D. D. 18mo., pp. 208. New York: Robert Carter.

This little volume embraces a biographical sketch of a British officer, through a life abounding with various vicissitudes. It is written in a somewhat quaint style, and, together with a sermon that was preached upon the death of the subject of the sketch, it contains a copious appendix.

- 15.—*A Voyage up the River Amazon, including a Residence at Para.* By WILLIAM H. EDWARDS. 12mo., pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

The author of this work, with a desire of informing himself and the public respecting a part of our continent which is comparatively but little known, left New York on the 9th of February, 1846, visiting "Northern Brazil, and ascending the Amazon to a higher point than, to his knowledge, any American had ever before gone." During his voyage up this largest river upon our globe, he was a minute observer of surrounding circumstances, and took notes during his progress. The volume, accordingly, abounds with descriptive accounts of the scenery, topography, population, and especially of the natural history—to which he appears to have been peculiarly devoted—of the territory along his route, and furnishes an interesting description. The author deems the country of the Amazon one of the most fertile parts of the world; healthful in its skies, and peculiarly adapted to maintain a dense population and an extensive commerce. Independently of the mere literary execution of the work, the description of the circumstances connected with a territory which is but little known, will doubtless interest the public, and this little volume presents the subject in a pleasing form.

- 16.—*Prevention Better than Cure, or the Moral Wants of the World We Live In.* By MRS. ELLIS, author of "The Women of England," etc., etc. 12mo., pp. 213. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The work whose title we have here given, is from the pen of an authoress of considerable reputation for the high moral and intellectual tone of her works. Her sentiments appear to be founded in a sober and reflective examination of the mode in which many of the evils which have grown from a want of moral discipline in the individual and social state, may be remedied, and they commend themselves to the calm consideration of the numerous class of readers among whom they will be distributed.

- 17.—*The American Loyalists, or Biographical Sketches of Adherents to the British Crown, in the War of the Revolution, Alphabetically Arranged, with a Preliminary Historical Essay.* By LORENZO SABINE. 8vo., pp. 734. Boston: Charles C. Little & James Brown.

The period of the American Revolution originated, it is well known, a large body of men who maintained their allegiance to the British crown during that crisis, and who were denominated Tories. It is the design of the present work to present the names and prominent circumstances associated with some of those individuals, gleaned from ancient records, alphabetically arranged; and the work is accompanied by a Historical Essay, exhibiting a general view of the state of parties and the thirteen colonies when the revolution was commenced. The preliminary essay, which occupies about one-third of the volume, exhibits much patient research, and reflects great credit on the learning and ability of the author. We view the whole work as one of the most valuable contributions to the literature of the country that has ever been made.

- 18.—*English Churchwomen of the Seventeenth Century.* 18mo., pp. 419. New York: Stanford & Swords.

It is the design of the present volume to portray the characters of some of the most distinguished women, belonging to the Church of England, who lived during the seventeenth century. It is stated, in the preface to the work, that those whose lives are here sketched, were the specimens of a class and the representatives of a period; and that the names of those who, from their prominent positions, have come down to us, were samples of a much larger number like themselves, who remained in the comparative seclusion of domestic life. In the preparation of these sketches, the most authoritative sources of information appear to have been consulted. The records of the good, serve as memorials for our improvement and models of imitation. This little work is, therefore, an interesting and valuable contribution to biographical literature.

- 19.—*Picciola. The Prisoner of Fenestrella; or, Captivity Captive.* By X. B. SAINTINE. A New Edition, with Illustrations. 12mo., pp. 154. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This classic production, after the manner of "Paul and Virginia," made its appearance more than eight years ago. It has, as we learn from the publishers' advertisement, been crowned by the Academie Francaise, and passed through numberless editions, in every form and at every price, from the costly and elegant *edition de luxe*, to the cheap volume for schools. Its translation into several foreign languages, and its cordial reception in England and our own country, attest to its popularity; and the publishers have, we think, judged rightly, in supposing that its numerous admirers would be pleased to possess it in a form more suited to its merits, than any in which it has heretofore appeared in this country.

- 20.—*Tancred, or the New Crusade; a Novel.* By B. D'ISRAELI, M. P., author of "Coningsby," "Sybil," "Young Duke," etc., etc. 8vo., pp. 127. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Mr. D'Israeli has long been deemed one of the most brilliant novelists of Great Britain, and we perceive that he has more recently emerged into public notice, as a Parliamentary orator of considerable prominence. The present volume exhibits the same general characteristics of style which distinguish his former work, and will doubtless be widely circulated among the admirers of this species of literature.

- 21.—*The Eye: its Imperfections and their Prevention.* By JAMES W. POWELL, M. D., Member of the College of Surgeons, Occulist, etc.; author of a "Treatise on the Asiatic Cholera," etc., etc. New York.

