

HUNT'S

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Art. I.—THE COMMERCIAL TREATIES OF THE UNITED STATES:

WITH REFERENCE TO THE PROGRESS OF COMMERCIAL FREEDOM.

ON the declaration of independence, in 1776, a new nation sprang into existence, with a government based on new and untried principles, and such as caused the foreign policy of the government to be different from that of any of the existing nations of the earth. The sole object of government was avowed to be the protection of the people at large, and to guarantee that every man should enjoy in peace the fruits of his own industry, on a footing of perfect equality, socially and politically. All power was admitted to rest with the people, and the federal government possessed no authority, save that which was expressly granted in the instrument which gave it being. The powers derived by the government from a constitution matured through the long and anxious deliberations of the founders of the Union, in the memorable Congress of 1776, were specified and clearly defined, being such as confined their relations with foreign countries very nearly, if not quite, to commercial subjects. Boundary treaties were, of course, necessary; but otherwise, the manner, mode, and terms of international commerce came to be almost the exclusive subjects of treaties with foreign countries. As a republican Union could have nothing in common with the general policy of monarchical governments, and was likely to encounter nothing but hostility until the importance of its commerce should *command* the attention of Europe, it followed that there was little danger of "entangling alliances" in other respects than in granting special commercial advantages to one nation, to the exclusion of others. A nation of energetic and enterprising people were just emancipated from the colonial state, and looking round upon a world suddenly opened to their commercial enterprise. Instead of struggling in the restrictive bonds of selfish imperial regulations, the nation found itself raised to political equality with all others, but debarred from their intercourse on all sides by their restrictive systems. In every direction, absurd interdictions met the American merchant. His commerce, which hitherto had been confined to the mother country, was cut off even from that by the operation

of the British navigation laws, which took effect against the States the moment they ceased to be colonies. Those laws, which had been in being for 150 years, had, practically, never been in operation. The principle of the law was, in brief, that there should be imported into Great Britain no goods, the produce of Asia, Africa, or America, except in British vessels; and goods imported from Europe in vessels of the continent were subjected to higher additional rates of duties than were laid on those imported in British vessels. It is evident that, down to the independence of the United States, these provisions of the navigation act were a dead letter; because, in the three quarters of the world whence foreign shipping was interdicted, there was no shipping owned except by British subjects. Those built within the colonies had all the privileges of vessels built in England; and, as the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, and the nations of India, had no vessels, those of England would have met no competition, had there been no navigation act, which came first practically into operation when the independence of the United States was acknowledged; and, as soon as it produced an influence upon trade, its fate was sealed. As respects the United States, it required a commercial treaty to modify the operation of the act in this regard. To enter generally into the commerce of the world, it became necessary to acquire the right by treaty, as the natural right had been destroyed by artificial restrictions. The great rivers of Europe—those channels of communication formed by nature to promote trade between neighboring countries, as well as to connect distant nations with the ocean, and through it, with remote climes—were rendered as impassable by hostile laws as if their channels presented natural difficulties to navigation. The United States, a young country, with but little shipping and less capital, distributed among a sparse population, had little to offer in return for the facilities they asked. They demanded that European nations should throw aside the exclusive policy hitherto pursued, and allow United States vessels to visit their wealthy cities, in return for the privilege of sending their vessels to our comparatively poor and unattractive towns.

In a republican government, an equal distribution of wealth, and the promotion of the general welfare, in a uniform degree, being the object, trade and commerce, rather than war and glory, are the means to obtain them. It became, therefore, at the formation of the government, a matter of as much importance to fix a rule of intercourse with all foreign nations, as to define the internal policy of the federal government. The same men who brought so much wisdom to the construction of our constitution, considered as anxiously the true principles of fair commercial negotiations between independent States. These principles were, *independence*, *equal favor*, and *reciprocity*, and were laid down and proclaimed to the world for the first time in the diplomatic history of nations, in the preamble to the Treaty of France, February 6, 1778. That treaty was the foundation of our commercial intercourse, and bore the same relation to our foreign policy which the Declaration of Independence did to our internal government; and it has formed the basis of all subsequent treaties.*

* TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND THE UNITED STATES, 1778.

"The United States, willing to fix, in an equitable and permanent manner, the rules which ought to be followed relative to the correspondence and commerce which the two parties desire to establish between their respective countries, States, and subjects, His Most Christian subjects and said United States, have judged that the said end could not be bet-

As the policy of all monarchical governments is to concentrate great revenues in the hands of the central power, in order that profuse expenditure may enlarge the circle of imperial influence, and extend the patronage of the crown, so does occasional war and large armies become a part of the general system of such governments. The many are to be kept poor to support the few in affluence, and sustain the strength of the government.

It becomes a consequence of such a system, that the people at large should, neither in war or peace, acquire wealth faster than it can be absorbed into the hands of the government. The policy of such governments has, therefore, ever been to discourage all industry that does not throw its profits into the hands of a few individuals, manageable by the crown. Through taxation, the general wealth must flow concentratively into the lap of the executive, and from it, in uninterrupted and corrupt channels, through all official action, down to the lowest officers. The government of France, at present, is a melancholy picture of this system of corruption. Thus, the customs department supports 31,400 officials, at an expense of 37,000,000 of francs per annum; and they collect 110,000,000 francs, under a rigid system of restriction, which, if modified to that of England, would probably employ but 6,000, instead of 31,400 persons; but, by cheapening the articles purchased by the people, an amelioration would tend to raise their condition, while it weakened the government by diminishing the means of its corruption. This is a slight indication of the general tendency of the policy; and the late detection of a cabinet minister in corrupt practices, but an example of its over-action.

When peace was declared, Congress did not condescend to ask treaties of foreign powers acknowledging the independence of the Union; but, as related by Mr. Jefferson, in a letter to Mr. Adams,

"Were willing, by some of the ordinary international transactions, to receive what would imply that acknowledgment. They appointed commissioners, therefore, to propose treaties of commerce to the principal nations of Europe. I was then a member of Congress, was of the committee appointed to prepare the instructions to the commissioners; was, as you suppose, the draughtsman of those actually agreed to, and was joined by your father and Dr. Franklin to carry them into execution. But the stipulations making part of these instructions, which respected *privateering*, *blockades*, *contraband*, and *freedom of the fisheries*, were not original conceptions of mine. They had before been suggested by Dr. Frank-

ter attained than by taking, for the basis of their agreement, the most perfect equality and reciprocity, and by carefully avoiding all those burdensome preferences which are usually sources of debate, embarrassment, and discontent; by leaving, also, each party at liberty to make, respecting commerce and navigation, those interior regulations which it shall find most convenient to itself; and by founding the advantages of commerce solely upon reciprocal utility, and the just rules of free intercourse; reserving, withal, to each party the liberty of admitting, at its pleasure, other nations to a participation of the same advantages. It is in the spirit of this intention, and to fulfil these views, that certain negotiators were appointed—" &c. &c.

Art. 1. There shall be firm, inviolable, and perfect peace, &c.

Art. 2. The parties mutually agree not to grant any particular favor to other nations, in respect of commerce and navigation, which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy the same favor, freely, if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation, if the concession was conditional.

Art. 3. No greater duty or impost shall be levied, under any circumstances, upon the subjects of either country, than those of the most favored nation, and the citizens of each shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, &c., that are enjoyed by those of the most favored nation.

lin, in some of his papers in possession of the public, and had, I think, been recommended in some letters of his to Congress. I happen only to have been the inserter of them in the first public act, which gave the formal sanction of a public authority. We accordingly proposed our treaties, containing these stipulations, to the principal governments of Europe. But we were then just emerged from a subordinate condition; the nations had, as yet, known nothing of us, and had not yet reflected on the relations which it might be to their interests to establish with us. Most of them, therefore, listened to our proposals with coyness and reserve; *Old Frederick* alone closing with us without any hesitation. The negotiator of Portugal, indeed, signed a treaty with us, which his government did not ratify; and Tuscany was near a final agreement. Becoming sensible, however, ourselves, that we should do nothing with the greater powers, we thought it better not to hamper our country with engagements to those of less significance, and suffered our powers to expire without closing any other negotiation. Austria, soon after, became desirous of a treaty with us, and her ambassador pressed it often upon me; but, our commerce with her being no object, I evaded his repeated invitations. Had these governments been then apprised of the station we should so soon occupy among nations, all, I believe, would have met us promptly, and with frankness. These *principles* would then have been established with all; and, from being the *conventional law* with us alone, would have slid into their engagements with all, and become general."

The United States thus took the lead in commercial negotiation, although they may not lay claim to the paternity of a system which had its origin in the Congress of Utrecht—an era remarkable in commercial history for the enlightened views and liberal regulations then embodied in treaty stipulations. Although France was the first to recognise us as a nation—not from friendship to us, but to suit her own selfish antagonism to England—we have made less progress with her, in a commercial way, than with most other nations, if we except Spain, that wretched abode of despotism and desolation.

There now exist 38 treaties between the United States and foreign countries; of these, 29 are treaties of reciprocity, containing the "favored nation clause," which stipulates that any concession to one shall be enjoyed by all others, freely, if the concession is made freely, and upon paying the same equivalent, if compensation is stipulated. The great emigration which has taken place between the nations of Europe and the United States, has transferred to the United States a great number of useful citizens, and a considerable amount of property. It has also closely connected the descents of property in the United States with persons in Germany, and, *vice versa*, a great number of the citizens of the United States inherit property in the countries of Europe. This has given rise to a new class of treaties, particularly with those nations which, situated remote from the sea, have no occasion for commercial treaties. The first treaty with the Netherlands, in 1782, embraced a clause to remove the duties on the property of emigrants, and to allow the citizens of the United States to inherit property in the Netherlands, without first obtaining letters of naturalization. A similar clause was contained in the first French treaty. This was a wise and liberal provision, and did great credit to the foresight of the negotiators. As the country advanced, and the intercourse became more extended among the citizens of the new and old world, the necessity of extending these provisions to other nations became more urgent. As an instance, it may be remarked that the kingdom of Bavaria contained, in 1837, 4,315,369 inhabitants; and the emigration from it, in four years, ending with 1839, was 24,507 souls, of whom 23,978 went to

the United States. The Bavarian government levied a heavy tax on the money and property carried away, and the amount ascertained as so taxed, was 7,000,000 guilders, or \$2,800,000, and was estimated to be about half the actual sum, as a great deal was concealed to avoid the tax. In the other countries of Germany, similar taxes prevailed. In 1842, Mr. Wheaton, the American Minister to Berlin, was charged with powers to conclude special conventions with the German sovereignties for the abolition of these taxes, and also of the *droit d'aubaine*, or alien duty, charged upon property inherited by aliens. Five German States have acceded to this, and Wurtemberg, Hesse Cassel, Bavaria, Saxony, and Nassau, have abolished the *droit d'aubaine* and *droit de détraction* by treaty, as follows:—

Art. 1. Every kind of *droit d'aubaine*, *droit de retraite*, and *droit de détraction*, or tax on emigration, is hereby, and shall remain abolished, between the two contracting parties, their States, citizens, and subjects, respectively.

Art. 2. Where, on the death of any person holding real property within the territories of one party, such real property would, by the laws of the land, descend on a citizen or subject of the other, were he not disqualified by alienage, such citizen or subject shall be allowed the term of two years to sell the same, which term may be reasonably prolonged according to circumstances, and to withdraw the proceeds thereof, without molestation, and exempt from all duties of détraction.

Art. 3. The citizens or subjects of each of the contracting parties shall have the power to dispose of their personal property within the States of the other, by testament, donation, or otherwise; and their heirs, legatees, and donees, being citizens or subjects of the other contracting party, shall succeed to their said personal property, and may take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, and dispose of the same at pleasure, paying such duties only as the inhabitants of the country where the said property lies shall be liable to pay in like cases.

Art. 4. In case of the absence of the heirs, the same care shall be taken, provisionally, of such real or personal property as would be taken in a like case of property belonging to the natives of the country, until the lawful owner, or the person who has a right to sell the same, according to article 2, may take measures to receive or dispose of the inheritance.

Art. 5. If any dispute should arise between different claimants to the same inheritance, they shall be decided, in the last resort, according to the laws, and by the judges of the country where the property is situated.

Art. 6. But this convention shall not derogate in any manner from the force of the laws already published, or hereafter to be published, by his majesty the King of Bavaria, to prevent the emigration of his subjects.

By this means, the movement of emigration becomes more facile, and the rights of citizens of each country to the property of their kindred in another more secure.

The following are the heads of all the treaties made by the federal government:—

UNITED STATES FOREIGN TREATIES.

FRANCE.

NEGOTIATORS.

Date of Treaty.	Nature.	American.	Foreign.
Feb. 6, 1778...	Treaty of Alliance. Annulled 1798.....	Benjamin Franklin.	C. A. Gerard.
" 1778...	Amity and Commerce. " 1798.....	Benjamin Franklin.	C. A. Gerard.
Nov. 14, 1788...	Convention on Consuls. " 1798.....	Thomas Jefferson.	De Montmorin.
Sep. 30, 1800...	Convention—Favored Nations.....	O. Ellsworth.	J. Bonaparte.
Ap. 30, 1809...	Cession of Louisiana.....	James Monroe.	F. B. Marbois.
June 24, 1822...	Commerce and Navigation.....	John Quincy Adams.	G. H. de Newville.
July 11, 1831...	Indemnity and Duty on Wines.....	William C. Rives.	H. Sebastiani.
Nov. 9, 1843...	Surrender of Criminals.....	A. P. Upshur.	A. Pageot.
Feb. 24, 1841...	New Article to Treaty of 1843.....	John C. Calhoun.	A. Pageot.
BELGIUM.			
Nov., 1845....	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	T. S. Clemson.	A. Deschamps.
BRAZIL.			
Dec., 1823....	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	W. Tudor.	Aracaty.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

NEGOTIATORS.

Date of Treaty.	Nature.	American.	Foreign.
Dec. 5, 1825...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	Henry Clay.	A. J. Canas.
NETHERLANDS.			
Oct. 8, 1782...	Amity and Commerce. Reciprocity.....	John Adams.	G. Van Randwick.
" 8, 1782...	Recapture of Vessels.....	John Adams.	G. Van Randwick.
Jan. 19, 1839...	Treaty of Commerce.....	John Forsyth.	A. Martini.
GREAT BRITAIN.			
Nov., 1782...	Provisional Articles of Peace.....	B. Franklin.	R. Oswald.
Sept., 1783...	Treaty of Peace. Mississippi Free.....	B. Franklin.	D. Hartley.
Nov., 1794...	Amity, Commerce, and Navigation.....	John Jay.	Grenville.
Jan. 8, 1802...	Modification of Treaty of 1794.....	Rufus King.	Hawkesbury.
Dec. 24, 1814...	Treaty of Peace—Ghent.....	H. Clay, J. Q. Adams.	Gambier.
July, 1815...	Treaty to Regulate Commerce. Reciprocity..	Adams, Clay, Gal'tin.	Robinson, and Goul-
Ap. 17, 1817...	Naval Forces on the Lakes.....	Richard Rush.	C. Bagot. [bour-
Oct. 20, 1818...	Definition of the Right of Fishing.....	Rush and Gallatin.	Robinson, and Goul-
July 12, 1822...	Award of the Emperor of Russia.....	H. Middleton.	C. Bagot. [bour-
Aug. 6, 1827...	Renewal of the Treaty of 1815 for 10 years.	Gallatin.	Addington.
Sept., 1827...	Reference of Boundary.....	Gallatin.	Addington.
Nov., 1827...	To carry into effect the Treaty of Dec., 1814.	Gallatin.	Addington.
August, 1842...	Northeast Boundary and Slave Trade.....	D. Webster.	Ashburton.
June, 1846...	Oregon Boundary.....	J. Buchanan.	R. Packenham.
ALGIERS.			
Sept., 1795...	Peace and Commerce.....	J. Donaldson.	V. Hassan.
June 30, 1815...	Peace and Commerce. Reciprocity.....	S. Decatur.	Omar.
Dec., 1816...	Renewed Treaty. Reciprocity.....	J. Chauncey.	Omar.
AUSTRIA.			
Aug. 29, 1820...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	M. Van Buren.	De Leaderer.
CHILE.			
May 16, 1832...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	J. Hamm.	A. Bello.
NEW GRANADA.			
March 6, 1844...	Mails across Panama.....	W. M. Blackford.	J. Acosta.
OTTOMAN PORTE.			
May 7, 1830...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	Commodore Biddle.	Hamed.
PERU.			
Nov. 13, 1839...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	S. Larned.	G. del Rio.
Mar. 17, 1841...	Convention. Peru to pay \$300,000.*.....	J. C. Pickett.	Del Rio.
PORTUGAL.			
Aug. 26, 1840...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	E. Kavanagh.	Garrett.
PRUSSIA.			
Sept., 1783...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	B. Franklin.	Thulemeier.
July, 1799...	" " " ".....	J. Q. Adams.	C. Guillaume.
May 2, 1828...	" " " ".....	Henry Clay.	Niederstetter.
RUSSIA.			
April, 1824...	Pacific Fisheries.....	H. Middleton.	Nesselrode.
Dec., 1832...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	James Buchanan.	Nesselrode.
SARDINIA.			
Nov., 1838...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	N. Niles.	S. de la Marguerite.
SIAM.			
March, 1833...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	E. Roberts.	
TWO SICILIES.			
Oct., 1832...	Indemnity to the United States.....	J. Nelson.	De Cassaro.
Dec., 1845...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	W. H. Polk.	G. Fortunato.
CHINA.			
July, 3, 1844...	Commerce.....	C. Cushing.	Tsiyeng.
COLOMBIA.			
Oct. 3, 1824...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	R. C. Anderson.	P. Gual.
DENMARK.			
April, 1826...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	Henry Clay.	P. Pederson.
ECUADOR.			
June 13, 1839...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	J. C. Pickett.	L. de Saa.
GREECE.			
Dec. 10, 1837...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	A. Stevenson.	S. Tricoupi.
HANOVER.			
May 20, 1840...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	H. Wheaton.	A. de Berger.
March, 1847...	Com. and Nav. Reduce Duties and Tolls..	A. D. Mann.	De Falcke.
HANSE TOWNS.			
Dec. 20, 1837...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	Henry Clay.	H. Rumpff.
MEXICO.			
Jan., 1828...	Limits.....	J. R. Poinsett.	Estevan.
April 5, 1831...	Commerce and Navigation. Reciprocity....	A. Butler.	Alaman.
" 11, 1839...	Convention to Adjust Claims.....	J. Forsyth.	Martinez.
Jan. 20, 1843...	Convention to provide for Payment of Claims.	Waddy Thompson.	Bocanegra.
MOROCCO.			
Jan., 1787...	Peace and Commerce. Reciprocity.....	Thomas Barclay.	Fennesh.
Sept., 1836...	Commerce and Navigation. ".....	J. R. Leib.	
SPAIN.			
Oct. 27, 1795...	Peace & Nav. U.S. citizens may trade to N.O.	T. Pinckney.	De la Paz.
Aug. 11, 1802...	Convention on Indemnities.....	C. Pinckney.	P. Cavallos.
Feb. 22, 1819...	Cession of the Floridas.....	John Q. Adams.	L. de Onis.
" 17, 1834...	Convention on Indemnities.....	C. P. Van Ness.	J. de Heredia.

* Not ratified till 1845.

		MUSCAT.		
		NEGOTIATORS.		
<i>Date of Treaty.</i>		<i>Nature.</i>	<i>American.</i>	<i>Foreign.</i>
June 24, 1827..	Commerce and Navigation.	Reciprocity....	E. Roberts.	Syed Bin.
		SWEDEN.		
April 3, 1783..	Commerce and Navigation.	Reciprocity....	B. Franklin.	G. Phillips.
Sept., 1816....	Com. and Nav. (8 years.)	"	J. Russell.	D'Engestrom.
July, 1827....	" (10 years.)	"	J. S. Appleton.	Wetterstedt.
		TRIPOLI.		
Nov., 1795....	Peace and Commerce.	Reciprocity.....	Joel Barlow.	Hanan.
June, 1805....	"	"	T. Lear.	Caramanby.
		TUNIS.		
March, 1799....	Commerce and Navigation.	Reciprocity....	W. Eaton.	Ibrahim.
Feb., 1824....	"	"	S. D. Heap.	Sidi Mahmoud.
		VENEZUELA.		
Jan., 1835....	Commerce and Navigation.	Reciprocity....	J. G. A. Williamson.	Michelena.
		WURTEMBERG.		
April 10, 1844.	Abol'n droit d'aubaine & droit de detraction.	"	H. Wheaton.	Von Maucler.
		HESSE CASSEL.		
March, 1844..	Abolition of droit d'aubaine.....	"	H. Wheaton.	Bernstien.
		BAVARIA.		
Jan. 21, 1845 .	Abol'n droit d'aubaine & droit de detraction.	"	H. Wheaton.	Lerchenfeld.
		SAXONY.		
May 14, 1845..	Abol'n droit d'aubaine & droit de detraction.	"	H. Wheaton.	Minekuitz.
		NASSAU.		
May 27, 1846..	Abol'n droit d'aubaine & droit de detraction.	"	H. Wheaton.	Von Roeder.

In all these treaties the object is, to settle boundaries, procure indemnities for damage done to commerce, and to extend its sphere of action. The only instance of "foreign entanglement," or the entering into obligations with foreign powers for an object that had no bearing upon the national welfare, and was a mere subscription to a British chimera—a tribute to that presumption ever manifested by Great Britain in her intercourse with other nations—appears to be the clause of the treaty with Great Britain, in 1842, in reference to the African slave trade. If any nation was entitled to set itself up as supreme arbiter, and dictate a course to other nations, that party belongs to the United States, in relation to the African slave trade, inasmuch as that, as colonies, they resisted, to the point of rebellion, the attempts of Great Britain to force it upon them, and suppressed it among their first acts as a government, treating it as piracy long before its profits ceased to enrich Liverpool. It is doubtful, if the United States had not first stopped the sale of slaves here, by English dealers, whether, to this day, England would have abolished the trade. A loss of profit is a wonderful stimulant to British philanthropy. The United States, of their own act, abolished the slave trade after 1808, and from that time to this there have been no Africans landed in the territories of the Union. Had all nations done the same thing, the trade would have ceased. That they did not see fit to do so, was no affair of ours. England prosecuted the trade long afterwards, without molestation from the United States. In the spirit of our institutions a wise government was content with doing its own duty. The trade never flourished so much, as from the ports of London and Liverpool from 1810 to 1814. In all those years, the government of England had perfect control of the seas. Her vessels alone could prosecute the slave, or any other trade, with impunity; and she exercised the belligerent "right of search" freely, pushing it to an abuse that compelled the United States to resist by force. After peace was declared, the "right of search," although strenuously resisted by the United States, was never abandoned by England; and when her diminishing profit in slave traffic awakened her philanthropy, she discovered that the capabilities of the vast coast of Africa for a future trade are almost limitless, she now sends \$10,000,000 worth of goods there, per annum. The "right of search," based on the slave trade, would give her

the control of those seas ; and unceasingly, and in every shape, has she urged the claim. When the Whig cabinet was about going out of power, in 1841, Lord Palmerston had succeeded in forming a treaty, by which Austria, Prussia, and Russia, countries concerned very little in the navigation of the ocean, and not at all in the African seas, conceded the "right of search" to England. Their accession was valuable to the minister, only, in that it increased the moral power with which he approached France for her signature ; and having obtained that, as he afterwards announced in Parliament, he "*felt sure of the United States.*" Precisely at that juncture, however, Lord Aberdeen succeeding to the seals of the foreign office, sent Mr. Packenham to treat with Mr. Webster on the Maine boundary. The treaty which settled that, contained a clause, by which each party bound themselves to keep, for five years from date, a force of eighty guns, in the African seas, for the suppression of the slave trade. The "right of search" was, however, not relinquished by England. On the arrival of that treaty in Paris, it had the effect of preventing the French government from signing Lord Palmerston's treaty ; and they made a new one on the model of the Washington treaty, agreeing to keep each a force in the African seas.

Now this clause of the Washington treaty, which expired in September, 1847, was an instance of "entanglement," in a matter with which the United States had nothing to do. From the jealous manner in which the stipulated force was watched by England, to see that it was always kept full, it was evident that she supposed our small force could not spare the guns, and that especially in time of war it would prove so onerous, that we should prefer the "right of search." The matter is now, however, at an end. The joint forces have been on service in the African seas five years, and the trade is admitted to be greater than ever. Mr. Webster, in his "defence" of the treaty, states that the arrangement was designed to carry into effect one of "the stipulations of the treaty of Ghent, thought binding on us," and to *avoid* the "right of search,"—as if England had *compelled* such an alternative. The treaty of Ghent, article 10, states as follows :—

"Whereas, the traffic in slaves is irreconcilable with the principles of humanity and justice, and whereas, both his majesty and the United States are desirous of continuing their efforts to promote its entire abolition, it is agreed that both the contracting parties shall use their best endeavors to accomplish so desirable an object."

It is not easy to see why this clause, made in 1814, should involve the alternative, in 1842, of submitting to the "right of search," on one hand, or of keeping a fleet on the African coast, on the other. It does not allude to *African* slaves particularly, but includes all slaves ; and requires the United States to send a force to Hindostan to check the sale of children and debtors into slavery, in countries under British rule, as much as it does to send a naval force to the African coast. There are apparently only two ways of suppressing the slave trade, viz. : to prohibit the export of all English goods to Africa, or to colonize the whole coast. All the machinery of slavery is in full activity, in the interior of Africa. The blacks are captured, brought down, and delivered on the coast, in exchange for Lancashire goods. If, after that, they work on Brazilian plantations as slaves, or on English ones as apprentices, or emigrants, which is the new word, it is nothing to the captors ; they get their pay, and continue their captures for

future profit. If no more goods could be had for negroes, none would be brought down to the coast. England would, however, in that case, lose the sale of her goods. This "entanglement" with England about the slave trade, seems to be an anomaly in our treaty system; and as, after a useless existence, it has expired, it will probably not be continued.

The commercial prosperity of the Union is an evidence of the successful working of our system of treaties, and of the wisdom of those principles of equality and reciprocity laid down as a rule by the framers of the government. The general results of the business for 1846, show the following as the proportion of the foreign trade, done in national and other vessels:—

	ENTERED.				CLEARED.			
	Tons.	Proportion.	Imported goods.	Proportion.	Tons.	Proportion.	Exported goods.	Proportion.
American.....	2,151,114	69.15	\$106,008,173	87.11	2,221,028	69.64	\$86,550,175	76.26
Foreign.....	959,739	30.85	15,683,624	12.89	968,178	30.36	76,938,361	23.74
Total.....	3,110,853	100.00	\$121,691,797	100.00	3,189,206	100.00	\$113,488,516	100.00

A system which has produced such results, after seventy years existence as a nation, cannot be wrong in its general principles. Equal rights and reciprocity have given the United States 69.15 per cent of all the tonnage that arrives, and they bring 87.11 per cent of all the goods imported, and the vessels of the Union carry away 76.26 per cent of all the exports. The same general principles have, however, operated differently with different nations, according to the nature of the trade, the bearing which the duties levied by the United States had upon the articles of their respective production, and the degree of reciprocity stipulated. The intercourse between Great Britain and the United States, rests upon the treaty of 1815, which provides perfect reciprocity between the vessels of the two countries, in the *direct* trade; that is to say, the productions of Great Britain may be brought to the United States, in either British or American vessels, on equal terms, and reciprocally, United States productions may be carried to Great Britain, in the vessels of either country, without discrimination. The treaties with the countries of the North of Europe, negotiated in 1827-8, by Mr. Clay, are of the most liberal construction, and embrace the indirect trade; that is to say, the United States vessels may go thither from any country with the products of any country, and may go thence with the products of any country to any destination; and *vice versa*, the North of Europe vessels may come and go on the same terms. Under these treaties, the tonnage of those vessels in our ports exceeds that of our own entered directly to and from those countries.

Under the English treaty, our trade with Great Britain seems to have progressed, as indicated in the number of tons arrived from Great Britain, as follows:—

	1823.		1833.		1846.	
	Tons.	Val. of imports.	Tons.	Val. of imports.	Tons.	Val. of imports.
Amer. vessels.....	119,202	\$33,869,692	199,177	\$33,869,692	374,137	\$37,299,036
British ".....	46,011	2,858,623	111,485	2,858,623	198,373	6,545,124
Total.....	165,213	\$36,728,315	210,662	\$36,728,315	572,510	\$43,844,160

The tonnage of the Boston mail steamers was about 20,000 tons for 1846; yet the American vessels do nearly all the trade, it appears, meeting the English vessels on equal terms on their own ground. The result is different, as we have intimated, with the North of Europe treaties. In

April, 1826, Mr. Clay negotiated with Denmark a treaty of perfect reciprocity, embracing the indirect trade. In July, 1827, Mr. Appleton concluded one with Sweden on the same terms. In December, 1827, Mr. Clay perfected one with the Hanse Towns of still greater concessions. Article 1 provides :—

“The contracting parties agree, that *whatever kind of produce, manufacture, or merchandise, of any foreign country, can be, from time to time, imported into the United States, in their own vessels, may be also imported in vessels of said free Hanseatic republics, Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg*; and that no higher or other duties upon the tonnage or cargo of the vessels, shall be levied or collected, whether the importation be made in the vessels of the United States, or either of the said Hanseatic republics.”

Article 4 contains a most extraordinary provision, and one which, under the “*favoured nation clause*,” it would be difficult to maintain against the claims of other nations :—

“In consideration of the limited extent of the territories of the republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, and of the intimate connection of trade and navigation subsisting between these republics, it is hereby stipulated and agreed, that any vessel, which shall be *owned* exclusively by a citizen or citizens of any or either of them, and of which the master shall also be a citizen of any or either of them, and provided that three-fourths of the crew shall be citizens or subjects of any or either of said republics, or of *any or either of the States of the German confederation*, such vessel so owned and navigated, shall, for all purposes of this convention, be taken to be, and considered as, a vessel belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg.”

This most extraordinary provision extended to the subjects of all the distinct German States, embracing 35,000,000 of people, the privilege of Hamburg citizenship, as far as qualifying them to man vessels in the American trade went. In May, 1828, Mr. Clay concluded a treaty with Prussia. In 1829, Mr. Van Buren negotiated with Austria a treaty containing the same provision in regard to the indirect trade. The effect of these treaties may be traced partly by observing the tonnage arrived from each place :—

TONNAGE ENTERED THE UNITED STATES.

	1829.			1846.		
	Amer'n.	Foreign.	Total.	Amer'n.	Foreign.	Total.
From Austria.....	4,432	4,432	5,019	1,592	5,611
Prussia.....	389	389	419	1,375	1,794
Sweden.....	13,453	2,000	15,453	3,502	9,938	13,440
Denmark.....	281	281
Hanse Towns.....	12,862	7,290	20,152	24,872	61,656	86,528
Total.....	31,136	9,290	40,426	33,812	73,842	107,654

This is a very considerable change in the trade. While that in United States vessels has slightly increased, that in foreign vessels has come largely to exceed it. If, now, we take the total arrival of the vessels under those flags, we shall see the operation of the indirect trade :—

Where from.	Austrian.	Prussian.	Swedish.	Danish.	Hanseatic.	Total.	American.
Russia.....	319	319	11,145
Prussia.....	959	959	419
Sweden.....	9,336	542	9,878	3,502
Denmark.....	281	281
Danish West Indies.....	198	293	491	29,018
Hanse Towns.....	2,105	721	1,501	56,941	61,268	24,872
Holland.....	550	351	390	399	1,690	21,903

Where from.	Austrian.	Prussian.	Swedish.	Danish.	Hanseatic.	Total.	American.
Belgium.....	980	222	352	1,554	12,714
England.....	170	892	925	1,987	374,137
France.....	367	587	2,685	1,582	5,221	113,554
China.....	306	306	18,937
Spain.....	399	1,125	128	1,651	18,001
Spanish islands.....	247	544	791	1,683
Cuba.....	90	90	156,905
Portugal.....	443	443	5,128
Sicily.....	581	300	881	21,798
Tuscany.....	366	366	3,387
Trieste.....	337	255	592	5,019
Turkey.....	1,477	1,477	7,170
Texas.....	444	444	21,908
Mexico.....	149	117	150	78	494	22,410
Brazil.....	275	2,435	773	1,139	4,622	61,014
Argentine republic.....	150	254	404	5,988
Chili.....	923	275	1,198	6,560
Hayti.....	307	154	461	30,264
Africa.....	434	434	9,418
Sandwich Islands.....	231	231	606
Total.....	1,844	5,409	21,047	5,275	63,669	97,244	927,430

The tonnage of these nations arriving in the Union, amounts, it appears, to 10 per cent of the United States tonnage arriving from the same places, after nineteen years operation of treaties conferring equal privileges. In the direct trade, however, with Sweden, Prussia, and the Hanse Towns, the tonnage of those countries far exceeds that of the United States coming direct. This account does not embrace the United States tonnage arriving at those ports from other nations, nor the departures for other countries—as, for instance, American vessels arriving at Hamburg from Havana or the Brazils. What amount of that trade the United States vessels enjoy, under the treaties, as an offset to the increase of foreign tonnage in our own ports, does not appear in the official table. It seems that, of 21,047 Swedish tonnage that arrived in 1846, only 9,336 came from Sweden, and only 7,765 cleared thither; of 5,275 tons Danish tonnage, only 281 came from Denmark, but 1,128 cleared for there. The greatest increase in the foreign tonnage appears to be in the Hanseatic, under the extraordinary stipulation of Mr. Clay, that vessels *owned* there, though built elsewhere, and *manned by the citizens of other countries*, should be considered Hanseatic vessels. With other countries, it is required, that vessels should be *built* and manned by their own citizens. The Hanseatic treaty is probably the nearest approach to free trade extant, and nearly as much so as the treaty made by Mr. Pitt, with France, just before the great revolution broke out, or our own regulations with that government made at nearly the same period. Its effect is doubtless to facilitate the general commerce of the world, and the consumption of American produce in Germany, by promoting the means of transportation. It has exerted very nearly the same influence on American trade generally, in a more moderate degree, as that which the suspension of the navigation laws of France, England, and Belgium, in respect of corn, exerted on the sale of American farm produce, in the summer of 1847. The multiplicity of vessels caused the rate of freight on flour to fall from 8s. 9d. sterling per barrel, in February, to 1s. 6d., in August. At the same time, the price of flour, in Liverpool, fell from 40s. to 30s. In spite of this fall, the New York shipper was, through the supply of freight, in relatively the same position to the Liverpool market, in August, as in February.

The treaty with France concluded in 1822, and under which our trade with that power is at present regulated, provided for a discriminating duty in favor of national vessels; as thus, on whatever duty was charged on French goods, arriving in the United States in United States vessels, an additional duty of not more than \$3 75 per ton of merchandise, should be charged on the same goods arriving in French vessels. The quantities that make a ton were specified, and also 94 cents per ton, ship's register, additional; and *reciprocally*, United States vessels arriving in France should pay 20 francs extra per ton of merchandise, and 5 francs per ton of ship's register—this treaty to continue two years, and after that to be subject to one year's notice of discontinuance—the discriminating duties on goods to cease one-fourth, at the end of two years, and one-fourth annually thereafter; consequently, the discrimination ceased in 1829, and the trade is now on a basis of reciprocity. The discriminating tonnage duty is, however, continued, and is much higher than France charges upon the vessels of any other nation. British vessels pay but 20 cents, and in ballast nothing. It will be observed, that Hanseatic vessels being, as respects the indirect trade, on the same footing with the United States, and being subjected to a lower tonnage duty in France than United States vessels, they have an actual advantage over those of the United States in going to France for freights. Thus, if two vessels of 400 tons each, leave the Elbe for Havre to take freight for the United States, one a German and the other an American, the former will be charged in Havre 72 cents, or \$288 tonnage, and the latter \$376, and on arriving in the United States both will be on the same terms. Yet this advantage does not appear to have operated much against our trade, as in the above table it will be seen that, in 1846, but 5,221 foreign tons came from France, and 113,554 American; there came, also, 7,678 tons of French shipping. For a long time, the silks of France were admitted at nominal duties, and free, and her wines on liberal terms. This did not induce France to modify her absurd discrimination against American trade, or modify the high taxes she imposes on American produce; yet the tariff of 1846, which raised the duties on her produce, has been matter of complaint with her journals. France imposes $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound on United States cotton—a higher rate than upon that of other countries—and yet her statesmen talk learnedly of competing with England in the manufacture, when that country has been obliged to remove the duty from cotton altogether. This tax is not so much a disadvantage to the United States, as it is a burden to French manufacturers. The small degree of wisdom displayed by France in her commercial legislation, places her far behind those nations she affects to rival.

The trade with the British colonies was not included in the treaty which regulated that with the mother country, and is now regulated by a British order in council, of 1830, an act of Congress, and the President's proclamation of the same year. The order in council established certain "free ports," to which United States vessels might come direct from the United States, with American products, on the same terms as British vessels, and might sail thence to any country whatever. The act of Congress empowered the President to issue a proclamation, opening the United States ports to colonial vessels whenever he should have evidence that United States vessels were free to visit the colonies. This was done. It has been a cause of complaint, however, that, while United States vessels could, on pain of forfeiture, visit only certain enumerated ports of the colonies, and one only at one voyage, British vessels might come from any

colonial ports and visit any of the ports of the Union, and returning from the Union go to different colonial ports; and that British vessels, by making a freight from England to the West Indies, can earn another to the United States, and thence another to England, on terms cheaper, by reason of the triple voyage, than United States vessels can carry their own produce to England. It has also been alleged, that the United States trade with the West Indies has diminished by being supplanted by British vessels. The nationality and tonnage of the vessels trading to the West Indies and the British colonies, in 1829 and in 1846, appears to be as follows:—

TONNAGE ENTERED FROM WEST INDIES, 1829.

	American.	British.	French.	Spanish.	Swed.	Danish.	Haytien.	Total.
Swedish W. Indies...	17,969	815	18,784
Dutch ".....	13,325	122	13,447
Danish ".....	43,463	482	44,945
British ".....	32,777	317	36,094
British Guiana.....
French W. Indies....	40,516	9,207	137	49,860
Spanish ".....	19,179	42	295	19,416
Cuba.....	99,779	2,091	785	8,646	326	111,627
Hayti.....	21,370	200	74	2,931	24,575
Honduras.....
British N. America...	88,492	4,409	92,901
Total.....	376,970	7,017	10,034	8,783	815	1,299	2,931	411,649

TONNAGE ENTERED IN 1846.

	American.	British.	French.	Spanish.	Dan.	Hanse.	Total.
Swedish W. Indies.....	653	653
Dutch ".....	13,935	13,935
Danish ".....	29,018	478	198	293	29,987
British ".....	90,484	33,724	124,208
British Guiana.....	7,299	6,108	13,407
French W. Indies.....	5,275	5,275
Spanish ".....	51,284	270	51,554
Cuba.....	156,905	650	2,664	90	160,309
Hayti.....	30,264	91	251	307	154	31,067
Honduras.....	5,359	64	5,423
British N. America.....	850,784	515,879	1,366,663
Total.....	1,235,985	556,994	5,526	2,934	505	537	1,802,481

This trade, it will be observed, has more than quadrupled, and in every case the increase is largely on the side of the United States. If, now, we compare the quantities of goods imported and exported, we shall arrive at an approximation of the manner in which United States interests have been affected under the admitted disadvantages of the arrangement:—

	1839.			1846.		
	Amer. vessels.	For'n vessels.	Total.	Amer. vessels.	For'n vessels.	Total.
Swedish W. I.	283,049	283,049	5,285	5,285
Dutch ".....	434,717	3,415	438,132	397,600	456	398,056
Danish ".....	2,036,311	16,955	2,053,266	745,010	7,604	752,614
British ".....	175,628	64,596	240,224	555,953	277,725	843,678
Brit. Guiana...	12,561	12,561
French W. I.	756,419	21,573	777,992	336,813	11,423	348,236
Spanish ".....	884,646	14,186	898,832	2,252,316	24,794	2,277,110
Cuba.....	4,720,151	146,373	4,866,524	8,083,911	75,721	8,159,632
Hayti.....	1,570,288	229,521	1,799,809	1,521,692	21,270	1,542,962
Honduras.....	64,847	64,807	207,997	207,997
British N. Am.	575,066	2,476	277,542	826,993	1,110,724	1,937,717
Total.....	7,451,116	499,125	11,700,177	14,946,131	1,529,717	16,186,348

All the increase in the imports from the West Indies, appears to have taken place in American vessels. Before the present arrangement, the trade went through the Danish and Swedish islands to the British islands, but as the Spanish islands furnish the same articles on better terms, the trade with them has increased in a greater degree. The domestic exports of the United States have been as follows to those places :—

EXPORTS OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE.

Where to.	1829.			1846.		
	Amer. vessels.	For'n vessels.	Total.	Amer. vessels.	For'n vessels.	Total.
Swedish W. I.	\$679,212	\$5,311	\$684,523	\$138,121	\$138,121
Dutch “	370,887	8,987	379,874	263,775	\$872	264,647
Danish “	1,914,643	27,367	1,942,010	919,601	39,851	959,452
British “	1,463	1,463	4,221,598	693,485	4,915,083
Brit. Guiana...	464,129	87,539	551,668
French W. I. ...	990,975	65,664	1,056,639	587,724	30,388	618,112
Spanish “ ...	200,248	9,532	209,780	656,101	19,340	675,441
Cuba.....	3,375,563	343,700	3,719,263	4,285,913	428,053	4,713,966
Hayti.....	664,462	150,525	814,987	1,089,112	24,901	1,114,013
Honduras.....	12,693	12,693	325,494	325,494
British N. Am.	2,654,830	69,274	2,724,104	3,536,462	2,506,204	6,042,666
Total.....	10,864,976	580,360	11,545,336	16,488,030	3,830,633	20,318,663

This is a great progress of trade, and highly advantageous to the United States in every respect. The sales of produce to the different colonies of European governments, have greatly increased, and the carrying is 75 per cent in American vessels. Whatever advantages English vessels may have in existing arrangements, superior to those enjoyed by the vessels of the Union, the effect appears to be only to promote the consumption of American produce in the islands, by facilitating the transportation. That policy which would seek to prevent British vessels from coming here to buy farm produce, because England is so selfish as to prevent the United States from buying the products of her colonies, cannot be considered wise or statesmanlike. An instance of this short-sighted policy occurred in the plaster trade of Nova Scotia. The quarry was situated at a place remote from the free port, at which alone American vessels were allowed to load, while British vessels were allowed to go directly to the spot. This was thought a disadvantage to American vessels, while it proved to be so only to the quarry owners, who were deprived of American customers by this folly. Now, under the supposition that the whole above quantity of \$20,318,663 of farm produce was carried in foreign vessels, there would be little wisdom in refusing to sell that produce at all, unless it could be carried in American bottoms. Yet this is the spirit in which navigation laws are enacted. As it is, the produce is not only sold, but carried, to a considerable extent, in American vessels; and yet this matter has been a fruitful source of complaint with certain parties among us.

The manner in which these laws operate practically, may be gathered from a few facts. The famine, which has overtaken England in the last year, has compelled her to abolish the Navigation Laws in respect to corn, which, until March next, may be imported into Great Britain, from any country, in any vessel. The effect of this has been, conjointly with the United States law, allowing goods to pass the United States territory, to and from Canada, in bond, to induce shipment of flour from Canada to England in American vessels, via the Oswego Canal and the port of New York—a route 50 cents per barrel cheaper than down the St. Lawrence.

Similar necessities have, also, induced the appointment of a parliamentary committee to examine into the operation of the Navigation Laws, in respect to the indirect trade. A short quotation from the evidence of Mr. Berger, a London merchant in the United States trade, will show the tendency of this investigation. In answer to the question, "Have you experienced any inconvenience or loss from the operation of the Navigation Laws?" Mr. Berger gives a reply at once comprehensive and specific:—

"The principal inconvenience that we experience is from that clause in the Navigation Law which enacts that goods, not the produce of the United States, shall only be brought from the United States in an English vessel. There is a large trade carried on, principally from the northern ports of the United States, viz., Boston and New York, with Africa, the East Indies, and other parts; there is a large market there for the produce of those countries, and very frequent opportunities occur, when the markets in this country are bare of those articles, and when it would be most important that they should be brought over here. I speak of such articles as palm oil, ivory, African hides, East India hides, Manilla hemp, East India gums, and African gums, and dye-woods of all kinds; a considerable quantity of East and West India drugs, Cuba tobacco, annatto, and other articles: all those articles are very valuable, though not much in bulk.

"Are those articles that you have a great trade in? Yes, a considerable trade both in London and in Liverpool, and those articles can only be imported into this country in British vessels.

"Have you experienced any difficulty in procuring British ships in the northern ports of the United States, Boston and New York? Frequently there has been a difficulty and a delay in getting forward those goods, from the difficulty of getting British ships."

Not that there is any absolute deficiency of British shipping in these northern ports. But the British ships that frequent New York and Boston are mainly an inferior class of colonial craft, from Nova Scotia or New Brunswick, not adapted to carry the more valuable descriptions of American produce, and not always "in a position to come across the Atlantic." "Generally speaking," adds the witness, "they are the worst which we get, and the consequence is an increased rate of premium on the insurance, an increased length of voyage, and an increased loss of interest; and what affects us more than anything else, the risk of the loss of the market, which the delay and the length of the voyage entail upon us."

"Can you give any particular instance of the difficulty of getting British ships, in which to import those particular goods that you have referred to into this country? Yes; one of our friends writes us here in November last, from Salem, Massachusetts: 'The favorable state of your market would induce me to send about 150 casks of palm oil lately received, was there any British vessel here at this time; and also another parcel of 150 hogsheads, which I daily expect.' And afterwards he wrote us, 'The 150 casks which are mentioned in my last I have sold, there not being a British vessel;' so that not only a British ship lost the freight, but we lost the commission."

"The favorable state of the British market" is simply a short way of saying that Great Britain very particularly wanted palm oil, at that particular moment, and would have been only too happy to pay a handsome price for it. But the Navigation Laws stopped the way. The examination proceeds:—

"Can you give another instance? I can give another instance which affected us. The goods were sent by a ship which bears a good name, but which was a wretched craft—the Duke of Wellington; she was a St. John's ship, loading at Boston. There were 100 bales of Cuba tobacco which had to be sent round from

New York to Boston ; the ship made a very long passage, and that tobacco, if it could have been shipped by an American vessel, would have been here six weeks before, and would have been sold for 3s. 3d. a pound ; but before the time this ship got here, the market declined 2s., and the tobacco is still on hand now, and is not worth more than 1s. 3d. a pound. Upon that single transaction there was a loss to the parties interested of £500, or £600. There was another instance in October last. Our correspondent wrote to us in these terms :—‘ There are at present 1,000 bales of Manilla hemp here, which would go forward were there any British ship.’ We had to send out a ship from this country ; she got into distress, and had to put back to Cork, and those 1,000 bales, not having come forward, being equal to 250 tons, have since been sold abroad.”

The colonial policy of Great Britain, as well as that of other nations of Europe, has, however, always had in view the maintenance of a close monopoly, until recently, when great modifications have been made in it. The monopoly was, moreover, of a very comprehensive character. It is a monopoly of supply of colonial produce, and of manufacture. The colonies were allowed to draw their supplies only from the mother country ; they were constrained to carry all their produce to her markets only ; and were prohibited from manufacturing themselves, being required to send their raw material to England to be wrought up. Earl Chatham declared in Parliament, that colonists in America had no right to manufacture so much as a nail for a horse-shoe. Under such a system, the colonist was but a slave ; he was working for the benefit of the subjects at home, while debarred from their political rights. In the course of time, however, it came to be discovered that the growth of the colonies was cramped through inefficient supplies, and they were permitted to procure them from other nations, the United States particularly. In 1835, the abolition mania ruined the physical resources of the colonies ; and as one monopoly led to another, the people of England were allowed to buy no articles similar to those produced in the colonies, except from them. The consequence was, that England could consume no more than they could produce, and when the slaves were manumitted the production was reduced. For timber, coffee, sugar, &c., the people of England paid high prices—the differential duties on foreign articles always maintaining the prices at the colonial monopoly rate. This evil led, in 1842, under the reform of the tariff, to the admission of foreign articles at a less discrimination, taking from the colonies a part of their fancied advantages in the home market. This has produced a desire on the part of the colonists to procure the removal of the inhibition from *recruiting* laborers in certain latitudes of Africa, or, in other words, to renew the slave trade, and it is probable that the privilege will be granted. The idea of a naked, black savage, just released from his captors, *voluntarily emigrating* to the British West Indies, is a theory of British philanthropists, as pleasant as it is preposterous.

When a system of protection or close monopoly is begun to be disturbed, the work of pulling to pieces must be done rapidly. The colonies were only able to bear the confinement to British markets, because of the high rates the people of England were compelled to pay for their produce. As soon as they become exposed to foreign competitors in the English markets, it becomes necessary for them to find more favorable sources of supply. If they are compelled to sell cheaper, they must also buy cheaper, and procure cheaper and more efficient labor than free blacks will afford. There is no doubt but that the declaration of the minister, in 1842, that the colonies must be treated as “integral parts of the kingdom,” will be soon ful-

filled. There will then be a system of perfect free trade between England and her dependencies, and the trade of the latter with foreign countries be put on a liberal footing.

The most important change in regard to the West Indies, which sooner or later must take place, is in regard to the Island of Cuba, a country of inexhaustible agricultural wealth. So great are its resources, and so fertile its soil, that the protective system even of Spain has not been able to ruin it, even although it has supplied its slave population at enormous expense, annually, and been drawn upon for large sums to support the waste of the mother country. From the time when the combined tyranny of church and state drove the industrious Moors from Spain, the ingenuity of the Spanish government seems to have been exerted to retard the prosperity of the kingdom and all its dependencies. The gold of America corrupted court and people; industry and enterprise languished; commerce was destroyed by barbarous restrictions; and the wealth and population of the kingdom wasted away under a rigid system of "protection to home industry." The last official census reports 1,511 towns and villages uninhabited and abandoned. In the bishopric of Salamanca, there were formerly 127 towns; there are now but thirteen. Seville, in the 17th century, had a population of 300,000, of whom 130,000 were manufacturers; at present, the gross population is 96,000. Merida has declined from 40,000 to 5,000. Valencia, according to Escolano, had, in 1600, 600,000 inhabitants, and has now but 130,000. These are indications of the state of Spain, when all other nations have advanced through mutual treaties and the effect of increasing commercial intercourse. The spirit of close monopoly and grinding oppression, which has reduced her from the imperial splendor of Charles V. to her present degradation, has lost her most of the colonies that he acquired, and has loosened her hold upon Cuba, the inestimable prize on which the eyes of all nations are fastened. While drawing from it annually large revenues and forced loans, the mother country has constantly refused to better its condition by a more liberal commercial policy, or to listen to the urgent memorials of the islanders for the suppression of the slave trade. Papers, as sound in argument and as bold in remonstrance as were addressed by the people of the colony of Virginia to England for the prohibition of the traffic, have gone up from Cuba to the government at Madrid, but without effect. The worst features of the colonial policy are applied to the commerce of the island; and the efforts of the United States, either by solicitation or countervailing duties, have failed to elicit any modification by treaty of the restriction on international trade. Thus, as an instance, the duty on a barrel of flour imported into Cuba from the United States, in an American vessel, is \$9 50, and from Spain, in a Spanish vessel, \$2; the discrimination being 150 per cent of the average price of the flour. These enormous exactions are ruinous to colonial interests, more particularly that the rivalry of the Brazils, in coffee and sugar, and the United States, in sugar, diminishes the value of Cuban produce. The United States can live without selling flour to Cuba, but Cuba could ill afford to lose the United States market for sugar. During the last few years, Spain has, to some extent, changed her policy in favor of her former colonies, and passed reciprocity treaties with Venezuela, Chili, New Granada, and Mexico. The principle is, that of admitting into Spain the produce of dissident colonies on lower terms than the same produce of other nations. Through these

means she hopes to procure from Venezuela as much cotton as will supply the Catalonian cotton-mills, independently of the United States. In accordance with this policy, she seems rather to repel the trade of the Union than otherwise. In spite of the disadvantages of the commerce with Cuba, and which Spain refuses to ameliorate through treaty stipulation, the trade is large and profitable to the Union. It was as follows, in 1846:—

COMMERCE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CUBA.									
EXPORTS.					IMPORTS.				
	Vessels cleared.		Domestic produce.	Foreign goods.	Total.	Vessels entered.		Goods.	
	No.	Tons.				No.	Tons.		
American vessels..	8,451	2,221,028	\$4,235,913	\$766,122	\$5,052,035	8,111	2,151,114	\$8,063,911	
Foreign " ..	5,770	968,178	428,053	7,048	435,101	5,707	959,739	75,721	
Total	14,221	3,189,206	\$4,713,966	\$773,170	\$5,487,136	13,818	3,110,853	\$8,159,632	

This is a large trade, and mostly in American bottoms, being a singular instance of the fact, how little discriminating duties or paper regulations can prevent trade, where it is not absolutely prohibited, from falling into the most capable hands. A fair revenue tariff, in Cuba, would doubtless double the consumption of American produce in the island, and increase the prosperity of the Cubans in a similar proportion. It is not improbable that, in a few years, circumstances may place the island under the control of the Union, when the increase of white population, the suppression of the slave trade, internal means of communication, and external freedom of commerce, will soon make it one of the most wealthy States of the world. Although Spanish legislation has been most inimical to American commerce, the United States do a larger share of Cuban trade than any other nation. In 1841, the imports into Cuba were as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CUBA, 1841.						
	From Spain.	England.	France.	Netherlands.	U. States.	All others.
Imports.....	\$5,295,261	\$1,437,199	\$618,461	\$1,010,291	\$5,654,125	\$8,125,680
Exports.....	3,473,630	6,779,438	968,605	2,835,917	5,660,739	2,329,719
Total.....	\$8,768,891	\$8,186,637	\$1,527,066	\$3,846,208	\$11,314,864	\$10,455,399
						\$44,294,055

The imports and exports of the United States are \$11,314,864, being larger than the trade with the mother country—a strong indication of the affinity, if it may be so expressed, of the island for the United States, and showing the inevitable tendency of unrestricted trade to throw the island into the arms of the Union. The mutual wants and interests are too strong, even for the hostile legislation of the mother country.

In looking back at the great progress we have made as a commercial nation, through the agency of reciprocity treaties in opening the previously sealed ports of Europe to our enterprise, we find that prosperity has increased with every concession, made either by ourselves or by foreign powers. The Hanseatic treaties, apparently, have operated against our shipping trade, inasmuch as that the amount of the foreign tonnage is greater in the direct trade. It is, nevertheless, true, that the quantity of domestic produce sent thither has quadrupled; that is to say, in 1825, it was \$1,144,474, and in 1846, \$4,008,315. The trade done in American vessels has gradually increased, but that in foreign vessels faster, to the great advantage of the growers of rice, tobacco, and cotton. This has not flowed solely from the privileges that the Hanseatic shipping enjoy, but those advantages have been a means. By the great German Customs Union, or Zollverein, a great diminution took place in the restrictions on the internal trade of Germany, resulting from which was a greatly

increased consumption of goods and produce, foreign and domestic; and coming in aid of those movements, Mr. Wheaton, our minister at Berlin, succeeded, in 1839, in procuring a reduction in the duties on rice imported into the Zollverein. An increased import and consumption of United States rice took place in consequence, and the resulting increase of revenue to the German Union, disposed them to farther liberal measures. Cotton is admitted free of duty; and in 1844, a treaty was concluded, by which an important reduction in the duties on tobacco was stipulated, in exchange for a reduction of duties on certain German goods in the United States. This treaty, unfortunately, was rejected, on the ground, chiefly, that it took from Congress the regulation of the tariff, and conferred it on the treaty-making power. The present tariff has nearly accomplished the reduction on German goods required by the rejected treaty, and it is to be hoped that a new one may be negotiated. It is matter of regret that any growing disposition in Europe to meet us on more liberal terms, should be chilled by backwardness on our part. The business of 30,000,000 united and prosperous Germans is not to be lightly rejected, more particularly that, at no distant day, Hanover and the Hanse Towns must make part of the Customs Union, and every encouragement should therefore be held out to induce the line of duties to be brought down to the low level of those now imposed by Hamburgh, and which are nearly nominal. The Hanse Towns make fierce resistance to this Union, but it is questionable whether they will be able to resist it.

Art. II.—AMERICAN OCEAN STEAM NAVIGATION:

OR, THE FIRST AMERICAN MAIL STEAMER TO BREMEN.

IN the attention lately directed towards the pioneer of the American line of ocean steamers, the only point which seems to have occupied the public mind has been, in how many days will she reach England? The great object for which the line was established, seems to have been entirely overlooked, or, perhaps, it was never generally understood. A few words, therefore, on this subject, may not be uninteresting.

When Congress passed a law authorizing the Postmaster-General to contract for the transportation of mails to foreign ports, regard was of course had to England as a principal point. But the Postmaster-General did not consider that England was all the world. On the contrary, he knew that the whole continent of Europe was intimately connected with us in commercial and social relations; and as an American statesman he could not but feel that, for the keeping up of those relations in the way of correspondence, we were entirely dependent upon England—at her mercy in time of peace, and to be cut off entirely in case of war. Under this view, and with the further view of getting as much service out of the line as possible, he determined upon a route by steamers which should touch at a port in the British channel, and deliver *en passant* our mail for England, also a mail for Havre, and which should then go on and open direct communication with some suitable point on the continent, from which, independent of England, and without paying tribute to her, we might distribute our own mail, and be the vehicle of our own correspondence throughout continental Europe.

In carrying out these views, he saw spread out before him the great map of Germany, teeming with a population advanced in all useful arts—with great cities, and large manufacturing districts spread over its surface from the Rhine to the Danube—eager and anxious to cultivate with us, above all other people in the world, the most direct and intimate relations; and lastly, he had regard to the thousands and tens of thousands of Germans, who had sent out their sons and daughters, “bone of their bone and flesh of their flesh,” to dwell among us, and form part of the great body of American citizens.

Bremen was indicated as the door of entrance to this great country; and the Senate of Bremen, on behalf of all Northern Germany, made the most liberal offers of its post-office and harbor free of all charges. It is understood that the subject of the terminus received the careful consideration of the whole cabinet; and that, looking to it in a national point of view, and with reference to the greatest national advantages, the President himself named Bremen; to which the cabinet unanimously assented, believing that this point would open a new and great field for American enterprise.

A contract was immediately entered into. On the 7th September, 1846, the keel of the first United States mail steamer was laid; and on the 1st June ensuing, the *Washington*, of 2,000 tons burthen, left New York, carrying the United States mail for Southampton, Havre, and Bremen. Major Hobbie, the First Assistant Postmaster-General, was on board to carry out the enlightened views of the Postmaster-General; and as she left the wharf, thousands cheered her on her mission of peace.

Crossing the Atlantic, and with some reason to expect a friendly reception in England, almost before her anchor touched bottom at Southampton, the American Consul came on board with a big hand-bill or circular letter, from the Lords of the Treasury, addressed to all postmasters in the country—not, indeed, in so many words, but in effect—“that, whereas the government of the United States had undertaken to establish a mail line of its own, and to carry the letters of its own citizens, which would destroy the British monopoly of Atlantic mail-carrying, and make the American correspondence independent of England, and take a great many shillings from their mail, therefore resolved, that every letter arriving or transmitted by the *Washington*, be charged one shilling, precisely the same as if carried by the Cunard steamers.” The object of this, of course, being, by doubling the postage upon all letters by the American mail, to drive all correspondence into their own line; and, in good keeping with this illiberal spirit, the rumor was general at Southampton that these same Lords of the Treasury intended to start the Cunard steamers, now building for New York, from Southampton, instead of Liverpool, so as effectually to run off the American line!

And these friendly demonstrations were in return for the courtesy of our government, in receiving and distributing all letters by the Cunard line free of all charge or claim of any kind, for carrying their mails across our territory in sealed boxes, taking their own account of the contents, and waiving the usual charge of six cents upon all foreign letters, and in all other post-office matters showing them the extreme of liberality and courtesy.

This touch of “British reciprocity,” entirely unexpected to Major Hobbie, excited the indignation and regret of all the Americans on board;

and the welcome of the town of Southampton was in a quiet way, quite as significant. When the first Cunard steamer arrived at Boston, the whole town gave her an uproarious welcome, as the pioneer in a new and great enterprise. When the *Sirius* appeared at New York, our municipal authorities, in the name and on behalf of the city, gave her a cordial reception. So in the case of the *Great Western*, and lately of the first French steamer. But the city of Southampton, although just at this moment aiming at a reputation for enterprise, and inviting all kinds of new business, and although acknowledging through the newspapers the benefit of the line to hotel-keepers and tradesmen, took no notice whatever of the arrival of the *Washington*. True, the *Southampton Dock Company* did give a dinner on the occasion, but it was as the dock company, and not as citizens of Southampton, or even as Englishmen; and without meaning to undervalue at all their real hospitality and good feeling, but on the contrary acknowledging it in its fullest extent, and even thankful for the smallest favors, it would not be too much to say that, as the *dock company*, and in the way of business, they would perhaps welcome a new line of steamers from Botany Bay, or any other place, which brought them an accession of dock dues. At any rate the town of Southampton, in its corporate capacity, gave no sign of welcome, nor was there any general or public demonstration on the part of its citizens.

As the account of the *dock company* dinner has found its way into all our newspapers, as the evidence of an English welcome, while no notice whatever has been taken of the reception of the *Washington* at Bremen, it is due to the Germans, as well as to all who have had any part in originating and carrying out this enterprise, to follow the ship to that place. Indeed, it is a great pleasure to do so. The North Sea smiled as the ship drew nigh the shores of Germany. It was the first American steamer that had ever moved upon that sea, and Captain Hewitt piloted her himself. The sun broke cheerily as she entered the Weser. Two steamers, decorated with the flags of all nations, came down to meet her. Aloft was the star-spangled banner, and streaming in proud and brotherly union, the flag of the republic of Bremen, emblazoned with the arms of the city, a large key, emblematic of its local position, as holding and ready to open the door of Germany. With music playing, and cannon firing, the two steamers escorted the *Washington* to her moorings, at Bremen Haven. The port and all the vessels in the harbor were decorated with flags. A deputation of the municipal authorities came on board, and with a formal address welcomed to Germany the first American mail steamer. One of the attending steamers received on board the mail, Major Hobbie, the directors of the company, and other passengers, and followed by a numerous escort, started for Bremen, thirty miles distant. As she moved up the river, merchant vessels, steamers, lighters, row-boats, sail-boats, and every craft she met, were decked with colors. The Weser fishermen, scattered along the line of the river, and even the stolid boors, constantly drudging to keep open the channel, smiled a welcome; while at every village the whole population lined the bank, unused to the noisy welcome of a hurrah, but with beaming eyes expressing the deep feeling of their hearts at this opening of direct steam communication with America. It was, in truth, the opening of a day of promise. A precious messenger had arrived, bringing to them the thoughts, wishes, hopes, feelings, and prospects, of near connections, separated by an immense sea. At

short intervals, the same messenger would come again ; at times, indeed, bringing tales of bereavement and wo, but in the main to scatter joy and gladness—to cheer the heart of the toiling peasant by frequent and early intelligence of the prosperity and thrift of his friends in America.

Approaching Bremen, the escort of boats became more numerous ; and from the ramparts, which form on that side the boundary of the city, the quay was lined with citizens of all ages and sizes, while the balconies of the tall houses fronting it, and every window, presented living tableaux, graced by ladies, who, waving handkerchiefs and scattering flowers, welcomed the Americans to Bremen. In the balcony of one house, distinguished by his standing white hair and strongly-marked features, and to the Americans on board remarkable for his striking resemblance to General Jackson, was Burgomaster Smidt, for twenty-six years Burgomaster of Bremen, and a historic person in Europe ; having drawn upon himself the jealous eye of Napoleon for his liberal opinions, and as the head of disaffection in the Hanse Towns. On the fall of the emperor he had been sent by those towns as a delegate to the Congress of Vienna, which divided up the continental empires and fixed their territorial limits. The year preceding, the city of Bremen had celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of his service as burgomaster ; and one of his sons, resident at Louisville, in Kentucky, went out in the Washington to join the family gathering on the fiftieth anniversary of his father's marriage. But the old burgomaster was not reposing upon his honors, or falling back upon his domestic ties ; on the contrary, he had on him at that moment the full harness of usefulness. He had been the master-spirit of Germany, in bringing about the consummation of this enterprise ; and among the thousands and tens of thousands of German hearts which welcomed the arrival of the Washington, perhaps none beat stronger than his. Escorted by a deputation of senators, with the crowd opening respectfully before him, he came on board, and in the name and on behalf of the city welcomed the Americans to Bremen. In the meantime cannon were firing, and a full band on the quay and on board the steamer was playing the national airs of Germany. The music ceased, and all at once changed to Yankee Doodle—in that distant region a heart-stirring sound—and to this home tune, the Americans, each on the arm of a burgomaster or senator, were escorted up a staircase, covered with an arbor of evergreens, to the quay. The crowd opened so as to allow a passage to their carriages, and they were escorted to their hotels. To the whole city it seemed a jubilee ; and perhaps throughout all Bremen there was not an old woman or child who did not know of the arrival of the Washington, and that a joyful event had occurred for Germany.

An early intimation was given, that the Senate of Bremen intended to make a formal demonstration in honor of the arrival of the Washington ; but before this could take place, the "Hunters' Club" offered the entertainment of a target-firing. This came off on Sunday, which, according to the custom of Germany, after morning attendance at church, is devoted to amusement and social enjoyment.