This is a work of exceeding interest, and of great practical value. Its author is a gentleman of rare professional attainments, and has secured a high rank as an oculist and aurist—branches of his profession to which he has exclusively devoted himself. Indeed, his extensive practice, as such, has been attended with unusual success; and to this the public are indebted for much of the deeply interesting matter contained in the book before us. The subjects of which it treats, are handled with skill; and throughout the work are seen evidences of ripe scholarship, varied practical experience, and profound thought. The style of the writer is pleasing and popular, and divested of that stiffness, technicality, and dryness, which have hitherto rendered medical works so disagreeable and uninteresting to the general reader. We take pleasure in recommending the book to the profession and to the public. All are deeply interested in the preservation of that delicate and wonderfully-formed organ, to which we owe the pleasures of sight, and for this purpose the work before us should be widely circulated and carefully read.

- 22.—*A Manual of the Principles and Practice of Road-Making, Comprising the Location, Construction, and Improvement of Roads (Common, Macadam, Paved, Plank, etc.) and Railroads.* By W. M. GILLESPIE, A. M., C. E., Professor of Civil Engineering in Union College. 12mo., pp. 336. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The author of this volume commences with the position, that the common roads of the United States are inferior to those of any other civilized country, from the scarcity of capital and labor with us. Possessed of experience, acquired by the practice of engineering in various parts of the United States, and by the examination of the great roads of Europe, he has carefully consulted all accessible authorities upon the subject, the result of which is the present valuable work. The proper steps for the construction of good roads are described in a clear and scientific way, and the remarks in the text are copiously illustrated by engravings. In a country, like our own, of wide distances, these avenues of communication are peculiarly desirable, and this treatise appears to convey the instructions most required for the construction of these important channels of travel and transportation. The vast extent of the system of railroads, which has been established and which is now advancing throughout the Union, renders the portion relating to that subject of much practical value.

- 23.—*Mesmerism in India, and its Practical Application in Surgery and Medicine.* By JAMES ESDAILE, M. D., Civil Assistant Surgeon H. C. S. Bengal. 12mo., pp. 259. New York: Fowler & Wells. Hartford: Silas Andrews & Son.

It is the design of the present volume, we are informed in its preface, to show the beneficial influence that "Mesmerism," as employed in medical practice, has already exerted upon the constitution of a portion of the population of the province of Bengal, British India. The author, who is a civil assistant surgeon in the British army, states that in the course of his practice numerous painless operations have been performed through its agency, and, accordingly, that the principle may be applied with advantage to the improvement of surgery and medicine. The work is mainly composed of reports of experiments relating to the subject, accompanied by professional remarks. It establishes the fact, of which there can no longer be any doubt, that surgical operations may be performed, on individuals in the mesmeric state, without pain.

- 24.—*Lectures on Phrenology.* By GEORGE COMBE, Esq. Including its Application to the Present and Prospective Condition of the United States. With Notes, An Introductory Essay, and A Historical Sketch. By ANDREW BOARDMAN, M. D. Third edition, with Corrections and Additions. 12mo., pp. 391. New York: Fowler & Wells.

The author of this work was, a few years since, known to the public as a popular lecturer upon phrenology, in various parts of the Union. Ardently devoted to the phrenological system, he exhibited its doctrines, before numerous audiences, in the principal cities of the Union, and received gratifying testimonials of approbation from those who have heard his discourses. This volume is composed of reports of the lectures thus delivered, and embraces the general principles of the system. It is provided with engravings, tending to throw light upon the matter of the text, and also with a copious index.

- 25.—*Water-Cure Manual: A popular work; embracing Descriptions of the Various Modes of Bathing, and Hygienic and Curative Effects of Air, Exercise, Clothing, Occupation, Diet, Water-Drinking, etc.; together with Descriptions of Diseases, and the Hydropathic Means to be employed therein. Illustrated with Cases of Treatment and Cure. Containing, also, a fine Engraving of Priessnitz.* By JOEL SHEW, M. D., Practitioner of Water-Cure. 12mo., pp. 288. New York: Cady & Burgess.

It is only a short period since the system of "Hydrotherapy," or Water-Cure, was introduced into our own country. It is now pretty extensively practised, and, so far as our knowledge extends, with eminent success. The practice itself has been adopted, to greater or less extent, in all ages, and by many of the most eminent physicians; but it owes its origin as a permanent system, to Vincent Priessnitz, of Grafenberg. Having experienced the benefits of the system, in nervous and other complaints, it affords us pleasure to express our earnest conviction of its general efficacy, when judiciously applied to the healing of diseases which, under other treatment, often prove quite obstinate. The present volume exhibits the principles and practice of the system, in a clear and concise form, divested of technicalities, and rendered perfectly intelligible to the comprehension of the most ordinary capacity. It embodies the results of Dr. Shew's own observations and experiments. We heartily commend it to all inquirers after health.