The place was an open field, about six miles from the city, surrounded by woods. Entering the barriers, the guests received badges constituting them members of the club. In the centre of the field, the most conspicuous object, and immediately attracting the eye by its fanciful and elegant appearance, was a large circular pavilion, perhaps 200 feet in diameter

on the ground, and rising gracefully, in alternate stripes of red and white, to a point. On the top of the staff waved the American and Bremen flag. Under the canopy was an orchestra, and ranges of tables with covers for perhaps 2,000 or 3,000 people, arranged with as much neatness and order as at a hotel. In different parts of the ground were masts to climb, and arrangements for gymnastic and other sports to exercise and amuse. Next to the pavilion, the ball-room was the most striking feature, which, though but a temporary structure, was large, and tastefully decorated. Beyond was the shooting-ground, and all around were the woods for a stroll. A large portion of the population of Bremen was there—burgomasters, senators, mechanics, and tradesmen of every degree; fathers, mothers, husbands, wives, brothers, sisters and lovers, children and servants, and, forming a striking feature, peasant women in the costumes of their separate villages, tall and well-formed, with long hair hanging down the back, and glittering plate on the crown of the head, all moving harmoniously together—generally knowing each other, free, affable, and social: the rich unpretending, and the poor unassuming, widening the circle of human affections.

As the entertainment was in honor of the arrival of the *Washington*, the Americans were the guests of the day. At the hour for dinner, they were brought in from their rambles, and, with Burgomaster Smidt leading the way, conducted to places at table. Senators, and others connected with the enterprise, were seated near them. The tent was hung with American flags, and the dishes before the guests were decorated with miniature flags, steam-ships, and emblems commemorative of the occasion. Thrown among burgomasters, senators, and other dignitaries, the Americans were excluded from the society of the ladies, who graced the other tables, and whose presence gave an air of elegance, and threw a refinement over manners, which would perhaps not always be found at a "target-firing." While at dinner, our hosts, "the hunters," with rifles laid aside, but in costume, took their places in the orchestra, and played and sang the national airs of Germany and America. One, in a fit of enthusiasm, wrote the *Washington Polka*, which was played on the spot, and is probably now in print on its way to this country. Another, from the orchestra, in his hunter's dress, and surrounded by his associate "hunters," made a long speech at us in German, which we could not understand, but in which the frequent use of the words "*Washington*" and "*America*," the hints of friends alongside, and the expression of a thousand eyes, assured us that he was giving us a "hunter's welcome." Major Hobbie responded, and had the advantage of having around him a party who understood and appreciated the peculiarly felicitous character of his reply. After dinner, the company again scattered. The ball-room was a favorite gathering-place; waltzing, gymnastics, and shooting, all had their votaries, and many paired off for a stroll in the woods. The Americans walked to a beautiful country-seat in the neighborhood, and about dark returned to the ground. The hunters were waiting for them, drawn up outside of the tent, for a procession. Places were assigned them. Burgomaster Smidt took the arm of one of the directors, and, with the band playing *Washington's March*, they were escorted across the ground. Reaching the other extremity, the hunters opened, and the guests moved between them, and were brought to a stand in front of a large illuminated frame-work. Cannon were fired, and from the frame-work flashed out, in letters of fire, the

name of "Washington." At the same moment, the hunters sent up a shout which shook the air—"Washington and America!" Rockets and fire-balls lighted up the darkness of the scene, and showed all around the stern features of men and the gentle faces of women beaming with enthusiasm. A friend, at the request and on behalf of the Americans, answered, "Germania!" The hunters took up the word, and as the light died away, the stirring shout from a thousand manly voices—"Germania and America!"—rang in the ear.

The next day, the Senate gave a stately dinner. In the uncertainty as to the time of the Washington's arrival, no invitations had been sent to the interior, but delegates were present from several of the adjoining States. It was understood that the Crown Prince of Prussia would have been there, but the Diet was in session at Berlin, and his presence was required at the capital. Prussia was represented by Baron Patow, Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and delegates from Hanover, Brunswick, Oldenburgh, and other States assisted, manifesting that all Northern Germany sympathized in this opening of direct communication with America. Rarely has there assembled at one board a more respectable or venerable-looking body of men, or more undivided in sympathy with the cause which brought them together. The room was beautifully decorated with the flags of the different German States, and at the head, crossing each other, were those of the United States and Bremen. On the coming in of the roast, being the point of the dinner recognized for such purposes, according to the custom of Germany, the venerable Burgomaster Smidt rose and said:—

"He designated the arrival of the Washington, on the Weser, as an event which had converted hopes into reality—speculations into facts; it was this which had brought together those present of the American and German nations. In all the world," he said, "there are no two countries which are so well calculated for a mutual interchange, as the United States of America and the United States of Germany. Neither of them possesses any colonies, nor does either wish for any; and in this respect, both escape the jealousy of colonial mother States.

"As a citizen of Bremen," he continued, "I may well remind you of the fact, that, after the glorious end of the American war of independence, *Bremen vessels were the first* which unfurled their sails to visit the shores of the young transatlantic republic; and as on the Western horizon of liberty, one star after another has made its appearance, so the vessels of Bremen have continued progressively to steer their course in that direction. This fact, as it would appear, has not been forgotten in America, and as if in return, the United States now send us their first transatlantic steamer, thinking that the best key to Germany is the Bremen key; and in the same spirit," he concluded, "in the name of my fellow-citizens, I offer a hearty welcome to the Washington, as the worthy pioneer of an enterprise which is destined to open a direct intercourse between two great nations."

Perhaps no man ever stood higher in the estimation of his fellow-citizens, than Burgomaster Smidt; and the spirit with which his toast was received, showed that the sentiment it contained was no less acceptable than the person who offered it.

To the toast in honor of the President of the United States, and of the Hon. Cave Johnson, Postmaster-General, Major Hobbie responded. His exposition of the circumstances under which the line was established—of

the large and liberal views of the Postmaster-General—was listened to with much interest; and the glowing expression of his hope, that the mail line to Bremen would be the means of drawing close together, in the bonds of amity and mutual good offices, the United States and the great German nation, met a warm response in every heart. Baron Patow, in the name of the German States, offered as a toast the city of Bremen; and, in reminding the company of the importance of the ocean as being the great highway which united nations all over the world by commercial intercourse, he begged to offer his good wishes for the further success of that city, which, in this enterprise, as in many others, had been foremost of the German States in opening the way. Captain Hewitt's interesting acknowledgment of the toast to himself, apologizing for his ship if there had been any failure to meet their expectations, on the ground that it was only on the 7th of September preceding, that her keel was laid, and that the carpenters were still at work upon her when she left the dock at New York, kindled his audience. Mr. Stephens, the vice-president of the company, acknowledged the powerful co-operation of the Germans in the enterprise which he had the honor in part to represent, and particularly of the city of Bremen. He might say much of this city, its historic associations, its monuments and public institutions, its enterprise and its hospitality, but he chose rather to express his admiration for that which it had not. It had no *custom-house*, nor restrictions of any kind upon trade. Mr. S. read a letter, signed by all the directors of the company, requesting of the Senate their acceptance of a model of the Washington, prepared by Mr. Westervelt, the builder. Simultaneously, and unexpectedly to most present, the beautiful model, six feet long, was borne in on the shoulders of eight native Bremenness, residents in and citizens of the United States. This was received with a storm of enthusiasm, when Mr. Oelrichs, an associate director, a native of Bremen, returned after years of absence, and endeared to all present by early ties, put a seal upon the enthusiasm of the evening by announcing the intention of the company, that the next ship which came to them should bear the name of "Herman," a name identified with German history and poetry, Herman being the deliverer of Germany from the Roman, as Washington was of America from the British yoke.

The next day the festivity was returned on board the Washington, at Bremen Haven, where the sight of the ship, its great size, and the beauty of its accommodations, confirmed and realized all expectations. The day ended with a visit to the dock, then in process of construction, to be the largest in the world, undertaken by the city of Bremen alone, at an expense of more than a million of dollars, for the express use of the American mail steamers, free of all dock charges.

But the most important feature connected with the reception of the Washington at Bremen, showing the true appreciation of the object our government had in view in establishing the line, and in this respect most strongly in contrast with the course of things in England, was the facility afforded for carrying out the grand scheme of the Postmaster-General. In Senator Duckwitz, of the post-office department, Major Hobbie found an able and ready coadjutor, full of enterprise and energy, and competent to treat and arrange upon the "go-ahead" system of our own country. The basis of an arrangement was agreed upon, by which the post-office of Bremen undertook to distribute our mails over the whole North of Europe,

through Russia, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, over all Germany, and when the railroad should be completed to Trieste, over the Grecian Archipelago, around the whole shores of the Mediterranean, up to Constantinople and the Black Sea, even over to Egypt, and down the Red Sea to India.

The practical operation of this would be, that the German resident in Iowa, could go up to the village nearest his farm, drop his letter in the post-office, and, *postage paid or not*, it would go direct to his friend in the heart of Silesia, on the banks of the Danube, or on the borders of the Black Forest. And this grand scheme for withdrawing the tribute which we are now paying to England, and making our correspondence independent of that country—for facilitating the intercourse of our citizens, and for opening wide the door of social intercourse, was arrested before execution, by the abrupt summons of Major Hobbie to London, where, on the sailing of the Washington from Southampton, he was kept in attendance upon the British government, until it should be the pleasure of the Lords of the Treasury to answer his protest against their iniquitous tax upon our mail.

ART. III.—THE EMPEROR TRAJAN AND ROBERT FULTON:

THE CONNECTION OF THEIR WORKS.

A GERMAN philosopher, speaking of the connection of things in the present world, by reason of which every man who works for himself works, at the same time, for the rest of his race, and every man who works for his fellows works, also, for himself, has expressed, in a brief soliloquy, the cheering sentiment, which every one may adopt who thinks of his union with this world-wide brotherhood. "My existence," he may say, "is not in vain and worthless; I am a necessary link in the great chain, which, from the dawn of life in the first man, to the full development of his being, extends into eternity. All the great, the wise, the noble, who have lived among men—those benefactors of their kind whose names I find distinguished in the world's history—and the larger number still, whose meritorious works have outlived their names, have all worked for me. I have come into their harvest on this earth which they inhabited. I follow in their footsteps, diffusing blessings. I can assume as soon as I will the sublime task of making our common brother-race more wise and happy. I can continue to build just where they were forced to stop. I can bring nearer to its completion the glorious structure which they were obliged to leave unfinished." This quickening truth discloses itself to us more and more impressively, as we trace the steps of human progress in science, politics, and social order—as we see how the hint, or guess, faintly uttered by one, is verified by another, and perhaps, after revolving centuries, is embodied in some useful and permanent result. This interesting connection between the workingmen of our race, separated though they may be from each other by a lapse of ages, is inscribed by the pen of history upon the rocky shores of the Danube, where some noble projects of the Emperor Trajan have lain, for seventeen hundred years, incomplete and useless, waiting for the genius of Robert Fulton to arise, and communicate to mechanic art that impulse which was destined to carry forward the royal work to a worthy consummation.

It may be worth our while to look at these two men, whose enterprises have, of late, become united for the public service, in the promotion of a common end—whose names are seen, amidst the triumphs of civilization, stamped upon everlasting memorials.

The close of the first century beheld a Spaniard on the throne of Rome. He was a native of Seville, and was at the head of the army in Germany when the aged Nerva called him to share the cares of government. The death of the old emperor soon after occurred, and Trajan was left to reign alone. When the eyes of millions were turned towards him with the most profound interest, he proved himself to be adequate to his place, and for nearly twenty years continued to fill the Roman world with the renown of his achievements. His immediate predecessors had professed to maintain the peaceful policy of Augustus, but their vices rendered them quite incompetent to carry it out with dignity and success. The concessions which Augustus had won by diplomacy, they could not keep, either by wisdom or by force. Although they were troubled by incursions on their Eastern borders, yet the Roman name was most grossly insulted by the barbarians of Dacia, North of the Danube, who crossed the river, ravaged the country, defeated the legions, and even imposed a tribute on Domitian. At last, the humbled army were surprised to see an imperial soldier at their head, marching on foot, sharing their fatigues, and content with their fare. Under the eye of Trajan, the ancient discipline and valor were revived; and the Dacian king, Decebalus, ranked among the first warriors of his age, was thrice defeated; his hordes were driven back beyond the Danube; and his kingdom was reduced to a province of the empire.

The victories of Trajan, however, would hardly be thought of now, but for the stony records which proclaim to the traveller along the confines of Dacia, the bold projects of the emperor to spread the civilizing arts into those Northern regions, and to naturalize those savage tribes to the Roman life and manners. Indeed, a fresh reminiscence of his history was brought to light, ten years since, by a Servian fisherman, who discovered, in the bed of the river, near the village of Praona, a bronze bust of Trajan. About twenty-five miles above this spot, are yet to be seen the remains of that splendid bridge of stone, which Trajan reared across the Danube, at a point where the river is 2,400 feet in width, guarded it with strong castles at both ends, and fitted it to be a permanent thoroughfare to connect his new conquest with the old dominion. Little did he think that it would ever fall by the hands of Romans! Least of all could he imagine that his successor, acknowledging his incapacity to govern so wide a realm, would destroy this noble monument of imperial power. At this day, the bases of the castles are visible, and buttresses eighteen feet thick. Eleven piles may be seen in the bed of the river, at low water. Apollodorus, of Damascus, the great architect of the time, whose name is associated with much of the magnificence of Rome, planned and executed this structure, animated, no doubt, by the full belief, that he was "building for posterity."

Not a long time after the completion of the bridge, the Northern traveller of the second century enjoyed the advantage of a well-constructed road, extending from the Danube far into the interior of the savage Dacia, terminating near Bender, about fifty miles from the Black Sea. It was a bold conception of the emperor, and its traces indicate his faith in the principle, that whatsoever is worth doing at all is worth doing well; for great

difficulties were overcome, and in some places it is cut, with signal skill, through solid rock. Seventeen hundred years ago, a man might pass with some degree of comfort through that land; but, in these days, if one venture to travel there, as he finds himself seated in a carriage of the rudest form, and jolted over a rough and rutty Moldavian wagon-track, dragged, too, by ponies destitute of all tackle, except a few frail cords, with many a sigh will he call to mind the signs of civilization in the days of Trajan.

But special praise is due to the emperor for his efforts to improve the navigation of the Danube, and to make it subserve, through all time, the interests of commerce. As the geographer looks upon the map of Europe, and beholds this magnificent river, springing up in the very heart of the continent, fed by sixty streams which flow down from the Carpathian and Alpine heights, bringing its constant tribute to the feet of many ancient and mighty cities,—now boldly pushing its way through mountain ramparts, and making forests echo its roar of waters, and now again spreading itself out into a lake of beauty, reflecting scenes of the richest fertility from its glassy bosom, then rolling on, with turbid and rapid volume, till, at last, it blends with the waves of the Euxine, to wash the coast of Asia,—how can he avoid being filled with admiration at the sight of such a splendid avenue of commerce, and acknowledging the design of Providence to make it the means of bringing “kindreds and tribes” of men together, in a friendly interchange of benefits, and uniting them in bonds of social intercourse? Ages have rolled away, however, during which the scholar, the merchant, the voyager, and the philanthropist, have read, in the records of geography, that “the Danube is not navigable to the Euxine, on account of the cataracts.” Too true, indeed; but what a melancholy testimony is this to the leaden slowness of Europe, in the career of improvement, and to the long, long retrocession of art, science, and civilization, in the old world! For, in the reign of Trajan, there was a spirit of enterprise, awakened and fostered by his genius, which could mock at such obstacles to its course, as these “cataracts,” that sank to littleness before the march of Roman art. This section of the Danube, called Eisen Thor, or Iron Gate, on account of the bold sweep of the lofty banks, and the enormous rocks of a ferruginous color which make the river’s bed, causing the passage to appear as if entirely closed up, extending not much further than 7,000 feet, was nearly surrounded, in the time of Trajan, by a large canal, beautifully chiselled out according to his directions, designed by him as a lasting boon to Northern Europe. But, alas! he left no heir to his comprehensive views, and his lofty spirit. His plans were abandoned, and this great work was left to dilapidation and ruin; to be almost choked up by falling stones and earth; to remain for centuries a monument of the solemn truth, that the old Roman civilization had then spent its last energies, and that humanity must pause in its career of progress, to wait for some new impulse, ere it could advance another step, or gain new triumphs over the gloomy reign of barbarism.

“Be patient—bide thy time.” This is God’s lesson, taught by history to every earnest worker in the cause of man. It is taught here—“The night is far spent.” The impulse long waited for, has come at last. It has come, not from the bosom of Paganism, but of Christianity—not from the shores of the Tiber, but of the Hudson. The mind which grappled successfully with the problem of applying the expansive power of steam to navigation, set at work a moral force which has lately reached the bor-

ders of Dacia—has broken the deep sleep of ages—has given to the people new ideas—has kindled a desire for knowledge—has opened new paths to enterprise—has called Art from its tomb to renew its youth—and, having disinterred the ship-canal of Trajan around the Eisen Thor, is giving to the work its finishing stroke, and causing it to be a connecting link between the commerce of the Western and the Eastern world.

The manner in which steam navigation was commenced on the Danube, it may be well to record. The first experiment was made, a little more than twelve years since, by Mr. Andrews, of Vienna. The want of public confidence in the practicability of the plan, was the cause of much discouragement during three successive years, when the voyage was often made with only a single passenger. At length, a great fair at Semlin roused public curiosity, and 300 persons embarked at Pest. From that day, the project became very popular with the Hungarians and the Turks; and Count Szechenyi, of Pest, who possesses an ample fortune, has devoted his time, talents, and purse, to its promotion. He visited England, in order to obtain the best machinery, engaged English engineers, and stimulated Metternich and the Austrian emperor to patronise the work. The position thus taken by Austria, is an important one, considered politically, as it is asserting a general right to the navigation of the Danube, raising up a barrier against the ambitious encroachments of Russia, and bringing Christian and Moslem countries into intimate communication.

Immense and far-reaching, as must be the effects of steam navigation upon the social state of the world, they will never transcend the measure of the hopes which glowed in the breast of ROBERT FULTON. His was a great soul. It was ever inditing bright prophecies of the future. It was a living spring of philanthropy. Herein lay his great strength to brave disappointments, failures, and neglect. Although the bent of his genius led him, even in early life, like Michael Angelo, to seek his amusements in the shops of mechanics, and in works of art, yet we see the moral grandeur of Fulton's mind in the fact, that his strongest impulse to action was his earnest sympathy with the fortunes of his race. "A universal free trade," says Mr. Colden, his biographer, "was his favorite theory in political economy; and the war system of the old world, he considered as the cause of the misery of the greatest portion of its inhabitants." He cherished a firm belief in the progress of society, in the ultimate triumphs of peace, and in the final prevalence of a spirit of brotherhood amongst the nations of the earth.

The different effects which have flowed from the lives of Trajan and Fulton, exhibit, in a striking light, how much can be done by science, and how little by war, for the civilization of mankind. In spite of all the emperor's achievements in Dacia, and his colony of 30,000 Romans settled there, seventeen centuries have rolled over the inhabitants of that rude country without beholding one step of moral progress, or a single change for the better in their social state. The celebrated Tuscan column, reared by Apollodorus in honor of Trajan, still stands in "the eternal city," covered with basso-relievos, portraying the appearance and manners of the Dacians. If these same figures had all been just carved by the hand of Powers, they would represent as well the Dacians of the present day as those of the age of Trajan. They wear the same mean costume, and use the same awkward implements of agriculture. They live in the same vile kind of straw huts, compared with which, an American log-cabin is a

palace. They are generally small in stature, ignorant, idle, faithless, clothed in sheep-skins, and either going barefoot or wearing sandals. The cattle of their farms appear untamed and wild, and their dogs are very wolves as to ferocity. In every point of character, these Wallachians and Moldavians are inferior to the inhabitants of Servia, on the opposite side of the river, who are more immediately under Turkish rule. What a spectacle in the sight of Christendom! A nation of Europe living seventeen hundred years without the least sign of improvement! Their state is one of dull and dreary monotony. But a better time is coming. This gloomy night of barbarism is beginning to pass away. The whizzing sound of the first steamer which disturbed the repose of these Northern wilds, was the herald of an auspicious change, and the impulse given to the march of Christian civilization by the toils of Robert Fulton, has already extended from the banks of the Hudson to those of the Danube and the Euxine. May Heaven speed it, and "the stars in their courses" favor it, until it shall girdle the earth with a zone of light, and hasten the era, when no more the separating frith or ocean shall make enemies of nations, but all—

"Like kindred drops be mingled into one."

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

NUMBER IV.

THE ISLAND OF NANTUCKET.

It is not easy, in all cases, to discover the remote causes of the local origin of certain trades and arts, which, ministering to the necessities common to all parts of the earth, yet seem to be indigenous to particular soils. There is no local reason, that has ever been discovered, why Genoa should excel in the manufacture of velvets, Brussels in lace, Lyons in silk, Toledo in swords, Cremona in fiddles, Damascus in steel, Manchester in calicoes, Birmingham in buttons, London in porter, or Nantucket in carrying on the business of the whale fishery. But the world is governed by the same laws that govern individuals; one man can excel but in one employment, and nature seems to have ordained that different arts shall be scattered among different people, that there may be a constant intercourse among mankind. Thus, free trade is the great fundamental law of social life, and every violation of it must inevitably be attended with disaster. In parcelling out among the multiform tribes of the earth the different branches of industry essential to the happiness of the whole, Providence seems to have assigned to the little island of Nantucket the duty of supplying the rest of the world with oil for their lamps. A peculiar people were raised up for this very purpose, and planted in a position where stern necessity compelled them to the fulfilment of their destiny. Every circumstance attending the settlement of that desolate island appears to have been shaped to a particular end. There is nothing in the position of Nantucket which seems calculated to originate and foster the great business for which it has been for many years so famous; but, on the contrary, its barrenness, its remoteness from the main land, the sand-bars by which it is surrounded, the impossibility of entering its only harbor with a loaded ship, and the difficulty of fortifying it against the attack of an enemy, all seem to forbid

the hope of commercial prosperity, and the acquisition of wealth to the inhabitants. But God has created nothing in vain; and this sandy little island, which did not contain sufficient timber for the construction of a boat, and with an immoveable barrier at the mouth of its harbor, He destined to be a great commercial seaport. Outlaws have always been the most successful founders of great empires. Men, who quietly submit to oppression, have not the stuff in them to make heroes of; Nantucket might have remained until this day the home of the Indian, or, at best, but scantily inhabited by poor fishermen, like some of the neighboring islands that are blessed with a richer soil and more accessible harbors, had not the intolerant laws of the old colony driven thither a brave-hearted man who loved the right more than he respected mere magisterial authority. There is a dash of romantic adventure connected with the history of Nantucket from the day of its discovery down to the present time. A small crescent of pebbly soil just lifting itself above the level of the ocean, surrounded by a belt of roaring breakers, and destitute of all shelter from the stormy blasts which sweep over it, there is nothing about it "but doth suffer a sea-change;" its inhabitants know hardly anything but of the sea and the sky. Rocks, mountains, trees and rivers, and the bright verdure of the earth, are names, only, to them, which have no particular significance. They read of these as other people read of angels and demi-gods. There may be such things, or there may not. But dreary and desolate as their island may seem to others, it realizes their ideal of what the world should be, and probably they dream that Paradise is just such another place—a duplicate island, where every wind that blows wafts the spray of the sea in their faces.

The first European that discovered Nantucket was Bartholomew Gosnold, an English adventurer, who, in the year 1602, was on his way to Virginia from England, with a company of thirty men, in search of a site for a plantation. He discovered the island, but did not land, and nothing more was heard of it until the year 1641, when it was sold to Thomas Mayhew and his son by the Earl of Sterling, who claimed ownership of all the lands between Cape Cod and the Hudson River. At this time the island was under the jurisdiction of the governor of New York. In 1659, Thomas Mayhew sold the island to nine associates for the value of thirty pounds in merchandise and two beaver hats, one for himself and one for his wife. These primitive associationists, after they had purchased the island of Mayhew, then had to purchase a right to live upon it of its real owners, the aborigines, from whom the privilege was obtained without difficulty. The deed of the Sachems was witnessed by Peter Folger, the ancestor of Dr. Franklin, in the following words, which are framed with the simplicity and directness which distinguishes all the writings of the philosopher, who, by-the-way, has given a quatrain or two of his ancestor's poetry in his autobiography.

"I do witness this deed to be a true deed, according to the interpretation of Felix, the interpreter; also, I heard Wanackmamack say, but two weeks ago, that the sale, made by Nickamore and he, should be good, and that they would do so, whatever comes of it. Witness my hand, this 17th of first month, 1664.
PETER FOLGER."

These associationists resided, at the time of their purchase, on the Merimack River, in the town of Salisbury; and shortly afterwards they re-

moved to the island with their families, and took possession of their land, which was held in common, and has remained so to this day, with a few exceptions, in the hands of the descendants of the original purchasers. The number of shares into which the island was divided was twenty-seven ; these shares were not parcelled off, but are still kept in common, and undivided ; and the stock of the proprietors, sheep, horses, and cows, feed at large all over the island. The first white man, who settled upon the island, was Thomas Macy, a brave, bold man, and as good as he was brave ; he was worthy to be the founder of a new community, and his descendants have proved themselves worthy of their hardy and virtuous ancestor. In the year 1640, Thomas Macy removed from Wiltshire, in England, to Salisbury, in Massachusetts, where he became the owner of one thousand acres of land, and flourished exceedingly. But the pious inhabitants of the Bay State, to give additional evidence of their hatred of religious intolerance, for which reason they had left old England in the beginning, and to promote Christian feelings, passed a law inflicting a fine of five pounds for every hour that any one should shelter a Quaker beneath his roof. When a whole island, like Nantucket, could be purchased for thirty pounds, it will readily be seen that such a price as five pounds an hour was rather a large price to pay for the privilege of entertaining a Quaker, and it may be supposed that the members of that sect found it difficult to procure a night's lodging. Such appears to have been the fact, and yet the good-hearted Thomas Macy did not hesitate, one rainy day, to allow four wayfaring Quakers to shelter themselves in his barn. Supposing that they stopped there but an hour, this hospitable act would have cost him twenty pounds, from which the largeness of his heart, and the liberality of his nature, may be inferred. But his hospitality cost him more dearly even than that ; for the General Court, having heard of his offence, summoned him to appear before them, probably with an intention of hanging him for an example to other evil-doers. But he knew with whom he had to deal ; and, instead of going to the General Court, he sent them a letter acknowledging his offence, and to avoid the consequences, put his family into a small boat, and with the assistance of a friendly neighbor, one Edward Starbuck, after many perils, he succeeded in reaching the island of Nantucket, where he and his friend were hospitably entertained by the Indians, who proved to be much better practical Christians than the pious Pilgrims, who had left the Old World to escape the persecutions of an intolerant hierarchy. After a few months the companion of Thomas Macy returned to Salisbury, and made such representation of the pleasant abode he had left, that he induced certain of his neighbors to return with him, with their families. And thus the settlement of the island was commenced. Although it is said that the first settlers found a fertile and virgin soil, which yielded them abundant crops of corn, yet they had the sagacity to see, at a glance, that their little island was too circumscribed a field for their venturesome spirits ; the disposition which drove them from their bigoted and persecuting neighbors, would not allow them to sit down contentedly to the cultivation of their narrow fields. Men, who had sacrificed so much for conscience sake, were well calculated to grapple with the difficulties with which they found themselves surrounded. Their first aim was to live honestly ; and the next, to live well ; and having gained the first point, they now looked about to see how they were to gain the other. The prospect was not very encouraging, but they soon had the sa-

gacity to discover the true field of their labor. Obed Macy relates, in his honest and quaint history, that "in the year 1690 some persons were on a high hill, afterwards called Folly House Hill, observing the whales spouting and sporting with each other, when one observed, '*There,*' pointing to the sea, '*is a green pasture, where our children's grandchildren will go for bread.*'" The exact time when ships were first fitted out for whaling purposes is not known. The attention of the original purchasers of the island to the whaling business was owing in a certain degree to accident. A whale came into their harbor, and caused great excitement by his antics; he continued three days spouting and floundering about in the little harbor, and so tempted the people that they determined to capture him. They had no instrument with which to attack him, but they invented the harpoon, and, putting off in their little cock-boat, made a dead set upon the leviathan, and succeeded in killing him. This was the commencement of the whale fishery in the New World. When the inhabitants had become sufficiently numerous to build a town, a site was selected, and the governor of New York, Francis Lovelace, bestowed upon it the name of Sherburne, which it bore until 1792, when it was changed for that of Nantucket. In 1672, the proprietors entered into a contract with James Lopar, who agreed to carry on the business of catching whales from the shores of the island in boats. Thus the business was regularly commenced; but whales getting scarce in time, large vessels were fitted out to go in quest of them, but at what time the first expedition was set on foot is not known; but whaling from the shore in boats was continued until the year 1760, when it was wholly abandoned, and, excepting on two occasions since, no attempt has ever been made to catch whales in that manner. The first spermaceti whale taken by a Nantucket vessel, was about the year 1712. In 1715, there were six sloops belonging to the island engaged in the business of whaling. They were small vessels, of not more than thirty tons each. Their success in catching whales had been so great, that they were compelled to send to the neighboring continent, and even as far as Long Island, for crews for their ships; and in the year 1745, they shipped a cargo of oil direct from the island to London; and the English government, seeing what a profitable trade their feeble colony was carrying on in this new business, offered large bounties to induce their merchants at home to engage in it. Several ships having been fitted out from London, and been successful, interfered in a degree with the business of the island; but the demand for oil, for home consumption, being continually on the increase, their business did not lessen, and the island grew in importance; the inhabitants increased very rapidly, and their ships were constantly growing in bulk and in numbers. The business of whaling was attempted at many other places, but from some cause or other it was not successful in any place but Nantucket. The following account, taken from Macy's history of Nantucket, shows how rapidly the business of whaling had increased, and how widely the cruising ground of the whalers had spread.

The following schedule will show, as nearly as can be ascertained, the times when the fishery commenced at some places, previous to the revolutionary war, viz:—

Davis' Straits, in the year 1746.

The island of Disco, in the mouth of Baffin's Bay, in the year 1751.

Gulf of St. Lawrence, in the year 1761.

Coast of Guinea, in the year 1763.

Western Islands, in the year 1765.

Eastward of the Banks of Newfoundland, in the year 1765.

Coast of Brazils, in the year 1774.

The business was also carried on in shorter voyages at the Grand Banks, Cape Verd Islands, various parts of the West Indies, in the Bay of Mexico, the Carribean Sea, and on the coast of the Spanish Main, &c. The following table shows the number of vessels, and the quantity of oil obtained within the period of ten years :—

Years.	Vessels.	Barrels.	Years.	Vessels.	Barrels.
1762.....	78	9,440	1768.....	125	15,439
1763.....	60	9,238	1769.....	119	19,140
1764.....	72	11,983	1770.....	125	14,331
1765.....	101	11,512	1771.....	115	12,754
1766.....	118	11,969	1772.....	98	7,825
1767.....	108	16,561			

In the year 1772, one of the inhabitants having discovered the secret of making candles from spermaceti, established a manufactory on the island for that purpose, and greatly increased the business of the town ; for, previously, the business had been carried on chiefly in Providence, Boston, and Philadelphia. By the year 1775, as we learn from a report made to Congress by Thomas Jefferson, there were 150 vessels, many of them large brigs, belonging to Nantucket, and engaged in the whaling business. The prosperity of the town was at its height, its foreign and coasting trade was constantly increasing, and its inhabitants, who had hitherto preserved the simple and economical habits of their ancestors, began to indulge in unwonted luxuries, and the ships which they sent to London with cargoes of oil, brought back many articles of sumptuous furniture and apparel which they had never known the use of before. To what degree of greatness the island might have arrived, or to what pitch of luxurious refinement the people might have carried their habits, it is difficult to conjecture ; but the growing splendor of the island was suddenly dimmed by the breaking out of our war of independence. The great business of the island was suddenly suspended ; many of the timid inhabitants, to escape the consequences of the war, left their farms, and removed into the interior of New York, and those who remained, engaged in other occupations. The British made no attack upon the defenceless inhabitants ; but, in 1779, a party of refugees landed upon the island, and destroyed a great deal of property—the people having no means of defending themselves, and being religiously opposed to even defensive warfare, quietly looked on while these miscreants plundered their stores and dwelling-houses. The provincial government levied taxes upon the inhabitants to help pay the expenses of the war, but none could be collected ; and it was at last found useless to attempt to make people pay who had not the disposition, even though they had the means.

To no part of the United States did the tidings of peace bring more sure joy than to Nantucket. The island took no part in the contest, but the people suffered, probably, more than any other place in the colonies. Their ships were captured, their crews were detained as prisoners, their property had depreciated greatly in value, and the population of the island, which, on the breaking out of the war, was near 5,000, at the time of its close, numbered little more than 4,000. As soon as peace had been declared, the people of Nantucket began, with renewed energy, to prosecute

their old business; but they were soon made to feel the blighting effects of governmental protection. The science of political economy was then hardly known even by name, and free trade had not been heard of. The Legislature of Massachusetts attempted to stimulate the whaling business by offering a bounty for every tun of oil taken by vessels belonging to the State, while the British government did the same to induce their subjects to engage in a business which had proved so profitable to Nantucket. Several of the neighboring towns engaged in the business, and many of the islanders removed to Halifax, being tempted by the liberal bounties offered by the British government, while others removed to England, and established the business at Milford Haven. They probably soon learned, to their cost, that no article of merchandise can be sold for more than its intrinsic value, and that what they gained by bounties they lost in price. While the people were allowed to supply the demand for oil, the production of it was profitable; but as soon as government, by the offer of bounties, caused a greatly increased supply, without affording a corresponding increase in the demand, the business of course proved disastrous, and the people who engaged in it discovered, too late, that government had been bribing them to their own ruin; and the government might have learned that, to attempt to foster trade by artificial protection, is to kill the goose that lays the golden egg.

To increase the market for their oil, the Nantucket people sent several cargoes to France; and, as the people of that country had never used it for the purpose of illumination, they had to carry lamps with them, and teach the French how to use them; and afterwards several families removed to Dunkirk, where they established the whaling business, but were at last compelled to leave the country, from the difficulties of the revolution. Soon after the peace, William Rotch, one of the most active men of the island, removed to New Bedford, and there commenced the business, and laid the foundation for the prosperity of that now large and wealthy city. In addition to the whaling business, they sent their ships on sealing voyages; and, in 1791, ships were first sent to the Pacific in search of sperm whales. The first ship that doubled Cape Horn from Nantucket was the *Beaver*, of but 240 tons; she was absent 17 months, and returned with a cargo of 1,270 barrels of oil, of all kinds. In 1796, a ship was sent from the island to Canton, with an assorted cargo, but chiefly of oil and candles. It was an experimental voyage, and proved disastrous, as might have been expected; but they gained a knowledge of the Canton trade, which was afterwards carried on to a considerable extent, and with profitable results. At the close of the century, the inhabitants had increased to very nearly 6,000.

The following chronological table of the rise and progress of the whale fishery, at Nantucket, is taken, in part, from the "Historical Society's" collection:—

PROGRESS OF THE WHALE FISHERY AT NANTUCKET.

Whale fishery originated in Nantucket in the year 1690, in boats from the shore.

1715.	6 sloops, 38 tons burthen, obtained about 600 barrels of oil, and 11,000 lbs. of bone. Value.....	£1,100
1730.	25 sail, from 38 to 50 tons, obtained annually about 3,700 bbls., at £7 per tun.....	3,200
1748.	60 sail, from 50 to 75 tons, obtained 11,250 bbls., at £14.....	19,648
1756.	80 sail, 75 tons, obtained 12,000 bbls., at £18.....	27,600

1768.	70 sail, 75 tons, obtained 10,500 bbls., at £18.....	£23,690
	N. B. Lost 10 sail, taken by the French, and foundered.	
1770.	120 sail, from 75 to 110 tons, obtained 18,000 bbls., at £40.....	100,000
From	150 sail, from 90 to 180 tons, upon the coast of Guinea, Brazil, and	
1772 }	the West Indies, obtained annually 30,000 bbls., which sold in the	
to	London market, at £44 to £45 sterling.....	167,000
1775.)	N. B. 2,200 seamen employed in the fishery, and 220 in the London trade.	
1783.	7 sail to Brazil, from 100 to 150 tons, obtained.....tuns	2,100
	5 sail to the coast of Guinea.....	600
	7 sail to the West Indies.....	560
	At £40 per tun.....	2,260
	N. B. No duty exacted in London.	
1784.	12 sail to Brazil, obtained.....tuns	4,000
	5 to the coast of Guinea.....	400
	11 to the West Indies.....	1,000
	At £23 to £24.....	5,400
	N. B. The price fell by the exaction of a duty in London of £18 3s. sterling per tun.	14,500

1785. Now at sea, 8 to Brazil; 2 to the coast of Guinea; 5 to the West Indies.

Before the war, there were annually manufactured in Nantucket, 380 tons spermaceti candles.*

The following table of the produce of the whale fishery, between the years 1804 and 1834, is copied from "Macy's History of Nantucket:"

PRODUCE OF THE WHALE FISHERY, CARRIED ON AT NANTUCKET, BETWEEN THE YEARS 1804 AND 1834, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Spermaceti.		Whale.	Whalebone.
	Body—bbls.	Head—bbls.	Bbls.	Lbs.
1804.....	4,730	2,665	6,718	46,630
1805.....	5,459	2,034	4,507	13,131
1806.....	7,701	3,084	15,954	88,554
1807.....	7,914	3,235	13,959	72,764
1808.....	5,602	2,105	10,503	49,970
1809.....	6,641	2,695	7,256	17,092
1810.....	5,117	2,130	7,929	41,437
1811.....	15,355	6,745	6,377	43,200
1812.....	5,116	2,475	2,230	6,266
1813.....	774	359	2,567	9,901
1814.....	1,146	498	83
1815.....	636	284	138
1816.....	1,550	682	2,700	796
1817.....	15,401	6,813	5,771	19,444
1818.....	10,496	4,378	13,426	65,446
1819.....	12,901	5,621	11,511	62,403
1820.....	11,884	5,027	11,736	59,794
1821.....	16,196	6,719	8,632	38,092
1822.....	19,392	8,009	5,407	3,197
1823.....	25,260	10,803	3,808	20,243
1824.....	29,355	11,875	4,322	22,063
1825.....	22,795	8,985	7,194	39,596
1826.....	11,373	4,951	2,402	16,002
1827.....	19,529	8,441	583	5,152
1828.....	30,130	13,044	1,033	8,662
1829.....	23,334	10,159	8,576	76,808
1830.....	24,509	11,504	7,758	67,508
1831.....	27,954	13,335	8,568	83,206
1832.....	21,193	9,695	16,364	155,379
1833.....	19,965	9,546	5,422	49,429
1834.....	14,170	6,347	4,747	37,137

* This state of the whale fishery in Nantucket was written in the year 1785.

Other towns that had been lured into the business, abandoned it when they found that it was not profitable; and so, in course of time, Nantucket became once more almost the only port in the Union from which the business was carried on with any degree of success.

The long embargo of 1807, which prevented the export of oil, had a depressing effect upon the business, but ships were still sent out in pursuit of fresh cargoes until 1812, when war was again declared against England, and another season of depression and disaster followed. At this time, there were 116 vessels, whose aggregate capacity was 11,000 tons, belonging to the island; and the greater part of them being at sea, many were captured by the enemy, and some were lost. The inhabitants suffered greatly while the war lasted, from the difficulty of obtaining food and fuel from the continent; the town, being left entirely unprotected by the government, remained in a state of neutrality, and feeling themselves under no obligations to support a war which was reducing them to starvation, the inhabitants manfully refused to pay the taxes which government imposed upon them. On the news of peace, the people immediately began once more to extend their business. During the war, they had lost quite one-half of their shipping; many wealthy inhabitants had removed to the continent, but enough remained to revive the commerce of the town; and in 1821, the tonnage belonging to the island had increased to 27,500 tons, and the inhabitants to nearly 8,000.

The subsequent increase of the town in wealth and population has been moderate, but steady. The great hindrance to their prosperity is the bar across the entrance of their only harbor, which prevents a loaded ship from going in or out, and occasions considerable cost and work by rendering it necessary to load and unload their ships by the means of lighters. Several attempts have been made to excavate a channel across the bar, but without success; and, four years since, they constructed a camel for taking loaded ships over this sandy barrier, but the additional expense and risk of this contrivance operates very seriously upon the commerce of the place, and the inhabitants believe that the great day of their prosperity has passed. The following statement of the industrial resources of the town is copied from a report made to the Legislature of Massachusetts, by J. G. Palfrey, the Secretary of the Commonwealth, in 1846. It was prepared from the assessors' reports, and is probably as correct an account as can be given:—

Brass foundries, 1; value of articles manufactured, \$6,000; capital invested, \$4,000; persons employed, 4.

Saddle, harness, and trunk manufactories, 4; value of articles manufactured, \$1,950; capital invested, \$1,000; persons employed, 10.

Hat and cap manufactories, 1; hats and caps manufactured, 600; value, \$600; capital invested, \$300; persons employed, 1.

Cordage manufactories, 1; cordage manufactured, 300,000 lbs; value, \$30,000; capital invested, \$10,000; persons employed, 30.

Oil and sperm candle manufactories, 24; oil manufactured, 1,022,019 gallons; value, \$1,279,817; candles, 858,581 lbs.; value, \$214,645; capital invested, \$1,580,417; persons employed, 105.

Soap and tallow candle manufactories, 2; hard soap manufactured, 11,000 lbs.; soft, 440 bbls.; value of soap manufactured, \$7,800; capital invested, \$5,000; persons employed, 5.

Tin-ware manufactories, 7; value of ware, \$4,000; capital invested, \$2,000; persons employed, 12.

Boots manufactured, 370 pairs; shoes, 2,300 pairs; value of boots and shoes, \$4,200; males employed, 11; females employed, 3. Value of snuff, tobacco, and cigars, manu-

factured, \$600; persons employed, 3. Value of blocks and pumps manufactured, \$2,600; persons employed, 10.

Candle-box manufactories, 6; boxes manufactured, 300,000; value, \$6,600; capital invested, \$4,000; persons employed, 12. Value of casks manufactured, \$40,000; capital invested, \$30,000; persons employed, 65.

Establishments for manufacturing coopers' tools, harpoons, and other whale craft, 14; value of articles manufactured, \$4,200; capital invested, \$4,000; persons employed, 15. Boats built, 117; value, \$6,775; persons employed, 12.

Whale oil consumed in manufacturing, 400 gallons; value, \$140; anthracite coal consumed in manufacturing, 200 tons; value, \$1,050; bituminous coal mined in the United States, 111 chaldrons; value, \$1,000; value of other articles of American production, excepting cotton, wool, and iron, consumed in manufacturing, \$22,000.

Vessels employed in the whale fishery, 77; tonnage, 26,295; sperm oil imported, 986,868 gallons; value, \$868,443; whale oil, 140,269 gallons; value, \$46,756; whale-bone, 30,708 lbs.; value, \$10,336; capital invested, \$2,660,000; persons employed, 1,900. Vessels employed in the mackerel and cod fisheries, 4; tonnage, 110; capital invested, \$2,000; persons employed, 12.

Sheep, 7,500; value, \$15,000; wool produced, 1,600 lbs.; value, \$4,000. Horses, 442; value, \$30,300; neat cattle, 1,053; value, \$20,000; swine, 1,304; value, \$11,518; Indian corn or maize raised, 500 bushels; value, \$300; potatoes, 6,000 bushels; value, \$1,500; other esculent vegetables, 7,000 bushels; value, \$1,400; hay, 3,500 tons; value, \$42,000. Butter, 30,000 lbs.; value, \$7,500.

Whole amount of tonnage belonging to the island, 31,652.

The commercial history of Nantucket is chiefly important from the great benefits which the nation has derived from the peculiar habits and industry of the people; for, although other towns have already surpassed her in the extent of their operations in the whaling business, yet they are chiefly indebted for their greatness to the people of this island, who were the pioneers in the perilous enterprise of exploring unknown seas in the search of whales. From the small amount of the agricultural productions of the island, may be seen its capacity for sustaining its inhabitants, and the disastrous consequences which must always follow any interruption of their intercourse with the continent. The island lies in the parallel of 41° north latitude, and of 70° 7' 56" west of Greenwich. It is crescent-shaped, about 14 miles from one extreme to the other, and about 3½ miles in breadth; the nearest point to the main land is about 30 miles. The entire area of the island contains nearly 30,000 acres of land, a small portion of which, however, is capable of cultivation. The soil is light and sandy, and is entirely destitute of indigenous trees, but it appears to have been well wooded at the time of its first settlement by the English. It then contained a population of 1,500 native inhabitants; and the last descendant of the race died in 1822. Although for many years Quakerism was the only religion of the inhabitants, the members of that sect form but a small part of the population at present. The original settlers were Baptists, and that remained the prevailing religious faith of the people until about the year 1704, when they were gradually converted to Quakerism by the appearance among them of some itinerant preachers of that doctrine. The schools of the island had been rather defective, and book-learning was held in small estimation by the people until the year 1826, when the late Admiral Sir Isaac Coffin visited the island, and finding that a great number of his relations did not enjoy such educational privileges as he thought them entitled to, benevolently funded 2,500 pounds sterling for the purpose of establishing a school, free for all the descendants of his great ancestor, Tristram Coffin, who was among the first settlers of the island. This generous act of the benevolent old admiral opened the eyes

of the people to their necessities, and they immediately began to establish free schools for the education of their children, and they have now the best organized system of public schools in the country.

At one time, there were three banks on the island, but now they have but one; a strange fatality seems to have attended all their banking operations, and their losses by such institutions have been very serious. The town is, or was, built almost entirely of wood; the houses were old, the streets extremely narrow, and huddled closely together, as if for shelter and the convenience of social intercourse; there were at all times large quantities of oil in the very heart of the town, and their liability to a conflagration was peculiar and fearful. But the people had been peculiarly favored, up to the year 1835, when the entire value of property destroyed by fire, from the first settlement of the town, amounted to \$36,000. Since then, the town has suffered most severely by two conflagrations, the last of which occurred in 1846, and destroyed nearly one-third of the town, and property to the value of more than half a million of dollars. The people have since widened the streets of their "burnt district," and replaced their wooden stores by substantial brick buildings, and the town has lost something of its quaint and weather-beaten aspect, but it remains an unique town, as it ever must, and its inhabitants a peculiar people. Many disastrous voyages of their ships, and heavy losses by the low prices of oil, had led the people to look about them for some other means of employment than the business by which they had always been sustained; and, just as this great conflagration occurred, they were about to try the experiment of manufacturing cotton, by which so many towns in New England had been sustained and enriched. A few years ago, they tried the experiment of manufacturing silk, and there seemed to be a prospect that Nantucket might prove the Lyons of the New World. But, through mismanagement, or from some local cause, the enterprise proved unprofitable, and the business was abandoned. They have not given up the project of a cotton-mill, and as New Bedford, the prosperous rival of Nantucket, is about to engage in this business, it is not improbable that they may yet become as famous for their calicoes hereafter, as they have been for their candles. Their ancestral thrift has not been purged from their blood, and it is not in them to sit listless down, and see the world roll on ahead of them in the pursuit of wealth.

ART. V.—THE LAW OF DEBTOR AND CREDITOR IN TENNESSEE.

THE laws of the several States, which concern merchants to know, are those which govern the relation of creditor and debtor. These will appear, imperfectly of course, by exhibiting the organization of the judiciary of the State proposed, the jurisdiction of its courts, the remedies and modes of proceeding in them, together with some of its peculiar statutes, and decisions of the courts, such as those which concern the limitation of actions, frauds, the registry of conveyances, the lien of judgments and executions, interest upon money, negotiable paper, and probably others.

THE COURTS OF TENNESSEE.

These are Justices of the Peace, County Courts, Circuit Courts, the

Commercial and Criminal Court of Memphis, Chancery Courts, and the Supreme Court.

Justices of the Peace. The counties are laid off into "civil districts," in each of which the people elect two Justices, except in the district wherein is the county town, in which three are elected. The term of office of Justices, is six years.

The County Court is composed of Justices of the Peace, all meeting in session quarter-yearly, and constituting the "Quarterly Court," and three meeting monthly, and constituting the "Quorum Court." The Quarterly Court sits the first Mondays of January, April, July, and October, the Quorum Court sits the first Monday of every month. The Justices of the Quorum Court are elected yearly, by all the Justices of the county, at the first Quarterly Court of the year.

The Circuit Courts. The State is laid off into thirteen judicial circuits, each circuit embracing several counties, more or less, with some regard to the amount of business of the counties. A Judge for each circuit is elected by the Legislature, for the term of office of eight years. The Judge resides in his circuit, and holds a court in each county thrice yearly. The Circuit Judges are Judges of the State, and may, by arrangement, interchange the holding of courts with each other. It has been thought that the system would be improved by the regular interchange of circuits—thus diminishing, to some extent, the influence upon the administration of the law, of the prejudices and partialities which are apt to grow out of the long and frequent intercourse of judges, lawyers, and suitors. No material evil of this kind, has, however, as yet been felt.

The Chancery Courts. The State is laid off into four chancery divisions, for each of which a Chancellor is elected by the Legislature, for the term of office of eight years. The chancery divisions are sub-divided into chancery districts, some districts consisting of one county, the others, generally of several counties. In each district, a court is held twice yearly. The Chancellors of the divisions are Chancellors of the State, and may, as Circuit Judges, interchange courts.

The Supreme Court. With reference to this court the State is divided into three districts, in each of which a Judge is elected by the Legislature for the term of office of twelve years, who together hold a court once yearly, in each of the districts—at Knoxville, for East Tennessee; Nashville, for Middle; and Jackson, for West Tennessee.

JURISDICTION OF THE COURTS.

Justices of the Peace. A Justice of the Peace has jurisdiction to the extent of \$50; of debts, demands, and civil injuries, for the redress of which the laws of the land furnish remedies, to the extent of \$200; upon accounts, liquidated and signed by the party chargeable; against the obligors of bonds for the payment of money; the makers of promissory notes; the acceptors and drawers of bills of exchange; the endorsers of negotiable paper, who have, by the terms of endorsement, waived demand of payment and notice of non-payment; and, indeed, to the same extent, (\$200,) against a party chargeable upon any writing which will support an action of *debt* for money at common law. Justices try causes without jury. The territorial jurisdiction of a Justice embraces (with some limitations) the county in which is his civil district.

The County Courts are courts of ordinary, probate, or surrogate, and

of county police. The Quarterly Courts, consisting of all the Justices in session, establish and change roads, bridges, and local turnpikes, and appoint overseers to superintend and keep them in repair; assess and lay taxes for county purposes; appropriate moneys for county purposes, &c., &c. The Quorum Courts, consisting of three Justices, take probates of wills not contested; qualify executors; appoint and qualify administrators of decedents' estates, guardians of minors and lunatics; and, through their clerks, superintend the settlements of the accounts of executors, administrators, and guardians, &c., &c. Contested wills are transferred for trial by jury to the Circuit Courts, and if established are returned to the County Courts for record, and such further proceedings as may be necessary. The County Courts have no jurisdiction of causes triable by jury.

The Circuit Courts are courts of law, of general and original jurisdiction, civil and criminal, of all causes wherein the parties are entitled to trial by jury; and of appellate jurisdiction to the decisions of Justices, and of the County Courts. They have likewise jurisdiction to assign dower; partition estates, real and personal, among heirs, legatees, distributees, tenants in common; to order the sale, and distribution of proceeds, of estates of minors; some of which powers properly appertain to, and are concurrent with, the Chancery Courts.

The Commercial and Criminal Court of Memphis is an excrescence upon the judiciary system of the State. It possesses the jurisdiction and powers of a Circuit Court, in all cases arising within the three civil districts which embrace and surround Memphis. The phrase, *cases arising, &c.*, is construed to mean cases of Circuit Court cognizance, wherein original process can be personally served upon parties being found within those civil districts. It is thus made a court of great importance and business, the city of Memphis being the commercial centre of a large and populous surrounding country, of Tennessee, Mississippi, and Arkansas, and much frequented by the people of the country around. Much business is otherwise absorbed into that court from the neighboring Circuit Courts, by the arrangements of the lawyers who reside in Memphis. The court ought to be, and doubtless will soon be abolished, and the regular Circuit Court of the county substituted in its place.

The Chancery Courts, as their name indicates, are courts of general equity cognizance, recognizing generally the principles of equity jurisprudence, and exercising the powers of the British and American Courts of Chancery. Modifications of the practice in chancery have been made by statutes, conforming to the character of the people, the spirit of our institutions, the general jurisprudence and judicial organization of the State, and tending to quicken the progress of suits to decision.

The Supreme Court is purely a court of appeals and errors, for the correction of the errors of the Circuit and Chancery Courts, having no original jurisdiction, and trying no causes by jury. Perhaps, it may be said to exercise a *quasi* original jurisdiction in cases in chancery transferred to it on account of the incompetency of the Chancellors for relationship to the parties, or for other causes of incompetency. Causes are carried to the Supreme Court from the Circuit and Chancery Courts, by writ of error, or by appeal in the nature of a writ of error; generally, by the latter mode, which is of right, and done during the term of the inferior court, at which the supposed erroneous decision is made.

OF LEGAL PROCEEDINGS AND PRACTICE.

No process, original or final, can be had against the body for debt. Whether the efficiency of legal remedies has been materially diminished by the abolition of imprisonment for debt, is a matter upon which much difference of opinion exists in the State. The better opinion appears to be, that no serious evil has grown out of it. In regard to other remedies for enforcing debts and demands, the laws of Tennessee, it is believed, furnish proceedings and practice as efficacious as do the laws of any State in the Union. In some of the counties there is, without doubt, much remissness in the administration of the law. That is the fault of the officers, not of the law. Nor is this remissness more serious, probably, than exists in portions of all the States.

Proceedings in Justices' Courts. Cases before Justices, ordinarily begin by "warrant," which is a summons commanding the constable to summon the defendant to appear and answer the complaint. The constable executes it, by making it known personally to the defendant, and appoints the time and place of trial. The *time* is near or remote, at the option of the constable, but usually adjusted to suit the reasonable convenience of the Justice and the parties. The *place* is ordinarily in the civil district in which the defendant resides, or if the defendant denies the claim, the trial may be had at a place and before a Justice of the civil district in which the plaintiff resides, if both parties reside in the same county. At the time and place appointed, the Justice renders judgment according to his notion of the merits, unless delay be granted for cause. Either party may appeal of right to the Circuit Court of the county; if the plaintiff, upon his giving personal security for the costs; if the defendant, upon his giving personal security, in some instances, for the costs, in others, for the payment of the debt. If judgment be against defendant, and he does not choose further to litigate the matter in the Circuit Court, he may have a stay of execution for eight months. If no appeal or stay of execution be obtained, execution may regularly be issued after two days from the rendition of the judgment. Appeals and stay of execution will be further explained hereafter.

In the *Circuit Courts*, cases are ordinarily begun by summons, which writ commands the sheriff to summon the defendants to appear and answer the complaint at the next ensuing term of the court. The service is by making the contents of the writ known personally to the defendant, and must be at least five days before the court.

In *chancery*, cases are ordinarily begun by *subpoena*, which is similar to a summons, with the copy or an abstract of the bill, personally served upon the defendant, at least ten days before the court.

In the *Supreme Court*, causes are carried from the Circuit and Chancery Courts, by writ of error, or appeal in the nature of a writ of error, or by writ of certiorari. It is hardly useful to explain these writs and proceedings. The securities required of a party to obtain them, will be subsequently mentioned.

Appeals, Appeals in nature of a Writ of Error, Writ of Error, Certiorari. An *Appeal* lies of right from the decisions of the Justices of the Peace to the Circuit Court of the county. Two days are allowed for taking the appeal after rendition of the judgment by the Justices. The cause stands for trial in the Circuit Court at the first term, if the ap-

peal be taken as much as five days before the first day of the term—if less than five days, it stands for trial at the second term. In the Circuit Court, the cause is tried as an original cause, upon the merits, by jury.

The *Certiorari*, in practice in Tennessee, is a writ employed to carry a cause from the judgment of a Justice of the Peace to the Circuit Court in cases where the party has been unable, for sufficient legal reason, to take an appeal within the two days allowed for the purpose. It is issued by the Clerk of the Circuit Court, upon the order of a Circuit Judge or two Justices of the Peace, granted upon petition of the party, verified by his oath, and showing merits, and a sufficient legal reason for failing to appeal, such as inability to attend the trial, and make defence on account of sickness, high waters, want of notice of the time and place of trial, &c., &c. The power of two Justices to order the *certiorari* is limited to the first twenty days after the rendition of the judgment. If the party fail to apply for the *certiorari* until after a term of the Circuit Court has passed, the petition must show a sufficient legal reason for the delay. The rule is, the party shall appeal if he can—if he cannot appeal in time, then he shall apply for the *certiorari* as soon as he can after becoming aware that the judgment has been rendered against him. The writ of *certiorari* is also employed in Tennessee for many other purposes.

A cause in the Circuit Court by *certiorari*, stands during the first term of the Court subject to be dismissed on motion of the other party, for want of sufficient legal reasons for its being granted, apparent upon the face of the petition. The facts stated in the petition are taken to be true, and proof will not be heard to contradict them upon the motion to dismiss. If not dismissed upon such motion, the cause stands for trial upon its merits, as an original cause, at the second term.

The *appeal in the nature of a writ of error* lies in the right to carry a cause, after final judgment in the Circuit Court, from that Court to the Supreme Court. It operates as a *writ of error*, differing in these particulars: that the *appeal in the nature of*, &c., is taken at the term of the Circuit Court in which final judgment is rendered, is a matter of right, transfers the whole cause into the Supreme Court, and closes all further action upon it in the Circuit Court, unless sent back from the Supreme Court, after hearing and judgment on it there. The cause, when thus in the Supreme Court, stands much the same as if there by *writ of error*. The Supreme Court affirms the judgment of the court below by entering up a like judgment, or corrects the judgment of the court below, and enters up such judgment as that court ought to have rendered, or reverses and sends the cause back to the Circuit Court for new trial there.

The practice in the Supreme Court, upon a cause there by *writ of error*, is much the same as when there by *appeal in the nature*, &c. If there be no error, the writ is dismissed; or, if error which the Supreme Court can correct, it makes the correction, and enters up such judgment as the court below ought to have done; otherwise, the judgment of the court below is reversed, and the cause sent back to the Circuit Court for new trial.

Cases in chancery are taken by *appeal* from the Chancery to the Supreme Court, or by *writ of error*. The practice upon the cause, when there, is nearly or quite alike, by whichever mode it gets there. The Supreme Court either affirms the decree of the Chancellor by entering up

a like decree, or corrects and modifies it by entering up such decree as the Chancellor ought to have adjudged; and, in its discretion, proceeds to perfect and execute the decree, or sends the cause back to the Chancellor to be perfected and executed by him in the manner directed by the Supreme Court.

The *writ of error*, in chancery causes, carries up to the Supreme Court all the pleadings, proofs, orders, and decrees.

Attachments, which begin proceedings against absconding, removing, or non-resident debtors, by the seizure of property, are entitled to separate consideration hereafter.

The Securities for Costs, &c., of Legal Proceedings. The costs in cases at law, abide the event of the suit. The losing party pays. None are required to be paid preliminary to any proceeding. The final judgment in the cause embraces a judgment for the costs against the losing party, on which judgment execution issues in favor of the successful party. Upon the commencement of a suit, the plaintiff is required to give a bond, with a surety for the costs. The bond is a part of the record, and if the plaintiff be cast, may be enforced against the surety by a proceeding upon it as a record, (by *scire facias*.) or as a penal bond at common law. Upon the bonds with sureties, which are required to be given by the appellant as the condition of obtaining an appeal, the surety becomes so far a party to the cause, as that, if judgment go against the appealing party in the appellate court, it embraces likewise the surety, and execution upon it issues against the appellant and his surety, jointly.

The *warrant*, which begins proceedings before *Justices of the Peace*, issues without security for costs. If the cause be taken by appeal of the plaintiff to the Circuit Court, the defendant, by application to the court, can require the plaintiff to give personal security for the costs, upon pain of dismissal of his appeal, if not given by a day designated by the court. If the defendant appeal, such securities are required of him as will be mentioned hereafter, in speaking of *appeals, &c.*

The *summons*, which begins suit in the Circuit Court, and the *subpœna*, which begins in the Chancery Court, issue upon personal security given by the plaintiff, or complainant, for the costs. The responsibility of the surety offered, is judged of and decided, in the first instance, by the clerk who issues the process. If the defendant think the security insufficient for any reason, he may, by application to the court in term, and showing it to be so, require better security, or the cause to be dismissed.

An *appeal* transfers the cause from the inferior to the Superior Court. The appellant is in all cases required to give personal security for the costs of the appeal, and of the proceedings in the Superior Court. If the defendant be the appellant, in addition to security for costs, he is required to give personal security for payment of the debt, or the performance of the judgment in the following cases: where the judgment is on a bond for money; bill of exchange; promissory note; written obligations to pay bank notes, bonds, or promissory notes; written obligations for the delivery of specific articles; liquidated accounts signed by the party to be charged.

The *writ of error* issues from the Clerk of the Superior Court, as matter of right, upon application by either party to the Clerk of that court, and filing with him a copy of the record of proceedings in the inferior

court. Security for costs of the contemplated proceedings in the Superior Court, is required in all instances. The writ does not suspend proceedings upon the judgment or decree of the court below, unless so ordered by a Judge of the Appellate Court. The order is made by the Judge upon inspecting a certified copy of the record, and discovering in it what he thinks material error. Upon making such order, the Judge directs to what extent, and for what purpose security shall be given, and such security is required to be given before the writ of error issues, which suspends proceedings on the judgment or decree in the inferior court. The writ of error may issue at any time within two years after final judgment in the inferior court.

The writ of *certiorari* issues upon personal security being given by the party obtaining the writ, to the extent of double the amount of the judgment of the Justice, for the performance of such judgment as the Circuit Court may render in the cause. When this writ issues for other purposes than as a remedy for an omitted appeal, it is on the order of a Judge, who prescribes such securities as he may think fit for the protection of the opposite party.

The Progress of Legal Proceedings. In cases before *Justices* of the Peace, the constable designates the time and place of trial. Two days are allowed after judgment, to take an appeal, or obtain *stay of execution*. If no appeal or stay be obtained, execution is issuable immediately. The execution is returnable in thirty days after issuance, which allows the constable thirty days to make the money. If judgment be against the defendant, he may obtain a *stay of execution* for eight months. This is done by procuring a responsible friend to enter, or cause to be entered, his name on the Justice's docket as surety for the payment of the debt and costs. At the end of the eight months, an execution may be taken out against the defendant and his stayor, jointly, and the money made out of the defendant if practicable; if not, out of the stayor. The constable has regularly thirty days after the issuance of the execution to make the money.

In the *Circuit Court* the summons may be taken out from the Clerk's office at any time. If executed on the defendant, five or more days before the first day of the ensuing term, the defendant must cause his appearance to be entered, and the pleadings made up at the first term, and the cause regularly stands for trial at the second term. Such is usually the progress in the Circuit Court of actions of debt, and the like, when there is no substantial defence. If the defendant fail to appear and plead at the first term, judgment final, by default, may be taken at that term in actions of *debt*; in other personal actions, final judgments cannot be had before the second term.

In the *Chancery Court*, the *subpœna* and copy of the bill may be taken out from the Clerk's office at any time after the bill is filed. If executed upon the defendant ten or more days before the first day of the ensuing term, the defendant ought to put in his demurrer, plea, or answer, at that term. The demurrer, and the sufficiency of the plea, may be heard and decided at the term when filed. If the demurrer be sustained, the cause is at an end; if overruled, it may be withdrawn, and a plea or answer be filed. If the plea be insufficient in substance, it may be heard and disallowed at the term when filed, and an answer put in. If sufficient, its

truth may be put in issue, and prepared for hearing at the next term, very much in the manner of an answer. Generally the answer ought to come in at the first term, a general replication forthwith filed which puts the cause at issue, and the cause be heard at the second term. In practice, however, the progress in Chancery is much more tardy. Either party may interpose obstacles and delay steps, and thus cause the suit to "drag its slow length along." Though the statute requires the answer to be in at the first court, it can be omitted with impunity until the next "rule day," which is the first Monday of the month next after the court. Then the case has to stand, for the taking of testimony, which is all in writing, five months after the issue is made up by the filing of the replication. The replication is a general and formal denial by the complainant of the truth of the answer, and assertion of the truth of the bill, with a declaration of his readiness to prove the one and disprove the other. The special replication is not allowed in Tennessee. The complainant cannot be coerced to file a replication sooner than the second rule day after the answer is in. The first Mondays of each month are rule days. The mode of coercing a replication is: the defendant enters in the Clerk's office, after the answer is in, upon a rule day, a rule requiring the complainant to file a replication. If not filed by the next rule day, (a month off,) the defendant may set down the cause for hearing upon the bill and answer, and the statements of the answer will be taken to be true. If the replication be filed before the cause is set down for hearing on bill and answer, the cause then stands five months for testimony to be taken, before it can be heard. By this delay, the complainant is able to throw the hearing of the cause beyond the second term, after its commencement. The defendant can procure still longer delay. Without stopping to detail the manner, it may be truly stated, that a skilful equity lawyer may easily protract the hearing and decision of a common case in Chancery at least two years after its commencement.

The foregoing attempt to sketch the progress of causes in the Chancery Courts of Tennessee, is very imperfect and unsatisfactory. Whoever adventures upon the task, will find it exceedingly difficult to accomplish within reasonable space, or in terms intelligible to the general reader, and, indeed, to the professional reader, not familiar with the Chancery practice in Tennessee.

To conclude—the system of Chancery practice prescribed by statute, appears to be framed with a view to speed the decision of causes in equity at the second term after commencement. Such, however, is the essential nature of the practice incapable of material change or modification in this respect, that most of the reforms projected to quicken its progress, will end in the disappointment of those who devise them. It may be added, that parties who on both sides wish, may generally speed a decision by the second term.

In the Supreme Court all causes stand for trial, and generally are tried and decided, at the first term after they get there.

ART. VI.—THE PROJECT OF A RAILROAD TO THE PACIFIC.