- 26.—*Washington and his Generals.* By J. T. HEADLEY, author of "Napoleon and his Marshals," "The Sacred Mountains," etc. In two volumes. Vol. II. 12mo., pp. 372. New York: Baker & Scribner.

This second volume completes the work entitled "Washington and his Generals," the first volume of which was noticed in the last number of this Magazine. It is distinguished by the same clearness and energy of style which marked the first volume by the same author, and contains condensed biographical sketches of Generals Greene, Moultrie, Knox, Lincoln, Lee, Clinton, Sullivan, St. Clair, Marion, Sterling, La Fayette, De Kalb, Thomas, McDougal, Wooster, Howe, and Parsons; the naval commander, Paul Jones, as well as Sumpter, Perkins, Poor, Reed, Cadwallader, Gist, Smallwood, Mercer, Williams, Allen, and Morgan. There are also others to whom allusion is made, but the limits of the work have prevented the author from doing more than mentioning their names.

27.—*Proceedings of the Agricultural and Mechanics' Association of Louisiana, January, 1847. Oration by J. B. De Bow, Esq., the Essay read by B. M. Norman; together with the Reports of the Committee, etc.* New Orleans: B. M. Norman.

A pamphlet of fifty-four pages, about one-half of which is occupied with an oration by the accomplished editor of the New Orleans Commercial Review. It is a scholarly production, replete with manly thoughts and just sentiments.

28.—*The Illustrated Hand-Book, a New Guide for Travellers through the United States of America; Containing a Description of the States, Cities, Towns, Villages, Watering-Places, Colleges, etc.; with the Railroad, Stage, and Steamboat Routes, the Distances from Place to Place, and the Fares on the Great Travelling Routes. Embellished with 125 Highly-Finished Engravings, Accompanied by a Large and Accurate Map.* By J. CALVIN SMITH. 32mo., pp. 233. New York: Sherman & Smith.

The design and contents of this popular hand-book are succinctly stated in the title-page. It appears to be all that it purports, and although a small, compact book, it contains a vast amount of just that kind of information that every one, the citizen of the United States, as well as the foreigner, requires, in passing over our wide-spread country. It is the neatest thing of the kind we have seen, and its arrangement is quite systematic; and we doubt not but that it is as accurate as such a work can well be made.

29.—*The Architect, a Series of Original Designs for Domestic and Ornamental Cottages, Connected with Landscape Gardening, Adapted to the United States. Illustrated by Drawings of Ground Plots, Plans, Perspective Views, Elevations, Sections, and Details.* By WILLIAM H. RANLETT, Architect. 4to. New York: W. H. Graham.

It will hardly escape the common observer, that increased attention has recently been attracted to the subject of architecture. A decided improvement, in this respect, has accordingly taken place, not only in the general plan of our private houses, but also in the general structure of public edifices throughout the country. It is the design of the present work to contain a series of plans for cottages, the present being the seventh number. The plates are from drawings upon stone, with specifications and directions for building; and the whole series, thus far, appears to be well executed.

BOOKS IN PAPER COVERS.

- 1.—*Life of Edmund Kean. Third Edition.* 12mo., pp. 239. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 2.—*Marriage: a Novel.* By MISS S. FERRIER, author of "The Inheritance," "Destiny," etc. 8vo., pp. 156. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 3.—*White Slavery in the Barbary States. A Lecture before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, February, 1847.* By CHARLES SUMNER. 8vo., pp. 60. Boston: William D. Ticknor.
- 4.—*Association Discussed; or, the Socialism of the Tribune Examined. Being a Controversy between the New York Tribune and the Courier and Enquirer.* By HORACE GREELEY and HENRY J. RAYMOND. 8vo., pp. 83. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 5.—*Reasons Why I am not a Papist; or, The Churchman Armed against the Novelties, Usurpations, and Corruptions of the Church of Rome.* By REV. N. S. RICHARDSON, A. M., author of "The Churchman's Reasons for his Faith and Practice," "Reasons Why I am a Churchman," "Pastor's Appeal on Confirmation," etc. 12mo., pp. 56. New York: Stanford & Swords.

NEW YORK TRADE SALE.

Messrs. Cooley, Keese & Hill, 191 Broadway, have issued their circular of the next New York trade sale, to commence on the 30th of August next. The increasing demand for books, in this, of all others, the most reading community in the world, and the corresponding augmentation in the reprints of foreign authors, and new publications of native works, render these trade sales to booksellers, who assemble from all parts of the United States and Canada, of great and increasing importance. The trade sale of Bangs, Richards & Platt, commences on the 31st of August.