HON. ZADOCK PRATT'S LETTER TO THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.

CERTAINLY this is an age of great events, and such as must be productive of important results to the interests of mankind. It is the character of the men that appear in an age, and stamp the impress of their bold and energetic character upon it, which make it marked in history, an era in human progress. The following letter is from one of this cast, the Hon. Zadock Pratt, of Prattsville; and on the subject, a most stupendous national work, the bold and able letter will speak its own merits. It was prepared for the Magazine for last month, but unfortunately too late for insertion; it was therefore sent to the National Intelligencer, and the Union, at Washington. The plan of Mr. Whitney has made great progress in public opinion, and six important States have instructed their Congressional delegations to vote in its favor.

When, at the close of 1844, we wrote the following, which appeared in our January number, we had certainly no idea that the suggestion therein contained would be taken up by energetic men, and its feasibility reduced to a certainty:—

"The English government hope, by commanding the exclusive route to China over Egypt, by way of the Nile and the Isthmus of Suez, (to effect which, a negotiation is now pending between that power and the Pacha,) to obtain news several weeks earlier than it can be had in the United States; an advantage which will give her merchants control of the markets. Their diplomacy may succeed temporarily in this, but the march of events will ultimately give the United States the mastery. Her population is pushing, with a vigorous, rapid, and unceasing march, along a line 1,200 miles in extent, westward, towards the shores of the Pacific. The occupation of the vast territory known as the Oregon, is already going forward; and twenty years will not have elapsed, before a powerful State will have sprung up on the shores of the Pacific. This great tract of the Oregon is drained by the Columbia river and the San Francisco, which debouch upon the ocean at a point six days, by steam, distant from the Sandwich islands—a group the independence of which is guaranteed; whose population is 100,000, mostly American; the surface, 8,000 square miles, of a soil the most fruitful, and a climate unsurpassed in salubrity. These islands are situated in the middle of the Pacific, on the great highway from Oregon to China. The great whale fishery of these regions is conducted mostly by Americans, numbering 200 vessels, whose annual product is about \$5,000,000. This fleet, in the summer months, cruise between the islands and the coast of Japan, for sperm whale, and carry on a large trade in furs, &c., which are now sold in China, and the proceeds, in tea, sent home to the United States. The whole of this vast trade, and that of China, via the Sandwich islands, will be commanded by the State of Oregon. *Those persons are now living who will see a railroad connecting New York with the Pacific, and a steam communication from Oregon to China. For the last three centuries, the civilized world has been rolling westward; and Americans of the present age will complete the circle, and open a western steam route with the east.*"

Under the energetic guidance of such men as Pratt and Whitney, this end bids fair to be speedily consummated.

TO THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The subject of a passage across our continent to the Pacific, is exciting the attention of the public mind to such an extent, as makes it necessary for every statesman and citizen interested in the welfare, prosperity, and future greatness of our country, to examine the subject, for his own satisfaction, at least.

Two routes and modes are proposed to accomplish this great object. One by a canal or railroad, somewhere from Panama to Tehuantepec, in Mexico, between latitude north 7° and 16° ; and the other, a railroad, from Lake Michigan, through the Rocky Mountains, to Oregon, on the parallel of about $42\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, all on our own territory. I wish first to consider the canal, and see what it would and would not do, and see how we can build it.

The Hon. Mr. Wheaton, late Minister at Berlin, in his very able letter to the Secretary of War, shows that he has studied the subject, and made himself acquainted with all the lights then before the world; and even he leaves all in doubt and conjecture. If it can be done at all, it must be by the combined efforts and influence of all the different commercial nations interested. The English reviewers take the same view, giving to each nation its proportionate interest and influence, comparative with its amount of commerce with Asia, which, of course, would give the entire control to England. Would the people of the United States submit to such control? And does the constitution provide for the forming and carrying on such a co-partnership? Clearly not.

In Gen. Garella's very able, and the only scientific report of a survey of Panama, in the years 1842 and 1843, with a corps of engineers, under the orders of the French government, he takes up and examines the routes of Nicaragua and Tehuantepec. His estimate for the former is about 148,000,000 francs, for the latter 151,450,000, and for Panama 149,000,000 to 165,000,000. These estimates may be considered conjectural, as he says he had no comparison as a basis. It would be subject to every possible embarrassment; the sparse population of a lawless character, no security of person or property, and the Mexican government unable to enforce laws if she had them. A strong military force would be absolutely necessary, from one end to the other, both to support and protect the works and the commerce. An entire absence of material; laborers and material to be taken from a northern clime; subject to heavy expenses in execution, both from climate and local position, the former so uncongenial to our citizens as to render it almost if not quite impossible to sustain them. Therefore, the work could not be done, protected, or commerce carried on. It is fair to presume the results would far exceed Gen. Garella's estimates. In fact, another estimate by him for Tehuantepec is as high as 181,450,000 francs; and from all our experience in such estimates, and the fact that the people of the North cannot live in such a climate, the winter months so rainy and summer so hot, that no men could work or stand it, we have good reason to believe that the actual cost would far exceed any estimate made. Gen. Garella abandons all as inferior, and devotes all his efforts to Panama.

Now, the question is, can we do this work, and how, and what would be the probable results? It is, I think, perfectly clear that our government cannot furnish means, nor enter into such a co-partnership. Then, if done, it must be done by individuals. Would Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Charleston, and even New Orleans, furnish capital to build a thoroughfare, and population for a city to carry on a commerce under another government, in the benefits of which they cannot participate, nor derive any income for their capital? This is what no business man would do. And now let us see if this would be so. We will suppose the canal to be built, and all the commerce of Europe with Asia passing through it. Europe would furnish her own vessels for both sides—a ship canal, no transshipment required—and, I ask, what benefit could any city, on all the Atlantic or Gulf coast, derive from it? Surely none. In a political point of view, it would place all the marine, naval and commercial, of all Europe permanently and directly at our doors, in the most commanding position; and, as to our own commerce with Asia, would it be benefited at all by this change of route? Our commerce with Asia is not now large, owing to the fact that climate, distance, and expense, prevent an exchange of commodities; which difficulties could not be removed by a canal. The climate would forbid the passage of our pro-

duce through it. Nearly all our commerce with Asia is with China, consisting of teas, silks, &c.; and, mostly consumed north of Charleston, could receive no benefit from this route, but, on the contrary, would be subject to delays, losses, dangers, and damages from climate, and any benefit to the small amount which might, perhaps, be taken directly up the Mississippi as far as the mouth of the Ohio, would be more than over-balanced by the delays and damage of climate, which none but those acquainted with the business can understand. And would the States and cities north of the Gulf furnish means to the amount of some thirty to fifty millions, and submit to such a tax, barely to put out of their possession and under another government the route for a commerce which they cannot participate in or ever control? Clearly not. Such, it appears to me, would be the result of the canal, even with all the success predicted. It would be productive to us of nothing but evil. We have declared to the world that we will not submit to any foreign intervention or control of the affairs of this continent; and, at the same time, propose to enter into an alliance, offensive and defensive, whereby we yield the control of the commerce of the world, check and retard our prosperity and destiny for half a century, at least, and finally end in a desperate, bloody, and expensive war.

The object of a canal or railroad is to shorten the route from Europe to Asia, and, if possible, bring that commerce, which has controlled the world from time immemorial, across this continent; and, by lessening the expense, shortening the time and distance, and facilitating and increasing intercourse, to increase that commerce by a further and more diversified exchange of commodities. Barely substituting one route for another could not increase, because that alone could not create or produce any new means to sustain it. If a new route opens to production a wilderness, and thereby increases population, with means to sustain it and afford an exchange of commodities, it would, of course, increase commerce; or a new route which would greatly lessen expenses of transit, save much time, increase and facilitate intercourse, would naturally increase an exchange of commodities, and would also increase commerce. But neither of these desirable and all-important results can be gained by a canal, because a canal or railroad across any part of the isthmus could not open to settlement and production an extent of wilderness country, as it is not there—Nature here having fixed the bounds over which the genius of man cannot dominate; climate, sterility, and all, obstruct his course. And it could not shorten distance and time, lessen expense, facilitate and increase intercourse; as I will show there would be no shortening of distance or time, by giving the exact distances to be performed, both around the cape and through a proposed canal, as has been given to the public by Mr. Whitney, and from the authority of Professor Wittish, of the London University:—

To Valparaiso,	Miles.
From Plymouth to Realijo, via canal,	5,578
Thence to Valparaiso,	3,500
	8,978
To Valparaiso, around Cape Horn,	9,400
Difference in favor of the canal, only,	422
From Sidney to England, via proposed canal,	14,848
“ “ “ via Cape Horn,	13,848
Against canal,	1,000
From Canton to England, via canal, S. W. Moons,	15,558
“ “ “ via Cape of Good Hope, S. W. Moons,	14,940
Against canal,	618
From Plymouth to Singapore, via canal, N. E. Moon,	16,578
“ “ “ via Cape of Good Hope, N. E. Moon,	14,350
Against canal,	2,228

From this it appears that if the means could be furnished, the canal completed, no difficulties in its operation and progress, the commerce of Europe with Asia could never be changed to this route; and there are further, and almost, if not quite, insurmountable difficulties yet to name. The climate would not only destroy commodities of commerce, but population; a hurricane, navigation; shoals, rocks, bars, and no harbors. The Commercial Review of New Orleans, for July, estimates the destruction of vessels and property for eighteen months' commerce of the Gulf at one hundred and fifty vessels; value, cargo and all, \$6,000,000.

And should we alone attempt to get a canal across the isthmus, anywhere, it would force Europe to try to get a route across Suez or through Russia. But as we have the route within our own territory which would forever give us the entire control of the commerce and travel of all the world, and the means costing us nothing to accomplish it, I think it decidedly and clearly our duty to go at it at once, and have it done, and not lose all by looking after that which can do us no good.

Mr. Whitney's plan for a railroad from Lake Michigan, through the South Pass of the Rocky Mountains, to Oregon, is so plain and simple that any common mind can understand it. He asks Congress to appropriate sixty miles wide of the public lands, from Lake Michigan to the Pacific, for this especial purpose; and, as he builds the road, he takes the land to reimburse himself. For eight hundred miles, the one-half, at the government price, it is estimated, will build the road; the other half creates a fund for where the lands are poor. When completed, the road to be free to all the world, except for repairs and operations, to be fixed by Congress. The distance from the lake to the ocean is twenty-four hundred miles; the estimated cost, when ready for use, \$70,000,000. The number of acres required is 92,160,000, waste land, 1,200 miles without timber or navigable streams, and of small value; and would it ever settle or be of any value without the road? Clearly not. Then the question is, shall Mr. Whitney take these lands, and, by sale and settlement thereof, build this road, or shall they be allowed to fritter away without any perceptible good? This great highway of nations, the greatest work ever done by men or nations; a road which must forever be the thoroughfare between all Europe and Asia; a work which will bring us together as one family, binding us with a bond of iron which cannot be sundered—both useful in war and peace; a work which will give us the command of and make the commerce of all the world tributary to us, adding millions of wealth to the nation, and ten-folding its population; a work which shall change the condition of all mankind, bringing all together, as one nation, in free intercourse and exchange of commodities; a work which must be the means of civilizing and Christianizing the heathen, the barbarian and the savage—shall these waste wilderness lands be applied to this noble, this more than glorious purpose? I cannot doubt all will say yes.

When we look at the past, and see how civilization has travelled West, bringing commerce and the useful arts with it; when we see that civil and religious liberty was driven to this continent as its apparent last resting-place; when we see the progress and even strides of these United States in wealth and greatness; when we see this vast, this rich continent, yet a wilderness before us, the best climate and country, and under the best government the sun ever shone upon; more congenial to grow the whole man than any other part of the globe; placed directly in the centre of the earth—Europe, with more than two hundred and fifty millions of souls, on the one side, with the Atlantic, three thousand miles, between us, and on the other side all Asia, with seven hundred millions of souls, and the Pacific, a little more than five thousand miles, between us; and when we know that the earth does not produce enough to sustain the vast multitudes on either side, and nowhere for them to go but to us; and when we know that the building of this great road will open to settlement, production, and intercourse with all parts of the globe this vast wilderness of twenty-five hundred miles in extent, can we doubt that it is our destiny and paramount duty to go forward and accomplish it? Clearly not.

Mr. Whitney proposes to start his road somewhere on Lake Michigan, where he can find the lands unoccupied; and thence cross the Mississippi, near Prairie

du Chien, in the parallel of about 43° ; and thence over to the Missouri, between Council Bluffs and the Big Sioux; thence to the Pass on a parallel of about $42\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; thence to the best point on the Pacific, St. Francisco, or the Columbia River. This route or starting point would seem absolutely necessary. First, the route must be where the rivers can be bridged; the starting point must be from where the lands can be made immediately available for means, and where the good land can furnish means for the part where the land is poor, and to furnish timber for the road and for buildings where there is none. The plan could not be carried out from a starting point west of the lake, because there would not be a sufficient amount of lands on the route to insure success, and because the transportation of material to any other point would cost so much as to forbid the work. And it is not material to the States, as all would join this at or near the Mississippi, making this the most central for all the Atlantic cities and for New Orleans, and being about the centre of the continent. New England and New York would have their Buffalo and Erie roads through Ohio; Pennsylvania to Pittsburgh and through Ohio; Baltimore to Wheeling and through Ohio, two hundred miles nearer than New York; Richmond her direct and best of all routes to Cincinnati, and then onward; Charleston to Nashville and to Louisville, or direct through the entire State of Illinois; and New Orleans, with the father of rivers always navigable to the Ohio; while St. Louis would have the Mississippi and Missouri, and her railroad up the Missouri Valley, the first to reach it—all equally located, and sharing in all its benefits. Thus uniting and bringing all together at one grand centre; distant from ocean to ocean from either city not over 3,400 miles, performed at a moderate speed in eight days, and at thirty miles per hour, in five and a half days, and with the magnetic telegraph out-run the sun by twelve hours; placing us on the Pacific, directly opposite to all Asia; distant from Japan but 4,000 miles; from China but 5,400 miles; to Australia but 6,000 miles; to New Guinea 5,340 miles, and to Singapore 7,660 miles. From London or Liverpool (latitude about 50°) to New York is about 3,000 miles, to be added to the above, when we have the direct route from Europe to all Asia, and much shorter than any other route possible to accomplish.

These distances appear so much shorter than those for the route across the isthmus, that an explanation is required. First, we start from London, latitude 50° , and cross the isthmus, in from 7° to 16° north latitude, and about 90° west longitude; thence to Canton, latitude about 23° , and east longitude $113\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, or about 170° of longitude, each degree of longitude full sixty miles, making from the terminus of the canal to Canton over 10,200 miles; whereas, from Columbia river, latitude $46\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, to Shanghai, latitude about 32° , and east longitude 122° , where all the commerce of China would centre, is $110\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of longitude, measuring on this parallel about forty-seven miles each, a distance of 5,400 miles. Thus it will be seen that for a vessel bound from the terminus of a canal across the isthmus to China, the shortest and best route would be first to the Columbia river, and then to China. Thus we see that this would gain over that of the isthmus, from London to China, 3,758 miles, to Australia 2,440 miles, to Singapore 1,398 miles; and New York gains over Europe about 3,000 miles to all these places. This seems to be Nature's route. On this belt, this line around the globe, is almost all the population of the world; on this line is and will be the greatest production of breadstuffs and meat, the sustenance of men and of commerce, adding wealth to the nation; the only route which can of itself furnish the means to build the road, or where the labor of men can make it available. Nature has here smoothed the way, and opened the mountains to let us pass. Then look at our picture, our position with this road completed: behold, with one hand we reach out over the Pacific to the millions of Japan, China, and all Asia, with our manufactures, our cotton, our tobacco, our hemp, our rice, our flour, our corn, beef, pork, leather, and all our many and various products, and receive back in exchange their teas, coffee, sugar, spices, indigo, drugs, silks, and various useful and curious fabrics, with gold, silver, and precious stones—all, too, with our own ships and our own men; and with the other hand over the broad Atlantic, to all Europe, our various products in exchange for theirs, and receive their surplus

population, to whom we give a home, a country; while our body draws to it and controls the rich commerce and wealth of all the world, spreading and circulating from ocean to ocean, through every artery, through every city from Texas to Maine; and from the heart, the centre, would spring and flow forth throughout the whole frame, the whole system, the life, the products of man's labor, from the earth, which created, would control and sustain it. The picture is grand, and might be considered a vision, had it any other foundation than the wilderness earth, which by the labor of man is to bring forth all we want, and, at the same time, richly reward that labor. It is a great plan, a great work; but we are the people to do big things. This we have only to commence; it works itself. Build the first mile, and it prepares the way for another. The settler has the means of free transit to market, and his labor is wanted on the road; he is at once made independent and happy. It is the poor man's road, his hope and promise. It is the farmer and mechanic who will receive the greatest benefits; their small means and labor on the road could purchase the land for forty to one hundred and sixty acres; their labor and crops immediately wanted on the road; and if a surplus, a free transit to market. Villages and cities would spring up, from one end to the other, all independent and happy, because the free intercourse with all the world afford a full reward for labor. Then will you take your money and send it out of our country, to be used against your interest, or will you have the Oregon road, which will cost you nothing but your votes? Mr. Whitney does not ask for one dollar in money, nor will he subject any man to one cent of taxation, and no harm to any; he does not even ask a survey for his route; all he desires is, that the waste wilderness land may be placed so that by sale and settlement the means, in money and labor, can be produced to build the road, and when the road is completed, to be under the control of Congress, of the people, and no dividends. All this he proposes at his own risk and hazard; and if it fails, the people lose nothing, as no part of the lands would be granted to him faster than the road is built. It appears to me that this is no mysterious affair—a plain, simple, business plan, grand and sublime, but as simple as grand.

I examined this subject nearly three years ago. I then endorsed it, and presented Mr. Whitney's first memorial to the 28th Congress. Since that time it has grown upon the public mind, and I believe the people will have it, and the sooner the better.

Z. PRATT.

Prattsville, Greene County, N. Y., August 28th, 1847.

Art. VII.—APPLICATION OF ELECTRICITY TO ASCERTAINING OF LONGITUDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, ETC.

At the late meeting of the British Association held at Oxford, in England, Mr. Bains, who had so ingeniously applied galvanic electricity to the working of clocks, stated that he had discovered an economical mode for generating the electric fluid applied to this purpose. This he accomplished by simply sinking zinc and copper plates in the moist earth, instead of acids and saline substances, which developed sufficient electrical action to work a clock, in the place of weights and springs. Mr. Bains also showed, some time since, that, by means of connecting isolated wires, passing from a central clock worked by electricity, all the other public clocks in a city could be put in motion, and made to keep precisely the same time. For instance, if the clock on Trinity Church, or on the City Hall, were put in motion by electricity, and all other public clocks in New York connected with it by isolated wires, they could all be made to keep precisely the same time. Thus, if the main clock should be kept perfectly regulated, it would impart the same perfect regularity to all the rest, and prove of great convenience to the population at large.

In all that Mr. Bains has said on the subject, it does not appear that he thought of applying electricity to the ascertaining of longitude. It is clear, however, that, if a central clock in New York can be made to keep exact time, and make all the other clocks in the city do the same, by the agency of electricity passing along wires, that it is only necessary to extend the wires from the central clock in New York to every other town-clock throughout the United States, to make them all keep precisely the same time. Thus, a clock in the city of Mexico, and at the mouth of the Columbia River, and in Quebec, could all be made to *tick* precisely at the same moment, and thus show the difference in longitude between these far-distant and intermediate places, on every day throughout the year. By recent experiments, the telegraphic wires have been temporarily tried, by the mere *ticking* of magnetic registering machines, compared at the moment with chronometer time-pieces, for ascertaining differences of longitude between Jersey City and Philadelphia, and between the latter city and Baltimore and Washington. From the success which attended these brief experiments, no doubt can be entertained of the practicability of working electrical clocks, or chronometers, at distant points, simultaneously, on the plan I have suggested.

But it is not alone on land I propose to call public attention to the utility of electricity in ascertaining correct longitude, but on board of vessels at sea also. An electrical chronometer must possess many advantages over all other kinds. It is well known that the most difficult thing to regulate in a chronometer, is its spring, which changes its elasticity by use, or undergoes change of action by change of temperature. Heat expands it, and cold contracts it. The most difficult part of a clock to regulate, is its pendulum, which will elongate by heat, and contract by cold—in the first instance, causing it to move too slow, and in the second, too fast. I am aware of the various ingenious contrivances applied to remedy these defects, but in none of them have the experiments proved *perfectly* successful. In working a chronometer by electricity, the spring is wholly dispensed with; or in working a clock by the same agency, the spring, weights, &c., are wholly unnecessary, and we have nothing to guard against but the expansion of a simple wheel or two, which can be composed of substances in a manner more perfect, if not wholly exempt from variation in volume by changes of temperature. As the action of electricity in producing motion is uniform and instantaneous, in given terms, the oscillations must also be correspondingly uniform, the influence of heat and cold to the contrary notwithstanding.

If electrical clocks or chronometers can be made to work on land, they can also be made to work with equal facility at sea. The copper sheathing of a ship's bottom, immersed in water, and that almost all the while salt, would form a powerful surface, in connection with zinc plates favorably disposed of about the vessel, for the constant and permanent generation of an electrical current, sufficient to put a sea-clock or chronometer in motion, which, in all likelihood, would prove more uniformly correct, as a time-piece, than any chronometer ever hitherto employed; and hence a more correct instrument for ascertaining longitude than anything else in use. The improvement, at all events, is worthy of trial, and should be made under the patronage and authority of the government. Perfection, or as near perfection as possible, in chronometer time, is an object of great importance to navigation. This has been made apparent by the fact that

vessels have gone ashore, and have been totally wrecked, by very slight variations in chronometer time.

I trust my remarks may be the means of directing public attention to the importance of the subject; and that, on trial, *electrical chronometer time-pieces* may develop all the utility I hope for them.

A. J.

ART. VIII.—BARBOUR'S REPORTS OF CASES IN CHANCERY.*

CHANCELLOR WALWORTH'S term of office, and the office of Chancellor itself, ended on the first Monday of July last, by force and virtue of the new New York constitution. He continues to hear and decide cases now ready for hearing, until July, 1848. We may, therefore, look for perhaps three, or at most four volumes more of Mr. Barbour's series of Chancery Reports, of which the present is the first. This volume is printed and got up in the usual excellent style in which Messrs. Banks & Gould publish law books. In the contents we notice two special features of merit; one for which we have to thank the reporter, the other, the learned judge. We wish they were more common in law reports. In the first place, full statements of the arguments of counsel are given. It is no more than justice in the reporter, to give briefly the arguments of counsel on both sides of a question. They are an important class of the officers of the court, to whose diligence, learning, and ability, the cause of justice is much indebted, for the enlightened and careful consideration with which cases are decided. To whom, indeed, shall the poor lawyer look for name and fame with posterity, after he has "strutted his brief hour," like the actor—after his voice has died from the forum, like the actor from the theatre—like him, too, living and laboring as he does, only for the present, to whom shall he look unless to the reporter? Moreover, the points of counsel are as useful in letting the reader fully into the legal aspects of a case, as the statement of facts is in disclosing the circumstances. Indeed, a volume of Reports and Cases does not deserve the name, if it leave the labors of counsel "unhonored and unknown."

The other excellence of this volume, equally worthy, and greatly needing imitation in this country, is the brevity of the decisions. We have no objection to a long opinion, in its place. Who can find fault with the learned length of Judge Story's decision in *De Lovio vs. Bort?* or Chancellor Kent's in *Griswold and Waddington?* It is edifying to see a great legal mind battling long and stoutly with a hard case, with the complacency of learned self-confidence, starting up and running down every possible difficulty and objection. But the ordinary run of cases does not require this. It is astonishing how few are the cases directly bearing upon any point, in comparison with the multitude of authorities relating to the subject, but not strictly relevant. Nothing marks the learned, the experienced, and acute judge, more than a clear, terse, direct, and brief discussion of the very point at issue, with not a word wasted upon other matters, naturally suggested, perhaps, but irrelevant; or if relevant, too

* *Reports of Cases Argued and Determined in the Court of Chancery of the State of New York.* By OLIVER L. BARBOUR, Counsellor at Law. Vol. 1. New York: Banks, Gould & Co. Albany: Gould, Banks & Gould.

well settled to require a moment's consideration. Of this sort are the decisions reported by Mr. Barbour; though there are not wanting in the volume some of a length to satisfy the most insatiable. In the 650 pages of the book, we have the large number of 170 cases reported. Why has Mr. Barbour given us such a volume as only adds some poignancy to the thought that we have seen nearly the last of the Chancery Reports?

For nearly twenty years Chancellor Walworth has filled the judicial office, which, following English analogy, entitles the incumbent to be considered the head of the profession of the State. All lawyers think alike, we believe, of the ability, the learning, and the diligence with which its duties have been discharged. His industry, in fact, is of that kind which, like Judge Story's, and that of the old continental jurists, is rather appalling than encouraging. He is one of those men whose element is labor; whose minds find their truest repose, not in inactivity—miscalled rest—but in that constant exertion which, being most congenial, gives most ease. Such industry, united with such ability, yields products which, like the long series of Walworth's decisions, fill, and always will fill a large place among the reliable authorities of the lawyer's library.

Always will fill, we say, for it needs but a glance to see that the late alterations of our judiciary system, though they have swept away the old Court of Chancery, have not cut a hair's-breadth into the quick, as far as the equity principles administered in chancery are concerned, and that probably they will leave untouched many of even the old forms of proceeding. This being the case, as long as mortgages, marriages, trusts, and wills, which are the leading topics of this volume, continue in use, decisions like Chancellor Walworth's will continue to be needed, and so will reports of them like Mr. Barbour's.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

IMPORTANT DECISION—THE NAVIGATION ACT OF MARCH, 1817.

The act of Congress of March 1, 1817, concerning navigation, adopts, in substance, the English navigation act of 12 Charles II., ch. 18.

Qu. Whether the pleading in this case show the trade in question to be a violation of the act of March 1, 1817?

If it was so, the United States are concluded by their cotemporaneous construction of the act, and long-continued practice under it, from now denying the legality of an importation to the United States of articles, the growth, production, or manufacture of the British East India dependencies, from an English port in Europe, in vessels owned by British subjects resident in England.

But, if the question be an open one, such trade is not prohibited by the true meaning and effect of the act.

The act makes no distinction between one part of the dominions of a foreign State and others,—it applies to the entire country or foreign nation.

Colonies and dependencies, in contemplation of law, are part and parcel of the country to which they appertain; and privileges and disabilities, made to affect the country, extend alike to both, when it is not otherwise specially provided or directed.

Products of colonies, are of the products of the country, and there are no citizens, or subjects, or ships of colonies, otherwise than as they belong to the entire country.

The term *country* in the act of March 1, 1817, embraces the whole of the dominions of Great Britain, including her East India possessions.

The act is to be regarded as retaliatory and prohibitive in its character, intended to counteract like regulations enforced by other countries against the commerce of the United States.

It is not alleged or shown that British laws, or regulations of trade, prohibit the exportation to Great Britain, from a port in the United States, in an American vessel, of articles the growth, production, or

manufacture of a territory or dependency of the United States, but not of the place from which they are shipped for exportation.

Nor is it alleged or shown that vessels of the United States are interdicted importing into the United States, from English ports in Europe, productions, &c., from the British East India possessions.

The plea in bar of the information, declared good, and decree rendered, restoring ships and cargo seized, to the claimants.

The libel of information charged that this ship, not being a vessel of the United States, nor a foreign vessel truly and wholly belonging to the citizens or subjects of the British East Indies, on the 22nd of May, 1847, imported from London into New York, various goods described, being the growth, production, or manufacture of the British East Indies, from which place they have usually, since March, 1817, been shipped for transportation; and by reason whereof, and by virtue of the act of Congress of March 1, 1817, the said ship, her tackle, &c., and the said cargo, became and were forfeited to the United States; and prayed process, and a decree of condemnation, &c.

The claimants, averring themselves to be natural born subjects of the Queen of Great Britain, and resident in England, within the United Kingdom, pleaded specially to the libel, that the said ship, at the time, truly and wholly belonged to them, and still does, and that the British East Indies are, and were at the time, provinces, and part and parcel of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of Her Majesty's dominions, and that the said goods were the growth, production, and manufacture of the dominions of Her Majesty, and were received by them on board said ship at the port of London, for transshipment to the port of New York, and aver the right to make such importation, &c., &c.

To the special pleas, the District Attorney demurred.

In the U. S. Circuit Court, Southern District of New York, before the Hon. Samuel Nelson, Assistant Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and the Hon. Samuel R. Betts, District Judge. *The United States vs. The Ship Recorder.*

The question raised by the issue in law, is, whether the trade in which this ship was employed, is inhibited by the act of Congress concerning the navigation of the United States, passed March 1, 1817.

The first section of the act provides, that after the 30th day of September next, no goods, wares or merchandise shall be imported into the United States, from any foreign port or place, except in vessels of the United States, or such foreign vessels as truly and wholly belong to the citizens or subjects of that country of which the goods are the growth, production or manufacture; or from which such goods, wares or merchandise can only be, or most usually are, first shipped for transportation. *Provided*, nevertheless, that this regulation shall not extend to the vessels of any foreign nation which has not adopted, and which shall not adopt a similar regulation. The second section declares the vessel and cargo, coming into the United States, in violation of those provisions, forfeited.

It is not stated in the pleadings, nor admitted by the claimants on the argument, that Great Britain has adopted regulations similar to those established by this act; and the claimants, therefore, in strictness of law, may be entitled to the objection, that the construction insisted on by the government, does not bring the vessel and cargo within the condemnation of the statute.

We think, however, if the navigation laws of Great Britain, notoriously restraining the trade in American vessels, with her colonies, within limits more strict than the regulations of this statute, are not to be judicially noticed by the court, the provisions of the convention between the United States and Great Britain, of July -, 1815, must be regarded as part of the law of the case; and in that convention, Great Britain reserves to herself, and adopts, by implication, regulations similar, in this respect, to those established by the act of Congress in question. It is admitted by the pleadings, that goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, production, or manufacture of the British East Indies, have, since the passage of the act of Congress, been usually shipped for transportation from the ports of the East Indies.

The District Attorney, on the part of the government, accordingly, contended that the course of trade attempted in this instance, is prohibited to British vessels—first, by the direct language of the act of Congress, and secondly, by its intent and policy, as gathered from antecedent and cotemporaneous facts, leading to its enactment.

We think, upon general principles of law, the question is no longer open to

the government upon the construction and bearing of the act of Congress, in this respect.

In September, 1817, on transmitting the act to the officers of customs throughout the United States, the Secretary of the Treasury instructed them that "the term 'country,' in the first section, is considered as embracing all the possessions of a foreign State, however widely separated, which are subjected to the same executive and legislative authority. The productions and manufactures of a foreign State, and of its colonies, may be imported into the United States in vessels owned by the citizens or subjects of such State, without regard to their place of residence within its possessions."

This exposition of the act does not appear to have been called in question or doubted by the United States, until the 30th of June, 1842, when an opinion was given by the Attorney General on its meaning and operation, which, on the 6th of July, 1842, was transmitted by the Secretary of the Treasury to the collectors of the customs.

The Secretary, in his circular, instructs the collectors to be governed thereafter by the opinion of the Attorney General, and "to take care that the penalties of the law are enforced in all cases coming under its provisions." The seizure in the present case is made in execution of those instructions.

The Attorney General intimates that the language of the first section of the act is not entirely free from ambiguity, but declares it his opinion, "that it does not in any case authorize an indirect carrying trade by foreign ships."

"The proviso was intended to restrain the privilege extended to foreign vessels in the enacting clause. By this they are allowed where they belong wholly to the citizens or subjects of that country of which the goods are the growth or manufacture, to bring these goods into our ports. By the proviso, this is confined to cases where a reciprocal privilege of the same kind is extended to our vessels."

This interpretation of the act is entitled to the highest respect, and if we regarded it as removing or meeting the difficulties raised on this issue, we should give it the most careful consideration. We should probably feel considerable hesitancy in accepting as the true key to the interpretation of the act, the idea put forth in the opinion, that the enacting clause extended a privilege to foreign vessels, and that the proviso confined it to cases where a reciprocal privilege of the same kind is extended to our vessels. It rather appears to us the natural reading of the act gives it a retaliatory and prohibitive character, restrained by the proviso from being enforced against any nation not having adopted like prohibitions or restrictions against the United States. But we forbear an examination of this point, because the case submitted to the Attorney General had none of the features marking this. That was a Belgian vessel, which imported to the United States a cargo from Buenos Ayres, the products of the latter country, and the question to be decided was whether such indirect trade was open to her in articles of foreign growth or production. The Attorney General was of opinion that the act of March 1, 1817, did not authorize it. The case would have been opposite if the Belgian ship had been laden at her home port, in Europe, with productions of a Belgian colony or territory in the East or West Indies or Africa, and the United States were debarred importing the same goods, except directly from the place of their production.

There is no evidence before us that the Treasury Department, or the officers of the customs, have, since the act of 1817, arrested, or questioned importations of colonial products, made in a vessel of the mother country, from her home port: and we must regard the cotemporary exposition of the act, given by the Secretary of the Treasury, as the one acquiesced in and practised under by the government, from that period, except by the exposition of the Attorney General, above referred to; and there is no evidence before us that his interpretation has ever been enforced in a case similar to this. We hold the government, if not all other parties, now precluded by that long usage, and practical construction of the law, from questioning its correctness and disturbing the course of its execution. Admitting that on the face of the act it is doubtful whether the trade now

attempted to be prosecuted, can be allowed; or even conceding that the intention of the statute to the contrary is manifest, and that the Treasury Department misapprehended and misinterpreted its provisions, in the instructions of September, 1817, we think the settled rules of law, and the principles governing the interpretation of human language, with whatever solemnity, and to whatsoever purpose it is employed, require us to adopt and adhere to the contemporaneous construction, corroborated by an undeviating usage of thirty years, as that which must be applied to the statute, and govern this case.

We deem it unnecessary to state arguments or analyze cases supporting the proposition.

The principle is recognized and illustrated by the highest legal authorities—(Dwarris on Statutes, 693; Bac. ab. Stat., l. 5; 1 Cranch, 229; 5 Cranch, 22; 3 Pick. R., 517.)

The Supreme Court of the United States gives the most solemn sanction to the doctrine, in declaring that a cotemporary exposition of the Constitution, practised and acquiesced under for a period of years, fixes its construction, (*Stuart vs. Laird*, 1 Cranch, 299,) and in pronouncing the practical construction of a statute the one which must be enforced, although clearly unauthorized by the terms of the law itself—(5 Cranch, 22, *McKeer vs. Delancy*.)

In the first case, the period of acquiescence had been comparatively of short duration—about twelve years.

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts, in a case most maturely considered, held “that a cotemporaneous, is generally the best construction of a statute. It gives the sense of a community of the terms made use of by the legislature. If there is ambiguity in the language, the understanding and application of it, when the statute first comes into operation, sanctioned by long acquiescence on the part of the legislature and judicial tribunals, is the strongest evidence that it has been rightly explained in practice. A construction under such circumstances, becomes established law.”—(*Packard vs. Richardson*, 17 Mass., 144, 2 Mass. R., 477-8.)

The navigation law adopted by Congress in 1817, would be one eminently calculated to attract the notice of the business community. It provided for cases of deep public moment, and most especially as it tended to meet in some degree the embarrassment our trade suffered from the navigation laws of Great Britain, and her commercial regulations, affecting the intercourse with her colonies. These had been topics of agitating interest in the negotiations between the two countries preceding the war of 1812, and in those leading to the termination of that war, and the adjustment of new relations of peace.

The 14th Congress, which came into power with the close of the war, must have been strongly imbued with the common tone of feeling, and familiar with the state of those commercial regulations as enforced by Great Britain, and their effect upon the interests of the United States.

The President, in his message to Congress, Dec. 3d, 1816, adverted in strong language to the state of trade with the British colonies out of Europe; its partial and injurious bearing on our navigation, and the refusal of that government to negotiate on the subject.

The merchants of New York and Portland memorialized Congress on the subject, urging that importations of goods, &c., into the United States, should be prohibited, “except in vessels of the United States, or in vessels built by, and actually belonging to the citizens or subjects of the nation in which such article has been produced or manufactured, &c.” (11 Niles’ Register, 273, 2d sess. 14th Cong., Doc. No. 81.)

In this aroused state of public opinion, it is not supposable that the exposition placed by the Secretary of the Treasury on the act of March, 1817, could escape the notice of the executive and legislative branches of the government, and of the community at large; and that construction, therefore, under these circumstances, stands augmented with presumptions supporting its justness, stronger in force than even the lapse of thirty years’ acquiescence. It is not to be credited that the President, Congress, and the whole body of merchants, would permit an

interpretation of this statute, which failed to carry out the spirit and meaning of its enactment, to govern our trade and revenues: and it is difficult to put a case where cotemporaneous construction could with more confidence and justness be relied upon, as the expression of the true meaning of a law. We feel, therefore, that we could with great propriety rest the decision of this case upon the application of that principle, as recognized and enforced in the authorities referred to, and supported by the special circumstances surrounding this law. But in a case presenting a question of grave import to our own mercantile interests, and also to the relations between the United States and Great Britain, we have considered it proper to examine the statute itself with attention, aided by the arguments of the respective counsel, and shall proceed to assign briefly the reasons leading us to the conclusion that the construction heretofore adopted is correct, and should be still adhered to.

It seems to be maintained, on the part of the United States, that the act should be understood to restrain the importation by British vessels, to articles the production or manufacture of her European possessions, and to compel the productions and manufactures of her dependencies out of Europe, to be brought here in vessels belonging to the place of production or manufacture. This construction is founded upon the assumed import of the term "country" employed in the act, in connection with the supposed policy of the statute to establish a condition of reciprocity in respect to the navigation and trade of the country, where that was not already regulated by the convention of July 3, 1815.

It may be admitted that the term "country" used in the act, in its primary meaning, signifies place, and in a larger sense, the territory or dominions occupied by a community; or even waste and unpeopled sections or regions of the earth; but its metaphorical meaning is no less definite and well understood; and in common parlance, in historical and geographical writings in diplomacy, legislation, treaties, international codes, not to refer to sacred writ, the word country is employed to denote the population, the nation, the State, the government having possession and dominion over it.

Thus, Vattel says, "the term country seems to be well understood by every body. However, as it is taken in different senses, it may not be unuseful to give it here an exact definition. It commonly signifies the State of which one is a member." "In a more confined sense, this term signifies the State, or, even more particularly, the town or place of our birth." (Book I., ch. 9, § 122.)

When a nation takes possession of a distant country, and settles a colony there, that country, though separated from the principal establishment, or mother country, naturally becomes a part of the State, equally with its ancient possessions. Whenever, therefore, the political laws or treaties make no distinction between them, everything said of the territory of a nation ought also to extend to its colonies. (Vattel, B. I., ch. 18, § 210.)

The whole of a country possessed by a nation, and subjected to its laws, forms its territories; and it is the common country of all the individuals of the nation. (Ibid., B. I., ch. 19, § 211.)

It is very apparent upon the provisions of the act of 1817, that Congress understood and used the term country in the enlarged sense given by Vattel. Thus nation, in the proviso to S. 1; foreign prince or State in S. 3; and foreign power in S. 4, all represent, in their connection, the same idea as country in the first section:—the special designation of citizens or subjects does not mark with more precision that the law had reference to persons, to political powers and agencies, than the mere word country—the thing containing being, by a familiar form of speech, used for that which it contains; and, besides, persons could, with no propriety of language, be styled citizens or subjects of a country, without understanding country to mean the State or nation, and not merely a section or portion of territory belonging to the nation. So, in the preamble to the convention of 1815, countries, territories, and people, are used by the two governments as having one import, and in the first article, territories is employed as the correlative of inhabitants.

Other instances are frequent in our statutes and treaties, and diplomatic cor-

respondence, in which foreign countries and territories are referred to as the people, State, or nation occupying and governing them.

But in the present case, it seems to us that the phraseology of the first section of the act, indicates more distinctly even than the use of the ordinary word country, that the regulation had a view to foreign governments and nations, and their vessels, and not to the localities within which the individual owners might reside, or where the vessels might be employed.

The expression of the law is, "in such foreign vessels as truly and wholly belong to the citizens or subjects of that country of which the goods are the growth, production, or manufacture."

It has been shown that, by the well-known principles of public law, colonies are parts of the dominion and country of the parent State, and the inhabitants are her subjects and citizens.

It follows, as a necessary consequence of that relationship, that there can be no citizens or subjects of the colonies, as distinct and separate from the mother country, and that they can possess no shipping, which, in its character, ownership, or employment, will be foreign to other nations in any sense other than as belonging to their common country. By the English law, none but vessels wholly owned by British subjects resident within the British dominions can be registered. (*Holt Shipp.*, ch. 2, § 3, § 5; *Wilk. Shipp.*, 240, 248.)

Congress thus most manifestly had reference to the nationality of vessels in the designation of foreign, because the vessels must truly and wholly belong to citizens and subjects; terms necessarily importing a State or government to which such owners appertain.

This consideration furthermore supports the interpretation placed by the court upon the word country, for the term is introduced into this law in connection with expressions demonstrating that the shipping interest and products of foreign States were in contemplation, and not merely the parts or places where the products were grown, or the ship-owners resided.

The "act to regulate trade in plaster of Paris," passed March 3, 1817, strongly imports that this act was intended to have application to the foreign State, and not any of its particular members or parts, and is a significant exposition of its scope and purpose in view of Congress.

The subject matter of the two enactments were of a kindred character, and the latter, if not both acts, was in effect aimed at the restrictions of the British navigation laws. There were circumstances in the regulation of the Nova Scotia plaster trade particularly offensive to this country, and Congress, two days after the law in question, passed a special act, providing "that no plaster of Paris, the production of any country, or its dependencies, from which the vessels of the United States are not permitted to bring the same article, shall be imported into the United States in any foreign vessel." (3 U. S. Stat., 361.)

It is to be remarked upon this statute, that it was wholly superogatory, if the construction now claimed on the part of the United States, to that of March 1st, is correct; because the interdiction of the latter law being universal, it would necessarily include this particular description of importation in foreign vessels, it being denied to vessels of the United States.

It therefore affords a strong presumption that Congress did not intend, by the act of March 1, to exact and enforce a reciprocity of privileges with foreign vessels, in the trade to and from foreign countries, in the sense of giving our vessels the right to bring foreign products from any part of a foreign country from which the vessels of that country might import them.

It denotes, moreover, that Congress considered it necessary to designate dependencies, or places of production, when it was intended to discriminate them from the mother country; and also impressively shows that Congress understood the antecedent act as authorizing the importation of plaster of Paris in foreign vessels, from countries and their dependencies, from which the vessels of the United States were not permitted to bring the same article. That such was the understanding and aim of Congress, is more distinctly manifested by the act passed the succeeding session, and which will be adverted to again.

The grievance under which our navigation labored, clearly was not the carrying trade of the East India colonies of Great Britain, nor the direct trade between them and the United States. Those subjects were embraced in the then recent convention of 1815, and we had given and accepted stipulations regulating both.

We yielded to Great Britain the exclusive right, as to us, to carry on the coasting and foreign trade, to and from those dependencies, expressly agreeing that the vessels of the United States should not carry any article from the ports to which they are admitted to any port or place except to some port or place in the United States, where it should be unladen. (Art. 3.)

In the message of the President to Congress, and the memorials of merchants, before cited, no reference is made to British regulations of the East India trade, as injurious to us or objectionable; nor is it suggested that the carrying trade of Great Britain from her colonies is cause of complaint, on our part, further than that it indirectly aggravated the injury of our exclusion from the direct trade.

But what Mr. Madison and the merchants point to as oppressive to our navigation, is its total exclusion from a direct trade with the colonies. The President says:—"The British government, enforcing, now, regulations which prohibit a trade between its colonies and the United States, in American vessels, whilst they permit a trade in British vessels, the American navigation suffers accordingly; and the loss is augmented by the advantage which is given to the British competition over the American, in the navigation between our ports and the ports in Europe, by the circuitous voyage enjoyed by the one and not enjoyed by the other." (Message, Dec. 3, 1816.)

This wrong, of course, was committed in respect to other dependencies of Great Britain than the East Indies; for the retaliatory act of April 18, 1818, (3 U. S. Stat., 432, § 2,) specially passed to countervail the English colonial navigation laws, (14 Niles' Reg., 111,) saves all the provisions of the convention of July 3, 1815, (§ 2, proviso.)

Congress, in the first measure adopted, seemed to stop at the same point of restriction to which our trade had been subjected by foreign powers, and to intend that law to be applicable to all nations with whom we had commercial intercourse. They in substance adopted the English Navigation Act, of 12 Charles II., ch. 18. It was notorious that the operation of the act of 1817, under the proviso, would in effect be limited to the British navigation. (Reeve Shipp., Pt. 1, 107; 1 Chitty's Comm. L., ch. 6.)

That this act was not designed to meet the mischiefs suffered by our trade under the regulations of the British colonial policy, is therefore indicated plainly by the after act of March 3, 1817; and it appears to us is demonstrated by the provisions of the "act concerning navigation," passed April 18, 1818, (3 U. S. Statutes, 432,) and the two acts supplementary and in addition thereto, passed May 15, 1820, and May 6, 1822, (3 U. S. Statutes, 602 and 681.) These statutes, with the most rigorous inhibitions of the introduction of the productions of British colonies into the United States in British vessels, directly or indirectly, when not allowed to be imported with equal privileges in vessels of the United States, are plainly limited to the British West India and North American dependencies. (Report of committee, 11 Niles' Register, 111.) We think these various enactments, made under the suggestion of the Executive, at the instance of our shipping merchants, accompanied by earnest diplomatic efforts and expostulations, in respect to the trade with the English dependencies in North America and the West Indies, conclusively support the meaning originally applied to the act of March 1, 1817, and which we adopt: that it does not render illegal the trade attempted in this instance.

We perceive nothing in the provisions of the second clause of the first section of the act of March 1, 1817, bearing upon this question.

The information avers that the productions of the East Indies have usually been first shipped for transportation from the ports of the East Indies, and the plea in substance admits the fact.

Yet, as already indicated, the act, in our judgment, does not exact a direct trade from the port of production, or usual shipment, when the importation is in a vessel belonging to the country in which the goods are produced. It places no limitation of place upon her right to bring the productions of her own country.

If a foreign ship engages in such carrying trade, the act might probably require that her voyages should be from a home port, which should also be the country from which such goods, wares, or merchandise can only be, or most usually are, first shipped for transportation, but we do not undertake to define the effect or application of this clause further than to say, it does not restrain the exportation in vessels owned by citizens or subjects of the country, to the port of production or usual shipment in that country.

We are also led to observe upon the proviso, that it does not appear upon the pleadings, or any regulations of trade made by Great Britain, which we have examined, that she prohibits the importation, in vessels of the United States, of the productions of our territories or dependencies, shipped from a port of the United States to which they had been transported from the place of production.

Nor does it appear that vessels of the United States are prohibited by the British government importing to this country, from England, goods, wares, or merchandise, the growth, production, or manufacture of her East India dependencies.

As already intimated, therefore, there is ground for doubt whether, upon the construction of the act assumed on the part of the government, a case is made showing any violation of its provisions, by the importation in question.

Without adverting to many other topics of argument, opened by the case, and discussed by counsel, in our judgment, the defence made by the special pleas, is a bar to the action, and the demurrer taken on the part of the United States must be overruled.

The following decree will accordingly be entered in the cause :

It being considered by the court, that the matter specially pleaded by the claimants to the libel, and information filed in this cause, amounts in law to a bar thereof, and to the prosecution aforesaid for the matters in the said libel specified—It is ordered by the court, that judgment be rendered for the claimants, upon the demurrer interposed on the part of the plaintiff to the plea aforesaid.

It is further ordered by the court, that the said ship, her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the cargo in the pleadings specified, be discharged from arrest in this cause, and be delivered up to the claimants therein.

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MERCHANDISE SOLD ON TIME.

In the Superior Court, (City of New York.) Albert Woodhull and others, *vs.* David M. Wilson & Co.

This was an action to recover \$837, being the price of iron sold to the defendants. In 1846, the plaintiffs, through a broker, sold to the defendants a quantity of iron, and, at the time of the sale, a memorandum was made containing the date and price, and marked "4 months." The plaintiffs delivered the iron, and in a few weeks after sent to the defendants for their note at four months from the date when the goods were delivered. The defendants refused to give the note, and this action was instituted. The defendants offered to pay the amount before the four months had expired, but the plaintiffs refused to take it unless the costs of the suit were also paid. For the defence, it was alleged that the defendants purchased the goods on four months credit without any understanding between the parties that they should pass their note for it. On the part of the plaintiffs it was shown that "4 months" on a memorandum of sale means that a note is to be given payable in four months, and that it was customary for purchasers, under such circumstances, to give such notes. On the other hand, witnesses were called who testified that no such general custom existed in the iron trade, although purchasers do frequently give their notes to convenience sellers. The court charged the jury that the sole question they had to pass upon, was whether, according to general custom, the transaction meant a credit by book account or a credit on a note at four months, and as they found this fact so would they find for the plaintiffs or defendants. The jury brought in a verdict for plaintiffs for \$866 damages and costs.

## COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES—CONDITION OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND—RATES OF STERLING AND FRANCES IN NEW YORK, FOUR LAST YEARS—QUARTERLY IMPORTS INTO NEW YORK FOR LAST NINE YEARS—SHIPMENT OF MEXICAN DOLLARS TO LONDON—THE REVULSION IN ENGLAND—ITS INFLUENCE—THE CRISIS OF 1836-7—THE MONEY MARKET—BANK LOANS OF NEW YORK CITY—THE GERMAN TRADE—WEEKLY AND MONTHLY RECEIPTS OF COTTON AT PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1846-7—EXPORTS OF COTTON FOR ALL THE PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES—SALES OF COTTON—PRICES, AND RATE OF FREIGHT—IMPORT INTO, AND EXPORT OF COTTON FROM NEW YORK, 1846-7—WEEKLY AND MONTHLY RECEIPTS OF COTTON, AND GRAND TOTAL FOR FOUR YEARS, ETC., ETC.

DURING the month which has elapsed since the date of our last number, the general state of business has been active and lucrative. The imports have been large, money easy, country trade very animated, and internal exchanges in a satisfactory state. The export trade has, however, not been so satisfactory. The financial affairs of England, so long laboring under a great expenditure of capital in railroads, simultaneous with a considerable deficit in the crops, and an insufficient supply of the raw materials, have reached a crisis which has operated unfavorably on American interests; although it has not been productive of those disastrous bankruptcies, which a collapse in the London market was wont, in former years, to inflict upon the commerce of the United States. It has been the case that, notwithstanding the universal cry of "good crops," prices have been sustained in England at points very much higher than those of last year, consequently inducing continued imports and accumulating stocks in the hands of large houses, even beyond the very considerable quantities taken for consumption. These large arrivals of food, in connection with the considerable importation of foreign produce and moderate export of goods, operated unfavorably upon exchanges, and promoted a gradual decline in the bullion of the bank. At the date of our last, the returns were brought down to July 24, when the bullion held was £9,770,347, and the bank minimum rate of interest was  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. In the following week, the demand for specie was large. The government shipped £100,000, gold, to the Cape of Good Hope; the Messrs. Rothschild sent £244,863, in silver, to Paris; and £70,000 was taken by the Cambria for New York. When this state of affairs appeared in the accounts on Saturday night, July 31, a special meeting of the directors was called for Monday, and they raised the rate of interest to 5 per cent. This produced a panic in the market, particularly among those corn houses whose obligations were large. Wheat fell 8s. to 10s. per quarter, and a number of failures resulted, further depressing the market; and when the directors met at the regular meeting on Thursday, August 5, they again raised the rate of interest to  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, the leading features of the bank standing as follows:—

| Periods.   | Securities. |            | Deposits. |           | Nett circulation. | Notes on hand. | Bullion.  | R'te for bills. |    |    |
|------------|-------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------|----------------|-----------|-----------------|----|----|
|            | Public.     | Private.   | Public.   | Private.  |                   |                |           | 30              | 60 | 90 |
| July 24... | £11,636,340 | 15,325,476 | 4,503,516 | 8,396,452 | 19,752,345        | 4,216,445      | 9,776,347 | 43              | 5  | 5  |
| " 31...    | 11,636,340  | 15,724,129 | 4,503,809 | 8,316,271 | 19,711,269        | 3,774,675      | 9,331,250 | 5               | 6  | 6  |
| Aug. 7...  | 11,663,280  | 16,302,175 | 5,570,606 | 7,885,897 | 19,504,877        | 3,946,245      | 9,252,820 | 5               | 6  | 6  |

The advance of the rate of interest affected favorably the foreign exchanges for the moment, but the pressure continued very severe, and the failures caused

the protest of a great amount of American bills drawn upon the insolvent houses. These bills were, however, to a very considerable extent, covered by friends in London, who held bills of lading; and the advices reaching New York by the Guadalquivir steamer, on Sunday, the 29th, afforded opportunity to houses here to make arrangements by the packet of the 1st. For this purpose, the demand for bills became active, and the rates advanced, being as follows for several packets, for four years :—

## PRICE OF STERLING AND FRANCS IN NEW YORK.

| 1844.              |               | 1845.    |               | 1846.   |               | 1847.   |               |
|--------------------|---------------|----------|---------------|---------|---------------|---------|---------------|
| London.            | Paris.        | London.  | Paris.        | London. | Paris.        | London. | Paris.        |
| Sept'r 14, 9½ @ 9½ | 5.23½ @ 5.22½ | 9½ @ 10  | 5.22½ @ 5.21½ | 9½ @ 10 | 5.23½ @ 5.22½ | 9 @ 9½  | 5.30 @ 5.28½  |
| Sept'r 30, 9½ @ 9½ | 5.25 @ ...    | 9½ @ 10  | 5.22½ @ 5.21½ | 9½ @ 10 | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 8½ @ 9  | 5.30 @ 5.28½  |
| Oct'r 15, 9 @ 9½   | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 9½ @ 10  | 5.22½ @ 5.21½ | 9½ @ 10 | 5.23½ @ ...   | 8 @ 8½  | 5.31½ @ 5.30  |
| Oct'r 31, 8½ @ 8½  | 5.27½ @ ...   | 9½ @ 10½ | 5.21½ @ 5.20  | 9½ @ 9½ | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 6½ @ 7½ | 5.37½ @ 5.39½ |
| Nov'r 15, 7½ @ 7½  | 5.35 @ 5.32½  | 9½ @ 10½ | 5.21½ @ 5.20  | 8 @ 9   | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 6½ @ 7½ | 5.40 @ 5.37½  |
| Nov'r 30, 8 @ 8½   | 5.33½ @ 5.32½ | 9½ @ 10  | 5.25 @ 5.22½  | 8½ @ 8½ | 5.27½ @ 5.26½ | 6½ @ 6½ | 5.41½ @ 5.40  |
| Dec'r 14, 8½ @ 8½  | 5.33½ @ 5.32½ | 9½ @ 10  | 5.22½ @ ...   | 8 @ 8½  | 5.27½ @ 5.26½ | 5½ @ 6½ | 5.42½ @ 5.41½ |
| Dec'r 31, 9 @ 9½   | 5.27½ @ ...   | 10 @ 10½ | 5.21½ @ ...   | 8 @ 9   | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 5 @ 5½  | 5.45 @ 5.42½  |
| Jan'y 15, 9 @ 9½   | 5.28½ @ 5.27½ | 10 @ 10½ | 5.21½ @ ...   | 8½ @ 8½ | 5.28½ @ 5.26½ | 5½ @ 6  | 5.43½ @ 5.42½ |
| Jan'y 31, 9 @ 9½   | 5.33½ @ 5.30  | 9½ @ 10  | 5.23½ @ 5.22½ | 8½ @ 8½ | 5.28½ @ 5.27½ | 5½ @ 6½ | 5.40 @ 5.37½  |
| Feb'y 15, 9 @ 9½   | 5.33½ @ 5.30  | 9½ @ 10½ | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 8 @ 8½  | 5.28½ @ 5.27½ | 5 @ 5½  | 5.40 @ 5.38½  |
| Feb'y 28, 8½ @ 8½  | 5.30 @ 5.28½  | 9½ @ 10  | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 8½ @ 8½ | 5.28½ @ 5.27½ | 4½ @ 5½ | 5.41½ @ 5.40  |
| Mar'h 15, 8 @ 8½   | 5.31½ @ ...   | 9½ @ 10  | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 8½ @ 9  | 5.37½ @ 5.26½ | 3½ @ 4½ | 5.45 @ 5.43   |
| Mar'h 31, 8½ @ 8½  | 5.30 @ 5.27½  | 9½ @ 9½  | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 9½ @ 10 | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 3½ @ 4½ | 5.48½ @ 5.45  |
| April 15, 8½ @ 8½  | 5.27½ @ ...   | 9½ @ 9½  | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 9½ @ 9½ | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 5 @ 5½  | 5.43½ @ 5.42½ |
| April 30, 8½ @ 9   | 5.28½ @ 5.27½ | 9 @ 9½   | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 9½ @ 10 | 5.26½ @ ...   | 6 @ 6½  | 5.36½ @ 5.35  |
| May 15, 8½ @ 9     | 5.27½ @ ...   | 9½ @ 9½  | 5.25 @ ...    | 9½ @ 10 | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 6½ @ 7  | 5.32½ @ 5.30  |
| May 31, 8½ @ 9½    | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 9½ @ 10  | 5.25 @ ...    | 8½ @ 9  | 5.35 @ 5.32½  | 6½ @ 7  | 5.31½ @ 5.29½ |
| June 14, 9 @ 9½    | 5.26½ @ ...   | 9½ @ 10  | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 7½ @ 8½ | 5.35 @ 5.32½  | 5½ @ 6½ | 5.33½ @ 5.32½ |
| June 30, 9 @ 9½    | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 9½ @ 10  | 5.20 @ 5.26½  | 7½ @ 8  | 5.36½ @ 5.35  | 5½ @ 6½ | 5.32½ @ 5.31½ |
| July 15, 9½ @ 9½   | 5.27½ @ 5.26½ | 9½ @ 10  | 5.21½ @ 5.20  | 7 @ 7½  | 5.40 @ 5.37½  | 5½ @ 6½ | 5.32½ @ 5.31½ |
| July 31, 9½ @ 9½   | 5.26½ @ 5.25  | 10 @ 10½ | 5.27½ @ 5.25  | 7½ @ 7½ | 5.40 @ 5.37½  | 5½ @ 6½ | 5.33½ @ 5.32½ |
| Aug't 15, 9½ @ 10  | 5.23½ @ 5.22½ | 10 @ 10½ | 5.25 @ ...    | 7½ @ 8  | 5.40 @ 5.37½  | 6 @ 6½  | 5.33½ @ 5.32½ |
| Aug't 30, 9½ @ 10  | 5.22½ @ ...   | 9½ @ 10½ | 5.25 @ 5.23½  | 8½ @ 9  | 5.31½ @ 5.30  | 6½ @ 7  | 5.31½ @ 5.30  |
| Sept'r 8, .....    | .....         | .....    | .....         | .....   | .....         | 8½ @ 9  | 5.26½ @ 5.25  |

It is observable that, during the year 1844, the utmost variation in sterling bills was 1½ per cent, except for the packet of November 15, which was the lowest point for that year, cotton going forward freely after the fall importation had subsided. Throughout the year 1845, the rates were still more uniform. The lowest point was in April, when it stood at 9 a 9½, and the highest in the first week of August, 10 a 10½. For the year 1846, the export of farm produce was greater, and the rate fell gradually from 9½ a 10, in September, to 7 a 7½, the lowest point, in July, when it again advanced, and reached 9 a 9½, in September, to commence the past year. From that time it fell gradually to 3½ a 4½, in April, under very large exports of farm produce, united to high prices of cotton, which kept up the amount to be drawn for notwithstanding the diminished quantity of that article sent forward. Since that time, under the effect of increasing importation of goods, and falling prices of farm produce, together with the usual diminution of cotton bills, as the year drew to a close the price advanced, until the close of August, when the news of the disasters in London, with the dishonor of many bills, caused a rapid demand for the packet of the 1st, as well as a diminution of supply by the amount of the suspected bills. It always happens, however, that the increased supply of bills, based on the new cotton, after the fall importations are done, causes a decline in bills. In 1846, they fell from 9½ a 10, to 8 a 8½, in November; last year, from 9 a 9½, they fell to 5 a 5½. This year, the crop opens at prices much higher than last year, and with favorable prospects of an enhanced consumption. The importations have, however, been larger at this port, being for several years, quarterly, as follows :—



## QUARTERLY IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

|           | 1st.         | 2d.          | 3d.          | 4th.         | Total.       |
|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1839..... | \$28,110,918 | \$22,748,183 | \$31,598,322 | \$14,621,364 | \$97,078,687 |
| 1840..... | 16,940,786   | 10,647,872   | 17,854,920   | 11,402,346   | 56,845,924   |
| 1841..... | 21,938,890   | 18,786,421   | 23,285,626   | 11,312,078   | 75,268,015   |
| 1842..... | 20,687,030   | 18,724,686   | 9,722,287    | 6,251,552    | 55,415,555   |
| 1843..... | 8,705,765    | 16,124,910   | 15,455,745   | 10,022,106   | 50,308,526   |
| 1844..... | 19,030,605   | 19,659,357   | 26,690,218   | 9,860,282    | 75,240,412   |
| 1845..... | 17,393,829   | 16,533,469   | 23,859,702   | 11,545,400   | 69,332,399   |
| 1846..... | 19,684,597   | 17,696,323   | 21,386,014   | 11,502,856   | 70,269,792   |
| 1847..... | 21,655,747   | 28,295,521   | 28,564,796   | .....        | .....        |

The importations at the port of New York, alone, exceed, by \$7,200,000, the amount for the quarter ending September 30, last year; and for the three quarters, the imports have been \$78,516,054, against \$58,766,934—an excess of near \$20,000,000. Of this excess, however, \$9,000,000 has been specie, leaving \$11,000,000 more of goods to be paid for than last year. This process of importing goods instead of specie, increased towards the close of the quarter, and was promoted by the failures referred to, which sent up bills nearly to the specie point.

The high price of silver, in Paris, also allowed of shipments of Mexican dollars and five franc pieces, and some \$200,000 went forward. The latest advices gave the price of Mexican dollars in London 58½d. per ounce, 1,000 weighing about 866 ounces. The price being here par a ¼ premium, the following pro-forma will show the resulting exchange :—

## PRO-FORMA ACCOUNT OF A SHIPMENT OF MEXICAN DOLLARS, FROM NEW YORK TO LONDON.

|                                                         |              |                      |
|---------------------------------------------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| \$10,000, cost at New York ¼ per cent premium.....      |              | \$10,025 00          |
| Shipping charges.....                                   | \$6 60       |                      |
| Marine insurance at ½ per cent, and policy, \$1 25..... | 51 87        |                      |
|                                                         |              | <hr/> 58 47          |
|                                                         |              | <hr/> \$10,083 47    |
| \$10,000, weighing 8,660 ounces, sold at 58½d.....      |              | £2,097 6s. 11d.      |
| Deduct landing charges, portages, &c.....               | £00 15s. 3d. |                      |
| Freight, ⅔ per cent; primage, 5 per cent.....           | 8 4 1        |                      |
| Commission, ½ per cent; brokerage, ⅓ per cent....       | 13 2 2       |                      |
|                                                         |              | <hr/> 22 1 6         |
|                                                         |              | <hr/> £2,075 5s. 5d. |
| Add interest, 63 days, at 5 per cent.....               |              | 17 8 2               |
|                                                         |              | <hr/> £2,093 3s. 7d. |

The above \$10,083 47, drawn against the same, would give an exchange of 108½.

The whole of this great panic and disastrous revulsion, in London, produced little or no influence upon the markets of New York and Boston. No effect, whatever, was apparent, other than the advance indicated in the price of bills under the purchases of houses anxious to protect their bills on the other side. These facts show such strength of position, and such abundance of means on the part of the United States merchants, as affords matter of congratulation, and contrasts favorably with the events ten years ago, when a similar apprehended crisis in London spread bankruptcy throughout the Union. It may be interesting to recall the leading events of that period. The abundant corn harvests, and conse-

quent low prices that had prevailed from 1832 up to 1836, had allowed of the spread of a spirit of great speculation. Joint stock banks multiplied almost without limit; the Bank of England promoted abundance of money to facilitate the negotiation of the government loan of £20,000,000, for West India emancipation; and the plenteousness of capital produced by all these causes had affected the value of credit all over the world. The facilities of credits obtained in London, had promoted the sale of British merchandise on time in all countries, and the United States availed itself freely, not to say recklessly, of these advantages, or, more properly, disadvantages, and the London market was flooded with American paper, corporate, as well as private. The three leading names, viz.: Wildes, Wilson, and Wiggins, had run up enormous obligations on American account, mostly for goods bought in Lancashire, and sold in the interior of the United States on credit, to whomsoever would buy. This general cheapness of money in England, had, notwithstanding the abundance of the harvests, operated unfavorably on exchanges, and the bullion in the bank, which had stood at £10,900,000, October, 1833, gradually and steadily fell to £4,032,000, February, 1837. This great decline continued through years of most abundant harvests, and was solely the result of cheap money in London, or, in other words, England's loaning more capital than she could spare. In the summer of 1836, the low state of bullion and unfavorable exchanges alarmed the bank. Not only had England sold of her own goods largely, on credit to the United States, but she had accepted bills for French silk and wines, bought in those years very largely, and consumed here on credit. The value of silks imported in 1836, was \$22,980,212, against \$5,932,243, in 1830; of wines, \$4,332,034, against \$1,535,102. The aggregate imports were \$189,980,031, against \$70,876,920; an increase of near \$120,000,000, without any material increase in exports. This system was the first to attract the attention of the English bank, and the following letter appeared publicly, addressed by an eminent private house to its correspondents in this country:—

“LONDON, August 20, 1836.

“DEAR SIR—We were informed to-day, by an active, intelligent director of the Bank of England, that more British capital has been absorbed by American and continental houses, than can be spared without injury to the commercial and manufacturing interests of this country; that the directors of the bank have decided that they will take measures to check the sale of such securities by refusing to discount bills of exchange drawn in those countries on houses here, however high may be their standing and credit.

“This decision places all houses in jeopardy that do business with American dealers in British merchandise, because remittances are usually made in bills of exchange on such houses; and if the decision referred to is rigidly enforced, such remittances will be unavailable till due. Under these circumstances, we deem it prudent to state, that we do not feel bound to continue our usual facilities to dealers in British merchandise, and that we reserve to ourselves the right of regulating them according to circumstances. We hope this decision will not be rigidly enforced; and if not, that we shall be able to act with more liberality than we now think probable. It is desirable that our correspondents should be made acquainted with this state of things, that they might be governed by it in making out orders for merchandise the ensuing season, which, we hope, will be unusually small.”

This intimation was carried strictly into effect by the bank, and a large amount of American bills rejected. The same stringent measures of the bank caused a fall in produce, thus diminishing the value of American remittances, and cotton

and other commodities were sold at ruinous losses. The fall was the greater that the general level of prices had been raised on a paper basis. The demand for money, in the United States, to remit to meet rejected drafts, became very urgent, and the rate of discount rose in New York to 3 per cent per month. The inadequate remittances, and fall of produce in England, compelled the leading American houses to apply to the bank for assistance, and finally extensive insolvency resulted both there and here. The circumstances, as respects the Bank of England, are now somewhat similar here. Bullion is running alarmingly low; but it is by buying American produce, not selling goods on credit, that the difficulties have been created. The capital of England was then "absorbed by American and continental houses," through loans and credits; it has now, to a much greater extent, been absorbed in railroads; and it does not appear that it can be liberated for the use of "commercial and manufacturing interests" by any action of the bank. The capital has not been sent out of the country, but has been consumed in it; and American produce, to a large amount, has been sold there, at prices raised high through the large demand and deficient home supply, and not through any purely speculative action. These sales have drawn bullion largely on American account, as well as for the continent. Prices continued very high down to the latest dates; and as the continental harvests were about coming forward, and prices falling in Europe, it is evident that an increased influx of corn and a further drain of bullion would result, unless prices should fall in England. We find that the sudden action of the bank crushed the corn houses, and knocked down prices in the large cities, in a degree that must check imports for the moment, and allow the bank to breathe. Inasmuch, however, as that the English demand is still large for foreign grain, having been at the rate of 12,000,000 bushels per month, for July and August, and the supply of home-grown food for the coming year will by no means suffice for the home consumption, it is reasonable to expect a rally in prices, and that little loss will be sustained after all, by American shippers, who, by protecting their bills, saved the produce from being "slaughtered" in a panic-struck market. Beyond this, a London money pressure does not affect us. One of the leading New York houses, Prime, Ward & Co., unfortunately stopped; but this circumstance was owing not altogether to general causes; and a disastrous result from the course pursued was probably foreseen by James G. King, Esq., who retired from the firm last winter.

The money market has been but little disturbed during the month. In the early part of August the large customs receipts causing a demand for specie for duties, under the supposition that it would be sent to New Orleans for disbursement, promoted a little uneasiness, more particularly that the imports of specie had become small during the week ending August 27th; however, the Secretary of the Treasury effected a transfer of some \$2,000,000 to New Orleans, without being compelled to send the specie, which was abundant at that point. This produced relief, and as the receipts at the custom-house declined subsequently, money became more easy, more particularly that it was understood that whatever might be the continuance or result of the war, specie could be obtained there in sufficient abundance without sending any thither. The city banks, at the August quarter, were, however, considerably extended, and have since "held up," more or less. The leading features of the city banks were as follows:—

## BANKS OF NEW YORK CITY.

|                              | Loans.       | Specie.      | Circulation. | Deposits.    |
|------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| American Exchange Bank.....  | \$3,598,791  | \$870,798    | \$255,061    | \$1,955,853  |
| Bank of America.....         | 3,773,440    | 1,322,945    | 268,437      | 1,926,081    |
| “ Commerce.....              | 4,656,884    | 560,618      | 255,255      | 2,408,646    |
| “ New York.....              | 2,380,913    | 747,954      | 480,182      | 2,093,756    |
| “ State of New York.....     | 3,826,240    | 850,856      | 372,813      | 2,088,244    |
| Butchers' and Drovers'.....  | 1,233,822    | 214,913      | 277,532      | 746,878      |
| Chemical.....                | 1,174,422    | 90,050       | 277,321      | 767,245      |
| City.....                    | 1,766,201    | 317,310      | 196,559      | 1,111,807    |
| Fulton.....                  | 1,644,952    | 210,510      | 244,101      | 973,846      |
| Greenwich.....               | 477,568      | 45,811       | 158,445      | 237,634      |
| Leather Manufacturers'.....  | 1,338,444    | 217,645      | 257,764      | 725,342      |
| Manhattan.....               | 2,286,171    | 368,305      | .....        | 1,221,018    |
| Mechanics'.....              | 3,204,605    | 844,179      | 564,395      | 1,625,866    |
| Mechanics' Association.....  | 484,775      | 185,406      | 362,953      | 461,339      |
| Mechanics' and Traders'..... | 530,500      | 72,072       | 165,436      | 352,232      |
| Merchants'.....              | 3,680,057    | 1,079,327    | 332,906      | 2,477,834    |
| Merchants' Exchange.....     | 1,870,625    | 303,647      | 232,239      | 778,258      |
| National.....                | 1,523,501    | 314,967      | 237,619      | 886,604      |
| Dry Dock.....                | 373,321      | 13,051       | 68,579       | 44,613       |
| North River.....             | 1,318,215    | 162,105      | 416,265      | 919,878      |
| Phoenix.....                 | 2,294,528    | 628,181      | 411,943      | 1,322,107    |
| Seventh Ward.....            | 1,096,988    | 132,498      | 299,601      | 640,577      |
| Tradesmen's.....             | 999,348      | 170,222      | 271,802      | 606,010      |
| Union.....                   | 2,496,678    | 1,046,362    | 432,067      | 1,522,814    |
| City.....                    | \$48,030,987 | \$10,769,732 | \$6,838,475  | \$27,892,482 |
| Country.....                 | 32,709,690   | 1,213,392    | 19,253,208   | 8,888,592    |
| Total.....                   | \$80,740,677 | \$11,983,124 | \$25,091,683 | \$36,781,080 |

If we compare the city banks with a former return, say November, 1846, we will find them greatly extended, as compared with the country banks:—

## CITY BANKS.

|                     | Loans.       | Specie.     | Circulation. | Deposits.    |
|---------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| November, 1846..... | \$38,533,810 | \$7,113,070 | \$6,192,514  | \$22,812,755 |
| August, 1847.....   | 48,030,987   | 10,769,732  | 6,838,475    | 27,892,482   |
| Increase.....       | \$9,497,177  | \$3,656,662 | \$645,961    | \$5,079,727  |

## COUNTRY BANKS.

|                     | Loans.       | Specie.     | Circulation. | Deposits.   |
|---------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| November, 1846..... | \$33,416,381 | \$1,925,314 | \$16,076,008 | \$7,816,441 |
| August, 1847.....   | 32,709,690   | 1,213,392   | 19,253,208   | 8,888,592   |
| Decrease.....       | \$706,691    | \$711,922   | .....        | .....       |
| Increase.....       | .....        | .....       | \$3,177,200  | \$1,072,151 |

The city banks have increased their loans nearly 20 per cent, while a diminution has taken place in those of the country; yet a great increase has taken place in the circulation of the latter. This large amount of city loans produces an extra demand for money, and causes tightness in the market whenever the banks loan less than they receive, and this is always the case when they have reached a maximum.

The cotton crop is now in a position of great health, and promises to become still stronger for the future. That is to say, supply is now barely proportioned to the actual regular consumption of the world in usual years, and the price is not, as in 1836-7, and 1838-9, dependent upon large sales of goods by England, on credit, to sustain its price. On the other hand, the largely diminished consump-



tion of Europe and England last year, under the pressure of short harvests, has not prevented a doubling of the price in Liverpool. For the week ending August 3, 1847, the price was  $6\frac{1}{2}$  a 8 for uplands, and  $6\frac{1}{2}$  per cent for money, against  $3\frac{1}{2}$  a  $5\frac{1}{2}$  for cotton, and  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent for money, in the same week of 1846. The circumstances that checked consumption last year on the continent of Europe, will apply, for the coming year, with far less force; and it is probable that, were the raw material abundant, the quantity taken into use would be far greater than usual, to compensate, in some degree, the short purchases of the last year. It is, however, becoming pretty evident that the new crop will not meet the average quantity; and, therefore, the high prices that may rule will operate as a bar to the renewal of the usual quantity taken by spinners. This is, for the coming year, a misfortune; more particularly in its application to the German States, inasmuch as it may retard that substitution of muslins for coarse linens, which, of late years, has made such rapid progress, and which has chiefly been brought about by the low comparative price at which cottons can be furnished. The Germans consume large quantities of coarse linen cloths, made mostly by hand in the homes of the farmers who raise the flax. In their families it goes through all the operation, from planting the flax to bleaching the cloth. The extension of the cotton manufacture, and the low price of the raw material, have gone a great way towards supplanting those cloths; at least the surplus, which is purchased up by the agents of city merchants, from the small farmers, for the city trade. A high price for the raw material, for two years in succession, will retard this progress, the extent of which is indicated in the following table of articles consumed in the Zollverein, in the year 1845, as compared with the average quantities for the five years ending with 1841:—

|                           | Cotton.<br><i>cwt.</i> | Cotton Yarn.<br><i>cwt.</i> | Tobacco.<br><i>cwt.</i> | Rice.<br><i>cwt.</i> | Whale Oil.<br><i>cwt.</i> | Total.<br><i>cwt.</i> |
|---------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| Average, five years,..... | 200,091                | 352,884                     | 196,351                 | 120,456              | 245,179                   | 1,114,961             |
| 1845.....                 | 443,887                | 574,303                     | 390,383                 | 243,990              | 437,271                   | 2,119,834             |
| Increase.....             | 242,796                | 221,419                     | 194,032                 | 123,534              | 192,092                   | 1,004,873             |

These quantities have nearly doubled, and the value increased from \$14,884,814 to \$26,519,289. The cotton yarn is mostly of English manufacture, and has increased but 60 per cent, while the raw cotton consumption increased some 120 per cent, showing that the progress of cotton spinning has been faster than of cloth manufacture. We recognise the fact, however, that the whole consumption of cotton in the German Union, in 1845, was about equal to 286,428 bales, of 400 pounds each, more than the quantity consumed in the United States in 1842. With a population of 30,000,000 souls, coming rapidly into the use of cotton, there is every reason to suppose that the consumption, at no distant day, will be as large in the German States as in Great Britain.

In relation to the cotton crop of the United States, we annex the annual tables, compiled by the senior partner of the cotton house of Wright & Lewin, of New York:—

STATEMENT SHOWING THE WEEKLY, MONTHLY, AND TOTAL RECEIPTS OF COTTON INTO THE PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THE 1ST SEPTEMBER, 1846, TO 31ST AUGUST, 1847.

| Date.             | N. O.   | Mobile. | Florida. | Georgia. | S. Caro. | N. Caro. | W. Tot.   | M. Tot'l  | Gr. Tot'l. |
|-------------------|---------|---------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| 1846—Sept. 5..... | 454     | 38      | ...      | 670      | 522      | ..       | 1,684     |           | 1,684      |
| " 12.....         | 962     | 149     | ...      | 853      | ...      | ..       | 3,170     |           | 4,854      |
| " 19.....         | 1,610   | 214     | ...      | 1,508    | 2,367    | ..       | 5,699     |           | 10,553     |
| " 26.....         | 2,859   | 706     | ...      | 800      | 2,768    | ..       | 7,193     |           | 17,746     |
| Total Sept.....   | 5,885   | 1,107   | ...      | 3,891    | 6,831    | 32       |           | 17,746    |            |
| Oct. 3.....       | 7,794   | 907     | ...      | 1,419    | 5,828    | 23       | 15,971    |           | 33,717     |
| " 10.....         | 11,615  | 930     | ...      | 1,592    | 6,250    | 24       | 20,411    |           | 54,123     |
| " 17.....         | 15,785  | 707     | 700      | 2,494    | 3,746    | 33       | 23,465    |           | 77,593     |
| " 24.....         | 14,307  | 479     | 507      | 5,952    | 11,140   | 42       | 32,327    |           | 109,920    |
| " 31.....         | 13,856  | 1,879   | 665      | 6,389    | 13,346   | ..       | 36,135    |           | 146,055    |
| Total Oct.....    | 63,257  | 4,902   | 1,872    | 17,846   | 40,310   | 122      |           | 128,309   |            |
| Nov. 7.....       | 23,910  | 1,955   | 350      | 8,781    | 11,601   | 34       | 46,631    |           | 192,685    |
| " 14.....         | 26,661  | 2,961   | 386      | 8,259    | 11,473   | 40       | 49,780    |           | 242,466    |
| " 21.....         | 22,340  | 4,066   | 647      | 8,921    | 16,328   | 76       | 51,588    |           | 294,054    |
| " 28.....         | 23,316  | 6,555   | 892      | 9,731    | 11,876   | 216      | 54,586    |           | 348,640    |
| Total Nov.....    | 98,227  | 15,537  | 2,275    | 34,992   | 51,188   | 366      |           | 202,585   |            |
| Dec. 5.....       | 25,766  | 10,732  | 1,452    | 10,885   | 13,498   | 99       | 62,423    |           | 411,053    |
| " 12.....         | 30,843  | 9,885   | 2,945    | 9,937    | 14,473   | 135      | 68,218    |           | 479,281    |
| " 19.....         | 23,882  | 14,809  | 4,765    | 10,221   | 12,798   | 50       | 66,525    |           | 545,806    |
| " 26.....         | 23,268  | 17,177  | 5,640    | 11,534   | 7,005    | 84       | 64,708    |           | 610,514    |
| Total Dec.....    | 103,759 | 52,603  | 14,802   | 42,577   | 47,774   | 359      |           | 261,874   |            |
| 1847—Jan. 2.....  | 27,049  | 17,797  | 5,641    | 9,400    | 11,208   | 105      | 71,200    |           | 681,714    |
| " 9.....          | 32,867  | 13,678  | 6,862    | 9,456    | 13,642   | 107      | 76,612    |           | 758,326    |
| " 16.....         | 19,915  | 21,451  | 8,604    | 10,537   | 13,046   | 106      | 73,659    |           | 831,985    |
| " 23.....         | 31,221  | 19,768  | 8,392    | 12,762   | 13,250   | 219      | 85,612    |           | 917,597    |
| " 30.....         | 21,751  | 26,031  | 8,833    | 9,091    | 12,852   | 411      | 78,969    |           | 996,566    |
| Total Jan.....    | 132,803 | 98,725  | 38,332   | 51,246   | 63,998   | 948      |           | 386,052   |            |
| Feb. 6.....       | 31,182  | 26,246  | 6,889    | 12,544   | 12,902   | 463      | 90,226    |           | 1,086,792  |
| " 13.....         | 24,226  | 23,560  | 7,780    | 9,221    | 13,665   | 225      | 78,677    |           | 1,165,469  |
| " 20.....         | 27,849  | 16,623  | 6,682    | 9,541    | 11,620   | 358      | 72,673    |           | 1,238,143  |
| " 27.....         | 20,088  | 16,645  | 6,525    | 7,963    | 9,372    | 209      | 60,502    |           | 1,296,944  |
| Total Feb.....    | 103,345 | 83,074  | 27,876   | 39,269   | 47,559   | 1,255    |           | 302,378   |            |
| March 6.....      | 19,519  | 15,556  | 4,148    | 6,184    | 7,503    | 439      | 53,342    |           | 1,352,286  |
| " 13.....         | 10,861  | 7,083   | 2,216    | 4,680    | 4,036    | 319      | 29,195    |           | 1,381,481  |
| " 20.....         | 14,568  | 5,644   | 2,514    | 4,000    | 7,951    | 590      | 35,197    |           | 1,416,678  |
| " 27.....         | 24,296  | 3,730   | 1,813    | 4,915    | 4,839    | 429      | 40,022    |           | 1,456,700  |
| Total March.....  | 69,237  | 32,013  | 10,691   | 19,779   | 24,329   | 1,707    |           | 157,756   |            |
| April 3.....      | 16,736  | 4,699   | 3,571    | 1,109    | 5,127    | 130      | 31,372    |           | 1,488,072  |
| " 10.....         | 8,539   | 5,719   | 4,473    | 1,538    | 6,507    | 126      | 26,802    |           | 1,514,874  |
| " 17.....         | 16,083  | 6,388   | 4,726    | 4,270    | 6,614    | 250      | 38,333    |           | 1,553,307  |
| " 24.....         | 15,040  | 4,284   | 4,567    | 3,747    | 4,576    | 114      | 32,328    |           | 1,585,635  |
| Total April.....  | 56,400  | 21,090  | 17,337   | 10,664   | 22,824   | 620      |           | 122,935   |            |
| May 1.....        | 18,723  | 3,836   | 1,703    | 557      | 5,608    | 97       | 30,524    |           | 1,616,159  |
| " 7.....          | 7,959   | 2,681   | 2,373    | 1,635    | 6,006    | 80       | 20,734    |           | 1,636,893  |
| " 15.....         | 8,787   | 1,722   | 1,772    | 2,523    | 6,627    | 99       | 21,530    |           | 1,658,423  |
| " 22.....         | 4,896   | 1,874   | 1,972    | 1,025    | 6,783    | 65       | 17,515    |           | 1,675,938  |
| " 29.....         | 8,557   | 1,175   | 2,309    | 1,102    | 2,681    | 64       | 15,888    |           | 1,691,826  |
| Total May.....    | 48,922  | 11,288  | 10,129   | 7,742    | 27,705   | 405      |           | 106,191   |            |
| June 5.....       | 3,382   | 380     | 597      | 486      | 2,784    | 60       | 7,689     |           | 1,699,515  |
| " 12.....         | 2,994   | 678     | 402      | 782      | 1,114    | 59       | 6,029     |           | 1,705,544  |
| " 19.....         | 1,872   | 509     | 350      | 203      | 1,372    | 50       | 4,356     |           | 1,709,900  |
| " 26.....         | 3,252   | 263     | 439      | 789      | 1,092    | 39       | 5,874     |           | 1,715,774  |
| Total June.....   | 11,500  | 1,830   | 1,788    | 2,260    | 6,362    | 208      |           | 23,948    |            |
| July 3.....       | 1,835   | 302     | 496      | 189      | 1,559    | ..       | 4,381     |           | 1,720,155  |
| " 10.....         | 796     | 154     | 361      | 172      | 196      | 15       | 1,694     |           | 1,721,849  |
| " 17.....         | 2,169   | 250     | 527      | 528      | 612      | 21       | 4,107     |           | 1,725,956  |
| " 24.....         | 707     | 214     | 439      | 1,008    | 808      | ..       | 3,230     |           | 1,729,186  |
| " 31.....         | 976     | 628     | 466      | 84       | 535      | ..       | 2,689     |           | 1,731,875  |
| Total July.....   | 6,483   | 1,548   | 2,289    | 1,981    | 3,764    | 36       |           | 16,101    |            |
| Aug. 7.....       | 224     | 169     | 461      | 151      | 618      | 3        | 1,626     |           | 1,733,501  |
| " 14.....         | 589     | 189     | ..       | 226      | 1,085    | ..       | 2,089     |           | 1,735,590  |
| " 21.....         | 357     | 146     | ..       | 750      | 4,191    | ..       | 5,444     |           | 1,740,034  |
| " 31.....         | 4,991   | 187     | ..       | 2,088    | 1,662    | ..       | 8,923     |           | 1,749,962  |
| Total Aug.....    | 6,161   | 691     | 461      | 3,215    | 7,556    | 3        |           | 18,087    |            |
| Grand Total....   | 705,979 | 324,408 | 127,852  | 235,462  | 350,200  | 6,061    | 1,749,962 | 1,749,962 |            |

The crop of Texas is this year, it appears, but 8,317 bales, against 27,008 bales last year, and 25,159 bales in that previous.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON, FOR ALL PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES, AS MADE UP IN NEW YORK ON THE 1ST OF EACH MONTH, FOR THE YEARS 1846-47, AND 1845-46.

| Date.        | Receipts from 1st Sep'ber, 1846. | Receipts from 1st Sep'ber, 1845. | To Great Britain. | France. | EXPORTS.         |                      | Total from 1st Sep. 1846, to date. | Total from 1st Sep. 1845, to date. |
|--------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|---------|------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
|              |                                  |                                  |                   |         | North of Europe. | Other Foreign Ports. |                                    |                                    |
| 1846.        |                                  |                                  |                   |         |                  |                      |                                    |                                    |
| October 1,   | 14,189                           | 44,763                           | 9,350             | 4,633   | 2,809            | 1,956                | 18,753                             | 28,645                             |
| Nov. 1,....  | 102,800                          | 175,376                          | 17,288            | 13,760  | 4,672            | 6,418                | 42,138                             | 96,266                             |
| Dec. 2,....  | 317,485                          | 413,689                          | 50,992            | 42,228  | 7,187            | 10,048               | 110,455                            | 223,520                            |
| 1847.        |                                  |                                  |                   |         |                  |                      |                                    |                                    |
| Jan. 1,....  | 568,909                          | 605,604                          | 124,381           | 63,477  | 12,033           | 24,689               | 224,580                            | 371,088                            |
| Feb. 2,....  | 927,249                          | 891,352                          | 221,524           | 100,747 | 18,132           | 43,444               | 363,847                            | 489,891                            |
| March 2,...  | 1,248,606                        | 1,190,584                        | 317,537           | 117,523 | 23,735           | 47,492               | 506,287                            | 597,168                            |
| April 1,.... | 1,426,102                        | 1,516,131                        | 436,674           | 137,317 | 33,028           | 56,442               | 665,461                            | 823,703                            |
| May 4,...    | 1,603,721                        | 1,806,230                        | 561,098           | 183,392 | 38,898           | 72,980               | 856,368                            | 1,010,158                          |
| June 1,..... | 1,696,120                        | 1,960,778                        | 621,415           | 193,678 | 47,888           | 82,652               | 945,633                            | 1,191,076                          |
| July 1,..... | 1,733,187                        | 2,010,159                        | 680,740           | 205,023 | 55,478           | 83,803               | 1,025,044                          | 1,400,652                          |
| Aug. 3,..... | 1,751,651                        | 2,047,349                        | 752,875           | 217,729 | 62,871           | 89,571               | 1,123,046                          | 1,570,751                          |
| Sept'ber 1   | 1,767,084                        | 2,082,176                        | 815,661           | 239,018 | 74,354           | 93,150               | 1,222,183                          | 1,654,832                          |

ESTIMATED SALES OF COTTON IN NEW YORK—PRICES—RATE OF FREIGHT.

| Date.     | Sales. | 1845-6.        |               | Freight to Liverpool. sq. rd. | Sales. | 1846-7.        |               | Freight to Liverpool. sq. rd. |
|-----------|--------|----------------|---------------|-------------------------------|--------|----------------|---------------|-------------------------------|
|           |        | Fair Up'lands. | Fair Orleans. |                               |        | Fair Up'lands. | Fair Orleans. |                               |
| Sept. 15, | 12,600 | 8½a8½          | 8½a9          | 1-4 5-16                      | 9,500  | 9½a 9½         | 9½a10         | 3-16 1-4                      |
| 30,       | 20,000 | 8½a8½          | 9 a9½         | 1-4 5-16                      | 23,500 | 9½a10          | 10 a10½       | 3-16 3-16                     |
| Oct. 14,  | 20,000 | 8½a8½          | 9 a9½         | 3-8 7-16                      | 25,000 | 10 a10½        | 10½a...       | 3-16 3-16                     |
| 31,       | 15,000 | 8½a8½          | 8½a9          | 3-8 7-16                      | 30,000 | 10½a10½        | 10½a10½       | 1-4 5-16                      |
| Nov. 15,  | 10,000 | 7½a7½          | 8½a8½         | 5-16 3-8                      | 12,000 | 10 a10½        | 10½a10½       | 3-8 1-2                       |
| 29,       | 14,000 | 7½a7½          | 8½a8½         | 5-16 3-8                      | 15,000 | 9½a10          | 10 a10½       | 7-16 5-8                      |
| Dec. 15,  | 11,000 | 8 a8½          | 8½a9          | 3-16 1-4                      | 24,000 | 10½a10½        | 10½a11        | 3-8 7-16                      |
| 31,       | 7,500  | 7½a8           | 8½a8½         | 3-16 3-16                     | 20,000 | 11 a11½        | 11½a...       | 3-8 3-8                       |
| Jan. 15,  | 6,000  | 7½a7½          | 8½a8½         | 3-16 3-16                     | 25,500 | 11½a12         | 12 a12½       | 3-8 7-16                      |
| 31,       | 8,000  | 7½a7½          | 8½a8½         | 3-16 1-4                      | 33,500 | 13½a13½        | 13½a14        | 3-8 3-8                       |
| Feb. 16,  | 12,500 | 7½a7½          | 8½a8½         | 1-4 5-16                      | 18,000 | 12½a12½        | 12½a13        | 3-8 3-8                       |
| 28,       | 17,000 | 8 a8½          | 8½a9          | 1-4 5-16                      | 7,500  | 10½a11         | 12 a12½       | 3-4 1d.                       |
| Mar. 14,  | 14,000 | 8½a8½          | 9 a9½         | 1-4 5-16                      | 23,000 | 11½a11½        | 12½a13        | 5-8 3-4                       |
| 31,       | 10,000 | 8½a8½          | 9½a9½         | 3-16 3-16                     | 16,000 | 12 a12½        | 13 a13½       | 3-8 1-2                       |
| April 15, | 13,000 | 8 a8½          | 9 a9½         | 3-16 1-4                      | 11,000 | 12 a12½        | 13 a13½       | 3-8 1-2                       |
| 30,       | 13,000 | 8½a8½          | 9½a9½         | 1-4 5-16                      | 13,000 | 13 a13½        | 13½a14½       | 3-16 1-4                      |
| May 15,   | 23,000 | 8 a8½          | 8½a9          | 5-16 3-8                      | 12,000 | 13 a13½        | 13½a14        | 3-16 1-4                      |
| 30,       | 20,000 | 8 a8½          | 8½a9          | 3-8 1-2                       | 6,000  | 12½a12½        | 13½a13½       | 3-16 1-4                      |
| June 15,  | 30,000 | 8 a8½          | 8½a9          | 3-8 1-2                       | 7,500  | 12 a12½        | 12½a13        | 3-16 1-4                      |
| 30,       | 13,000 | 8 a8½          | 8½a9          | 1-4 5-16                      | 9,500  | 12½a12½        | 13 a13½       | 1-4 5-16                      |
| July 15,  | 12,500 | 8 a8½          | 9½a9          | 7-32 5-16                     | 8,000  | 12½a12½        | 12½a13        | 5-16 3-8                      |
| 30,       | 15,000 | 8½a8½          | 9 a9½         | 3-16 5-16                     | 22,500 | 12½a12½        | 13 a13½       | 7-16 9-16                     |
| Aug. 15,  | 12,000 | 8½a9           | 9½a9½         | 3-16 5-16                     | 24,500 | 13 a13½        | 13½a13½       | 1-4 3-8                       |
| 31,       | 25,000 | 9½a9½          | 9½a10         | 1-4 5-16                      | 20,000 | 12½a13         | 13 a13½       | 1-8 3-16                      |

This table presents a remarkable advance in prices as the certainty of a short crop developed itself, amid advancing freights, enormous prices, and threatened revulsions in the money market of England. In 1846, the fluctuation in freights was from 1-4 to 5-16. This year, square bales have fluctuated between 1-4 and 3-4, and round bales 1-4 a 1d. The prices have closed as follows, in New York:—

|                 | 1844.   |              | 1845.   |              | 1846.         |              | 1847.          |                  |
|-----------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|
|                 | Upl'ds. | Mob. & N. O. | Upl'ds. | Mob. & N. O. | Upl'ds.       | Mob. & N. O. | Upl'ds.        | Mobile and N. O. |
| Inferior,.....  | 4½a4½   | 4½a4½        | ..a6½   | ..a6½        | none.         | none.        | 10½a11         | 10½a11½          |
| Ordinary,.....  | 5 a5½   | 5½a5½        | 6½a6½   | 6½a6½        | 7½a7½         | 7½a8         | 11½a11½        | 11½a11½          |
| Middling,.....  | 5½a6    | 5½a6½        | 7 a7½   | 7½a7½        | 8 a8½         | 8½a8½        | 11½a11½        | 11½a11½          |
| Good do.,.....  | 6½a6½   | 6½a6½        | 7½a7½   | 7½a7½        | 8½a8½         | 8½a9         | 11½a12         | 12 a12½          |
| Midd. Fair,.... | 6½a6½   | 7 a7½        | 7½a8    | 8 a8½        | 8½a9          | 9½a9½        | 12½a12½        | 12½a12½          |
| Fair,.....      | 6½a7½   | 7½a7½        | 8½a8½   | 8½a8½        | 9½a9½         | 9½a10        | 12½a12½        | 13 a13½          |
| Fully Fair,.... | 7½a7½   | 7½a8         | 8½a8½   | 9 a9½        | 9½a... 10½a11 | 10½a11       | 13 a13½        | 13½a14           |
| Good Fair,....  | 7½a8    | 8½a9         | 9 a9½   | 10 a11       | none.         | 11½a12       | 13½a... 14½a15 | 14½a15           |
| Fine,.....      | .....   | .....        | none.   | none.        | none.         | 12½a13       | none.          | nominal.         |

These rates are nearly double what they were for the year 1844. The following table gives the import and export at this port:—

MONTHLY IMPORT OF COTTON INTO NEW YORK, FROM SEPT. 1, 1846, TO AUG. 31, 1847.

|                  | N. Orl's. | Mobile. | Florida. | Georgia. | S. Caro. | N. Caro. | Virginia. | Bal., etc. | Boston. | Texas. | Orh. for ports. | Gr. total. |  |
|------------------|-----------|---------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|------------|---------|--------|-----------------|------------|--|
| 1846—September.. | 2,576     | 1,251   | 250      | 3,444    | 5,331    | 55       | 109       | 68         | 818     | 20     | 14,202          |            |  |
| October.....     | 2,198     | 453     | ...      | 5,238    | 6,872    | 99       | 200       | ...        | 488     | 10     | 15,568          |            |  |
| November.....    | 2,849     | 492     | 1,599    | 9,996    | 9,860    | 205      | 10        | ...        | 659     | 10     | 25,680          |            |  |
| December.....    | 4,633     | 1,873   | 3,571    | 4,963    | 12,846   | 550      | 20        | ...        | 626     | ...    | 29,082          |            |  |
| 1847—January.... | 4,713     | 3,454   | 4,368    | 4,256    | 8,836    | 908      | 102       | ...        | 566     | ...    | 27,203          |            |  |
| February.....    | 3,844     | 2,432   | 4,858    | 7,500    | 19,896   | 1,522    | 8         | 10         | 1,326   | ...    | 41,396          |            |  |
| March.....       | 9,059     | 6,039   | 3,688    | 6,215    | 11,605   | 1,320    | ...       | ...        | 746     | ...    | 38,672          |            |  |
| April.....       | 3,955     | 5,412   | 3,863    | 3,080    | 4,134    | 745      | 104       | ...        | 293     | 14     | 21,600          |            |  |
| May.....         | 3,452     | 5,294   | 4,681    | 5,276    | 7,605    | 288      | ...       | 103        | ...     | 610    | ...             | 27,309     |  |
| June.....        | 2,187     | 5,153   | 2,612    | 2,543    | 5,584    | 130      | 62        | ...        | 696     | 126    | 19,093          |            |  |
| July.....        | 6,463     | 5,888   | 7,544    | 6,728    | 4,853    | 36       | ...       | ...        | ...     | ...    | 31,512          |            |  |
| August.....      | 7,847     | 3,913   | 3,009    | 2,525    | 1,905    | 3        | 74        | 234        | ...     | 531    | ...             | 20,101     |  |
| Total.....       | 54,076    | 41,654  | 40,103   | 61,764   | 99,327   | 5,861    | 380       | 656        | 68      | 7,359  | 170             | 311,418    |  |

STATEMENT SHOWING THE MONTHLY EXPORT OF COTTON FROM NEW YORK, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1846, TO AUGUST 31, 1847.

| Date.            | Liverpool. | Scot-land. | Other British ports. | Total to Great Britain. | Havre. | Mar-seilles. | Other French ports. | Total to France. |
|------------------|------------|------------|----------------------|-------------------------|--------|--------------|---------------------|------------------|
| Sept., 1846..... | 4,337      | ...        | 3                    | 4,090                   | 4,554  | 384          | ...                 | 4,938            |
| Oct., ".....     | 1,383      | ...        | ...                  | 1,383                   | 3,245  | 1,283        | ...                 | 4,528            |
| Nov., ".....     | 6,647      | 160        | 270                  | 7,077                   | 3,575  | 758          | ...                 | 4,333            |
| Dec., ".....     | 11,486     | 60         | 100                  | 11,646                  | 4,165  | ...          | 50                  | 4,215            |
| Jan., 1847.....  | 3,740      | 261        | ...                  | 4,001                   | 2,285  | 637          | 404                 | 3,326            |
| Feb., ".....     | 3,089      | 146        | ...                  | 3,235                   | 1,868  | ...          | ...                 | 1,868            |
| March, ".....    | 5,117      | ...        | 184                  | 5,301                   | 3,454  | ...          | ...                 | 3,454            |
| April, ".....    | 1,960      | 15         | ...                  | 1,975                   | 1,354  | ...          | ...                 | 1,354            |
| May, ".....      | 982        | ...        | ...                  | 982                     | ...    | ...          | ...                 | ...              |
| June, ".....     | 6,521      | ...        | ...                  | 1,521                   | 337    | 110          | ...                 | 447              |
| July, ".....     | 5,508      | ...        | ...                  | 5,508                   | 2,722  | ...          | ...                 | 2,722            |
| Aug., ".....     | 6,822      | 97         | ...                  | 6,919                   | 9,142  | 471          | ...                 | 9,613            |
| Total.....       | 52,342     | 739        | 557                  | 53,638                  | 36,701 | 3,643        | 454                 | 40,798           |

| Date.            | Holland. | Belgium. | North of Europe. | Total to North of Europe. | South of Europe. | Grand total. |
|------------------|----------|----------|------------------|---------------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Sept., 1846..... | 501      | 750      | 1,558            | 2,809                     | 1,199            | 13,036       |
| Oct., ".....     | 140      | 211      | 1,832            | 2,183                     | 606              | 8,700        |
| Nov., ".....     | 50       | 1,355    | 549              | 1,954                     | 57               | 13,421       |
| Dec., ".....     | 218      | 1,590    | 1,122            | 2,930                     | 1,804            | 20,595       |
| Jan., 1847.....  | ...      | 782      | 294              | 1,076                     | 2,924            | 11,327       |
| Feb., ".....     | 344      | 747      | 855              | 1,946                     | 1,131            | 8,180        |
| March, ".....    | 851      | 319      | 1,735            | 2,905                     | ...              | 11,660       |
| April, ".....    | 419      | 1,018    | 879              | 2,316                     | ...              | 5,645        |
| May, ".....      | 138      | 666      | 2,422            | 3,226                     | ...              | 4,208        |
| June, ".....     | 152      | 124      | 218              | 494                       | ...              | 2,462        |
| July, ".....     | 151      | 239      | 944              | 1,334                     | 277              | 9,841        |
| Aug., ".....     | 279      | 3,876    | 4,746            | 8,901                     | ...              | 25,433       |
| Total.....       | 3,243    | 11,677   | 17,154           | 32,074                    | 7,998            | 134,508      |



THE FOLLOWING TABLE GIVES THE WEEKLY RECEIPTS OF COTTON, THE MONTHLY AND GRAND TOTALS, AT THE END OF EACH WEEK, FOR FOUR YEARS.

| Date.            | 1844.   |           | 1845.   |           | 1846.   |           | 1847.   |                     |           |
|------------------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|---------------------|-----------|
|                  | W. Tot. | Gr. Tot.  | W. Tot. | Gr. Tot.  | W. Tot. | Gr. Tot.  | W. Tot. | M. Tot <sup>1</sup> | Gr. Tot.  |
| September 5..... | 4,578   | 4,578     | 6,878   | 6,878     | 10,032  | 10,032    | 1,684   |                     | 1,684     |
| " 12.....        | 4,361   | 8,939     | 11,798  | 18,676    | 13,048  | 23,080    | 3,170   |                     | 4,854     |
| " 19.....        | 8,463   | 17,402    | 11,845  | 30,521    | 19,633  | 42,713    | 5,699   |                     | 10,553    |
| " 26.....        | 12,994  | 30,396    | 25,474  | 55,995    | 19,701  | 62,414    | 7,193   |                     | 17,746    |
| Total Sept.....  | 30,396  |           | 55,995  |           | 62,414  |           |         | 17,746              |           |
| October 3.....   | 23,492  | 53,888    | 23,823  | 79,818    | 23,173  | 85,587    | 15,971  |                     | 33,717    |
| " 10.....        | 23,339  | 77,227    | 31,956  | 111,774   | 24,908  | 110,495   | 20,411  |                     | 54,128    |
| " 17.....        | 36,981  | 114,208   | 29,969  | 141,743   | 37,827  | 148,322   | 23,465  |                     | 77,593    |
| " 24.....        | 37,739  | 151,947   | 37,519  | 179,262   | 49,559  | 197,881   | 32,327  |                     | 109,920   |
| " 31.....        | 42,447  | 194,394   | 48,547  | 227,809   | 49,656  | 247,537   | 36,135  |                     |           |
| Total Oct.....   | 121,551 |           | 123,267 |           | 135,467 |           |         | 128,309             | 146,055   |
| November 7.....  | 44,227  | 238,621   | 43,470  | 271,979   | 47,757  | 295,294   | 46,631  |                     | 192,685   |
| " 14.....        | 51,600  | 290,221   | 49,684  | 320,063   | 55,424  | 350,718   | 49,780  |                     | 242,466   |
| " 21.....        | 53,658  | 343,879   | 57,905  | 378,868   | 48,758  | 399,476   | 51,588  |                     | 294,054   |
| " 28.....        | 64,962  | 408,841   | 73,459  | 452,327   | 45,652  | 445,128   | 54,586  |                     | 348,640   |
| Total Nov.....   | 191,932 |           | 273,065 |           | 247,247 |           |         | 202,585             |           |
| December 5.....  | 71,752  | 480,533   | 85,451  | 537,778   | 44,464  | 489,592   | 62,423  |                     | 411,063   |
| " 12.....        | 82,723  | 563,316   | 73,561  | 611,339   | 41,192  | 530,784   | 68,218  |                     | 479,281   |
| " 19.....        | 70,248  | 633,564   | 90,325  | 701,664   | 54,997  | 585,781   | 66,525  |                     | 545,806   |
| " 26.....        | 64,520  | 698,084   | 80,089  | 731,753   | 62,069  | 647,850   | 64,708  |                     | 610,514   |
| Total Dec.....   | 354,205 |           | 329,426 |           | 202,722 |           |         | 261,874             |           |
| January 2.....   | 66,305  | 764,389   | 55,194  | 836,947   | 52,060  | 699,910   | 71,200  |                     | 681,714   |
| " 9.....         | 66,082  | 830,471   | 42,566  | 879,513   | 66,016  | 756,926   | 76,612  |                     | 758,326   |
| " 16.....        | 52,475  | 882,946   | 68,126  | 947,639   | 62,684  | 828,010   | 73,659  |                     | 831,985   |
| " 23.....        | 67,115  | 950,061   | 80,951  | 1,028,590 | 55,692  | 883,702   | 85,612  |                     | 917,597   |
| " 30.....        | 62,578  | 1,012,630 | 92,576  | 1,121,166 | 74,922  | 958,624   | 78,969  |                     | 996,566   |
| Total Jan.....   | 251,997 |           | 339,413 |           | 310,774 |           |         | 386,052             |           |
| February 6.....  | 77,317  | 1,089,956 | 105,358 | 1,326,534 | 84,555  | 1,043,179 | 90,226  |                     | 1,086,792 |
| " 13.....        | 82,391  | 1,172,347 | 116,773 | 1,343,297 | 75,719  | 1,118,898 | 78,677  |                     | 1,163,469 |
| " 20.....        | 81,144  | 1,253,491 | 124,909 | 1,468,206 | 69,824  | 1,188,722 | 72,673  |                     | 1,238,142 |
| " 27.....        | 75,367  | 1,328,858 | 109,799 | 1,578,005 | 82,396  | 1,371,118 | 60,802  |                     | 1,298,944 |
| Total Feb.....   | 303,430 |           | 456,839 |           | 312,494 |           |         | 302,378             |           |
| March 6.....     | 78,446  | 1,407,394 | 101,087 | 1,679,092 | 68,788  | 1,336,906 | 53,342  |                     | 1,352,286 |
| " 13.....        | 60,988  | 1,468,292 | 83,569  | 1,762,661 | 82,871  | 1,419,777 | 29,195  |                     | 1,381,481 |
| " 20.....        | 62,943  | 1,521,235 | 78,780  | 1,841,441 | 68,371  | 1,488,148 | 35,197  |                     | 1,416,678 |
| " 27.....        | 54,948  | 1,586,183 | 66,126  | 1,907,567 | 67,531  | 1,555,679 | 40,022  |                     | 1,456,700 |
| Total March..... | 332,692 |           | 329,562 |           | 284,561 |           |         | 157,756             |           |
| April 3.....     | 68,279  | 1,654,462 | 91,066  | 1,998,633 | 60,954  | 1,616,633 | 31,372  |                     | 1,488,672 |
| " 10.....        | 51,352  | 1,705,814 | 62,565  | 2,061,198 | 50,995  | 1,667,628 | 26,902  |                     | 1,514,974 |
| " 17.....        | 41,923  | 1,747,737 | 63,614  | 2,124,812 | 55,325  | 1,722,956 | 38,333  |                     | 1,553,307 |
| " 24.....        | 43,243  | 1,790,980 | 42,861  | 2,167,673 | 59,317  | 1,782,273 | 32,328  |                     | 1,585,635 |
| Total April..... | 204,797 |           | 260,106 |           | 226,594 |           |         | 128,935             |           |
| May 1.....       | 33,688  | 1,824,668 | 37,745  | 2,205,418 | 50,973  | 1,833,246 | 30,524  |                     | 1,616,159 |
| " 7.....         | 41,762  | 1,866,430 | 29,818  | 2,235,236 | 31,776  | 1,865,022 | 20,734  |                     | 1,636,893 |
| " 15.....        | 20,600  | 1,887,030 | 29,321  | 2,264,557 | 43,452  | 1,908,474 | 21,530  |                     | 1,658,423 |
| " 22.....        | 21,660  | 1,908,690 | 25,725  | 2,290,282 | 31,791  | 1,940,265 | 17,515  |                     | 1,678,938 |
| " 29.....        | 18,573  | 1,927,263 | 21,670  | 2,311,952 | 18,755  | 1,959,020 | 15,888  |                     | 1,691,826 |
| Total May.....   | 117,710 |           | 144,279 |           | 176,747 |           |         | 106,191             |           |
| June 5.....      | 14,118  | 1,941,381 | 12,416  | 2,324,368 | 10,905  | 1,969,925 | 7,689   |                     | 1,699,515 |
| " 12.....        | 12,200  | 1,953,581 | 11,332  | 2,335,700 | 9,483   | 1,979,408 | 6,029   |                     | 1,705,544 |
| " 19.....        | 8,341   | 1,961,922 | 6,023   | 2,341,723 | 6,387   | 1,985,795 | 4,356   |                     | 1,709,900 |
| " 26.....        | 8,512   | 1,970,434 | 5,431   | 2,347,154 | 6,725   | 1,992,520 | 5,874   |                     | 1,715,774 |
| Total June.....  | 61,744  |           | 35,202  |           | 33,500  |           |         | 23,948              |           |
| July 3.....      | 6,979   | 1,977,413 | 11,513  | 2,358,667 | 13,966  | 2,006,486 | 4,381   |                     | 1,720,155 |
| " 10.....        | 3,923   | 1,981,336 | 9,023   | 2,367,690 | 6,646   | 2,013,132 | 1,694   |                     | 1,721,849 |
| " 17.....        | 3,709   | 1,985,045 | 7,839   | 2,375,529 | 4,650   | 2,017,791 | 4,107   |                     | 1,725,956 |
| " 24.....        | 4,962   | 1,989,307 | 5,652   | 2,381,181 | 6,108   | 2,023,899 | 3,230   |                     | 1,729,185 |
| " 31.....        | 3,495   | 1,992,802 | 3,006   | 2,384,187 | 7,693   | 2,031,592 | 2,689   |                     | 1,731,875 |
| Total July.....  | 18,873  |           | 34,027  |           | 31,379  |           |         | 16,101              |           |
| August 7.....    | 2,586   | 1,995,388 | 1,691   | 2,385,878 | 4,938   | 2,036,530 | 1,626   |                     | 1,733,501 |
| " 14.....        | 5,921   | 2,001,309 | 2,654   | 2,388,532 | 4,694   | 2,041,224 | 2,089   |                     | 1,735,590 |
| " 21.....        | 3,711   | 2,005,020 | 3,018   | 2,391,550 | 3,491   | 2,044,715 | 5,444   |                     | 1,740,034 |
| " 28.....        | 4,569   | 2,009,589 | 13,932  | 2,405,482 | 13,460  | 2,058,175 | 8,928   |                     | 1,749,962 |
| Total Aug.....   | 20,982  |           | 24,301  |           | 34,276  |           |         | 18,087              |           |

# COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## TRADE AND COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

THE ANNUAL STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

THE "New Orleans Prices Current and Commercial Intelligencer," of Sept. 1, 1847, contains, as usual, the annual statement of the commerce of that city, prepared with the usual skill and accuracy; and, agreeably to our custom, we proceed to lay it before the readers of the "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE," in as condensed a form as the nature of the subject will admit. Similar accounts of the trade and commerce of New Orleans for previous years, from 1831 to the present time, will be found in this Magazine, Vol. II., p. 349; Vol. IV., p. 388; Vol. V., p. 471; Vol. VII., p. 390; Vol. IX., p. 568; Vol. XI., p. 415; Vol. XIII., p. 369; Vol. XV., p. 404; etc.

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM NEW ORLEANS, FOR SIX YEARS, COMMENCING ON THE 1ST OF SEPTEMBER, AND ENDING ON THE 31ST OF AUGUST.

*Cotton.—Bales.*

| Whither exported.           | 1846-7. | 1845-6.   | 1844-5. | 1843-4. | 1842-3.   | 1841-2. |
|-----------------------------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|
| Liverpool,.....             | 367,810 | 521,953   | 529,675 | 488,817 | 62,481    | 393,990 |
| London,.....                | 48      | 159       | 2,025   | 518     | 61        | 38      |
| Glasgow and Greenock,...    | 10,598  | 17,893    | 36,213  | 21,263  | 35,831    | 15,574  |
| Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,...    | 6,102   | 8,134     | 17,975  | 14,895  | 15,939    | 10,740  |
| Cork, Belfast, &c.,.....    | 810     | 14,181    | .....   | 2,182   | 2,926     | 1,108   |
| Havre,.....                 | 90,103  | 146,153   | 112,995 | 107,973 | 159,658   | 161,103 |
| Bordeaux,.....              | 330     | 2,315     | 2,314   | 1,418   | 2,861     | 2,247   |
| Marseilles,.....            | 3,323   | 6,806     | 7,857   | 7,462   | 9,982     | 16,992  |
| Nantz, Cete, and Rouen,     | 1,963   | 4,254     | 1,854   | 3,127   | 8,374     | 2,930   |
| Amsterdam,.....             | .....   | 2,019     | 1,253   | 1,360   | 2,593     | 584     |
| Rotterdam and Ghent,...     | 595     | 53        | 2,355   | 512     | 2,173     | 2,907   |
| Bremen,.....                | 4,369   | 3,419     | 9,211   | 2,770   | 13,303    | 6,369   |
| Antwerp, &c.,.....          | 2,912   | 7,838     | 7,196   | 8,499   | 17,693    | 5,209   |
| Hamburg,.....               | 7,466   | 3,585     | 9,123   | 3,156   | 13,664    | 5,678   |
| Gottenburg,.....            | 4,376   | 3,877     | 1,630   | 402     | 114       | 286     |
| Spain and Gibraltar,.....   | 17,705  | 1,679     | 821     | .....   | 401       | 78      |
| Havana, Mexico, &c.,...     | 9,376   | 29,800    | 62,083  | 33,151  | 21,177    | 12,818  |
| Genoa, Trieste, &c.,.....   | 30,542  | 52,607    | 27,201  | 19,704  | 17,662    | 10,610  |
| China,.....                 | .....   | .....     | 2,353   | .....   | 4,303     | .....   |
| Other foreign ports,.....   | 6,579   | 8,050     | 2,267   | 1,208   | 1,342     | 174     |
| New York,.....              | 25,187  | 74,757    | 52,880  | 82,814  | 48,036    | 31,215  |
| Boston,.....                | 75,546  | 111,666   | 75,357  | 72,400  | 73,891    | 54,062  |
| Providence, R. I.,.....     | 470     | 5,783     | 78      | 211     | 674       | 1,910   |
| Philadelphia,.....          | 13,582  | 13,690    | 6,784   | 6,919   | 3,253     | 2,846   |
| Baltimore,.....             | 7,288   | 5,507     | 3,640   | 4,698   | 3,278     | 1,703   |
| Portsmouth,.....            | 3,491   | 2,769     | 1,053   | 4,136   | .....     | 2,658   |
| Other coastwise ports,..... | 1,437   | 910       | 2,423   | 3,280   | 3,000     | 3,716   |
| Western States,.....        | 2,500   | 5,000     | 6,000   | 2,500   | 2,000     | 1,722   |
| Total,.....                 | 724,508 | 1,054,857 | 984,616 | 895,375 | 1,088,870 | 749,267 |

### RECAPITULATION.

| Whither exported.          | 1846-7. | 1845-6.   | 1844-5. | 1843-4. | 1842-3.   | 1841-2. |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|
| Great Britain,.....        | 385,368 | 562,320   | 585,888 | 527,675 | 679,438   | 421,450 |
| France,.....               | 95,719  | 159,528   | 125,020 | 119,980 | 180,875   | 183,272 |
| North of Europe,.....      | 26,297  | 28,841    | 33,035  | 17,907  | 50,882    | 21,207  |
| S. of Europe and China,... | 57,623  | 84,086    | 92,458  | 52,855  | 43,543    | 23,506  |
| Coastwise,.....            | 159,501 | 220,082   | 148,215 | 176,958 | 134,132   | 99,832  |
| Total,.....                | 724,508 | 1,054,857 | 984,616 | 895,375 | 1,088,870 | 749,267 |

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM NEW ORLEANS, FOR SIX YEARS, COMMENCING ON THE 1ST OF SEPTEMBER, AND ENDING ON THE 31ST OF AUGUST.

## Tobacco.—Hogsheads.

| Whither exported.             | 1846-7. | 1845-6. | 1844-5. | 1843-4. | 1842-3. | 1841-2. |
|-------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Liverpool,.....               | 3,374   | 8,976   | 4,947   | 8,808   | 6,788   | 6,930   |
| London,.....                  | 5,173   | 12,888  | 6,475   | 8,291   | 9,851   | 7,212   |
| Glasgow and Greenock,...      | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,...      | 1,148   | 2,641   | 1,131   | 5,424   | 10,798  | 6,827   |
| Cork, Belfast, &c.,.....      | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Havre,.....                   | 1,159   | 2,215   | 3,514   | 4,846   | 4,648   | 4,037   |
| Bordeaux,.....                | 242     | 1,067   | 1,565   | 1,156   | 2,332   | 1,004   |
| Marseilles,.....              | 2,096   | 1,006   | 3,934   | 5,102   | 4,665   | 1,933   |
| Nantz, Cette, and Rouen,..... | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Amsterdam,.....               | .....   | 451     | 50      | 3,775   | 2,700   | 1,138   |
| Rotterdam and Ghent,...       | 568     | 1,104   | 1,014   | 917     | 2,933   | 1,882   |
| Bremen,.....                  | 4,446   | 6,328   | 12,012  | 9,602   | 7,888   | 8,997   |
| Antwerp, &c.,.....            | 1,652   | 4,294   | 3,862   | 2,178   | 5,657   | 3,690   |
| Hamburg,.....                 | 403     | 181     | 786     | 2,303   | 1,477   | 3,401   |
| Gottenburg,.....              | 949     | 943     | 909     | 734     | 963     | 946     |
| Spain and Gibraltar,.....     | 11,795  | 9,843   | 6,749   | 10,681  | 4,496   | 7,204   |
| Havana, Mexico, &c.,...       | .....   | .....   | 903     | 1,601   | 1,063   | 981     |
| Genoa, Trieste, &c.,.....     | 5,046   | 2,375   | 3,001   | 1,556   | 1,760   | 550     |
| China,.....                   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Other foreign ports,.....     | 1,008   | 298     | 794     | 1,177   | 217     | 516     |
| New York,.....                | 5,458   | 4,848   | 6,936   | 6,960   | 10,533  | 7,090   |
| Boston,.....                  | 2,664   | 913     | 4,938   | 2,585   | 3,650   | 2,351   |
| Providence, R. I.,.....       | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Philadelphia,.....            | 2,779   | 1,030   | 2,536   | 1,286   | 2,845   | 936     |
| Baltimore,.....               | 301     | 427     | 478     | 1,167   | 2,433   | 208     |
| Portsmouth,.....              | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Other coastwise ports,....    | 115     | 217     | 2,145   | 1,100   | 2,194   | 225     |
| Western States,.....          | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Total,.....                   | 50,376  | 62,045  | 68,679  | 81,249  | 89,891  | 68,058  |

## RECAPITULATION.

| Whither exported.          | 1846-7. | 1845-6. | 1844-5. | 1843-4. | 1842-3. | 1841-2. |
|----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Great Britain,.....        | 9,695   | 24,505  | 12,553  | 22,523  | 27,437  | 20,969  |
| France,.....               | 3,497   | 4,288   | 9,013   | 11,104  | 11,645  | 6,974   |
| North of Europe,.....      | 8,018   | 13,301  | 19,051  | 20,175  | 21,618  | 20,252  |
| S. of Europe and China,... | 17,849  | 12,516  | 11,029  | 14,349  | 7,536   | 9,053   |
| Coastwise,.....            | 11,317  | 7,435   | 17,033  | 13,098  | 21,655  | 10,810  |
| Total,.....                | 50,376  | 62,045  | 68,679  | 81,249  | 89,891  | 68,058  |

EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM NEW ORLEANS, FOR THREE YEARS, (UP THE RIVER EXCEPTED,) COMMENCING ON THE 1ST OF SEPTEMBER, AND ENDING ON THE 31ST OF AUGUST.

|                                                    | 1846-7. |       | 1845-6. |        | 1844-5. |        |
|----------------------------------------------------|---------|-------|---------|--------|---------|--------|
| Whither exported.                                  | Hhds.   | Bbls. | Hhds.   | Bbls.  | Hhds.   | Bbls.  |
| New York,.....                                     | 16,754  | 802   | 33,068  | 2,448  | 49,442  | 6,794  |
| Philadelphia,.....                                 | 11,653  | 653   | 21,804  | 2,421  | 21,392  | 1,422  |
| Charleston, S. C.,.....                            | 3,147   | 647   | 3,412   | 1,198  | 4,426   | 95     |
| Savannah,.....                                     | 1,352   | 58    | 1,062   | 65     | 782     | 10     |
| Providence and Bristol,...                         | .....   | ..... | .....   | .....  | .....   | .....  |
| Boston,.....                                       | 695     | 43    | 3,208   | 1,288  | 6,062   | 543    |
| Baltimore,.....                                    | 5,981   | 395   | 9,143   | 1,672  | 12,564  | 480    |
| Norfolk, Richmond and }<br>Petersburg, Va.,..... } | 4,806   | 966   | 3,997   | 1,215  | 4,500   | 208    |
| Alexandria, D. C.,.....                            | 156     | ..... | 175     | .....  | 201     | .....  |
| Mobile,.....                                       | 3,783   | 1,038 | 5,739   | 1,020  | 3,534   | 668    |
| Apalachicola & Pensacola,                          | 1,415   | 473   | 1,067   | 158    | 838     | 102    |
| Other ports,.....                                  | 371     | 76    | 533     | 8      | 760     | 239    |
| Total,.....                                        | 50,113  | 5,451 | 83,208  | 11,493 | 104,501 | 10,561 |





| Articles.                                 | Amount.   | Average. | Value.       |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------|----------|--------------|
| Beef,.....bbls.                           | 32,733    | \$10 00  | \$327,380    |
| ".....tierces                             | 21,230    | 16 00    | 339,680      |
| " dried,.....lbs.                         | 49,000    | 00 07    | 3,430        |
| Buffalo Robes,.....packs                  | 55        | 60 00    | 3,300        |
| Cotton,.....bales                         | 740,669   | 44 00    | 32,589,436   |
| Corn-meal,.....bbls.                      | 88,159    | 3 50     | 308,505      |
| " in ear,.....bbls.                       | 619,576   | 1 10     | 681,533      |
| " shelled,.....sacks                      | 2,386,510 | 2 00     | 4,773,020    |
| Cheese,.....boxes                         | 57,429    | 3 50     | 201,001      |
| Candles,.....boxes                        | 8,496     | 3 50     | 29,736       |
| Cider,.....bbls.                          | 477       | 3 00     | 1,431        |
| Coal, Western,.....bbls.                  | 356,500   | 00 75    | 267,375      |
| Dried Apples and Peaches,.....bbls.       | 8,770     | 2 50     | 21,925       |
| Feathers,.....bags                        | 3,493     | 25 00    | 87,450       |
| Flaxseed,.....tierces                     | 962       | 9 00     | 8,658        |
| Flour,.....bbls.                          | 1,617,675 | 5 50     | 8,897,213    |
| Furs,.....hhds., bundles and boxes        | 328       | ...      | 600,000      |
| Hemp,.....bundles                         | 60,238    | 15 00    | 903,570      |
| Hides,.....No.                            | 98,342    | 1 25     | 122,927      |
| Hay,.....bundles                          | 95,231    | 3 00     | 285,693      |
| Iron, pig,.....tons                       | 1,151     | 30 00    | 34,530       |
| Lard,.....hhds.                           | 143       | 80 00    | 11,440       |
| ".....bbls. and tierces                   | 117,077   | 23 00    | 2,692,771    |
| ".....kegs                                | 275,076   | 4 00     | 1,100,304    |
| Leather,.....bundles                      | 3,716     | 20 00    | 74,320       |
| Lime, Western,.....bbls.                  | 5,994     | 1 00     | 5,994        |
| Lead,.....pigs                            | 659,129   | 2 75     | 1,787,854    |
| " bar,.....kegs and boxes                 | 1,291     | 15 00    | 19,365       |
| Molasses, (estimated crop,).....galls.    | 6,000,000 | 00 24    | 1,440,000    |
| Oats,.....bbls. and sacks                 | 588,337   | 00 90    | 529,503      |
| Onions,.....bbls.                         | 7,185     | 2 00     | 14,370       |
| Oil, Linseed,.....bbls.                   | 3,637     | 20 00    | 72,740       |
| " Castor,.....bbls.                       | 1,439     | 20 00    | 28,780       |
| " Lard,.....bbls.                         | 2,573     | 22 00    | 56,936       |
| Peach Brandy,.....bbls.                   | 72        | 16 00    | 1,152        |
| Potatoes,.....bbls.                       | 142,888   | 2 00     | 285,776      |
| Pork,.....bbls.                           | 302,170   | 12 00    | 3,626,040    |
| ".....hhds.                               | 9,452     | 40 00    | 378,080      |
| " in bulk,.....lbs.                       | 8,450,700 | 00 06    | 507,042      |
| Porter and Ale,.....bbls.                 | 1,363     | 7 50     | 10,222       |
| Packing-Yarn,.....reels                   | 2,193     | 5 00     | 10,965       |
| Skins, Deer,.....packs                    | 1,784     | 20 00    | 35,680       |
| " Bear,.....packs                         | 71        | 15 00    | 1,065        |
| Shot,.....kegs                            | 3,992     | 18 00    | 71,856       |
| Soap,.....boxes                           | 4,361     | 2 60     | 11,338       |
| Staves,.....M.                            | 2,000     | 25 00    | 50,000       |
| Sugar, (estimated crop,).....hhds.        | 140,000   | 70 00    | 9,800,000    |
| Spanish Moss,.....bales                   | 5,990     | 4 00     | 23,960       |
| Tallow,.....bbls.                         | 6,658     | 20 00    | 133,160      |
| Tobacco, leaf,.....hhds.                  | 44,588    | 55 00    | 2,452,340    |
| " strips,.....hhds.                       | 11,000    | 100 00   | 1,100,000    |
| " chewing,.....kegs and boxes             | 3,930     | 12 50    | 49,125       |
| ".....bales                               | 1,001     | 3 00     | 3,003        |
| Twine,.....bundles and boxes              | 1,334     | 7 00     | 9,338        |
| Vinegar,.....bbls.                        | 1,059     | 4 00     | 4,236        |
| Whiskey,.....bbls.                        | 126,553   | 10 00    | 1,265,530    |
| Window Glass,.....boxes                   | 3,805     | 4 00     | 15,220       |
| Wheat,.....bbls. and sacks                | 833,649   | 2 30     | 1,917,392    |
| Other various articles, estimated at..... |           |          | 5,500,000    |
| Total value,.....                         |           |          | \$90,033,266 |
| Total in 1845-6,.....                     |           |          | 77,193,464   |
| Total in 1844-5,.....                     |           |          | 57,199,122   |
| Total in 1843-4,.....                     |           |          | 60,094,716   |

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF SHIPS, BARKS, BRIGS, SCHOONERS AND STEAMBOATS, AT NEW ORLEANS  
FOR TWO YEARS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

| Months.         | 1846-7. |       |        |        |                      | 1845-6.          |        |       |        |                              |
|-----------------|---------|-------|--------|--------|----------------------|------------------|--------|-------|--------|------------------------------|
|                 | Ships.  | B'ks. | Brigs. | Sch's. | St'm-<br>ships. Tot. | Steam-<br>boats. | Ships. | B'ks. | Brigs. | Sch's. Tot. Steam-<br>boats. |
| September,..... | 37      | 12    | 19     | 42     | 7 117                | 141              | 24     | 7     | 7      | 14 52                        |
| October,.....   | 78      | 30    | 31     | 80     | 7 226                | 177              | 86     | 25    | 20     | 26 157                       |
| November,.....  | 67      | 35    | 63     | 63     | 9 237                | 281              | 81     | 22    | 33     | 39 175                       |
| December,.....  | 72      | 45    | 62     | 43     | 8 230                | 337              | 80     | 49    | 48     | 42 219                       |
| January,.....   | 78      | 64    | 91     | 99     | 6 333                | 346              | 67     | 77    | 74     | 62 280                       |
| February,.....  | 42      | 34    | 63     | 85     | 5 229                | 298              | 29     | 21    | 36     | 50 136                       |
| March,.....     | 83      | 53    | 72     | 105    | 1 314                | 317              | 67     | 24    | 33     | 32 156                       |
| April,.....     | 86      | 41    | 45     | 86     | 6 264                | 293              | 110    | 40    | 47     | 37 234                       |
| May,.....       | 77      | 51    | 87     | 166    | 11 392               | 284              | 60     | 30    | 27     | 61 178                       |
| June,.....      | 51      | 38    | 54     | 101    | 19 263               | 251              | 44     | 25    | 42     | 30 141                       |
| July,.....      | 53      | 30    | 52     | 67     | 16 218               | 174              | 52     | 24    | 39     | 61 176                       |
| August,.....    | 45      | 18    | 24     | 52     | 14 153               | 125              | 43     | 33    | 41     | 64 181                       |
| Total,.....     | 769     | 451   | 663    | 980    | 109 2,981            | 4,024            | 743    | 377   | 447    | 518 2,085                    |

COMPARATIVE ARRIVALS, EXPORTS AND STOCKS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO, AT NEW ORLEANS, FOR  
TEN YEARS—FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER, EACH YEAR, TO DATE.

| Years.        | Cotton.—Bales. |           |         | Tobacco.—Hogsheads. |          |         |
|---------------|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------------|----------|---------|
|               | Arrivals.      | Exports.  | Stocks. | Arrivals.           | Exports. | Stocks. |
| 1846-47,..... | 740,669        | 724,508   | 23,493  | 55,588              | 50,376   | 22,396  |
| 1845-46,..... | 1,053,633      | 1,054,857 | 6,332   | 72,896              | 62,045   | 17,923  |
| 1844-45,..... | 979,238        | 984,616   | 7,556   | 71,493              | 68,679   | 7,673   |
| 1843-44,..... | 910,854        | 895,370   | 12,934  | 82,435              | 81,249   | 4,859   |
| 1842-43,..... | 1,089,642      | 1,088,870 | 4,700   | 92,509              | 89,891   | 4,873   |
| 1841-42,..... | 740,155        | 749,267   | 4,428   | 67,555              | 68,058   | 2,255   |
| 1840-41,..... | 822,870        | 821,228   | 14,490  | 53,170              | 54,667   | 2,758   |
| 1839-40,..... | 954,445        | 943,320   | 17,867  | 43,827              | 40,436   | 4,409   |
| 1838-39,..... | 578,514        | 579,179   | 10,308  | 28,153              | 30,780   | 1,294   |
| 1837-38,..... | 742,720        | 738,313   | 9,570   | 37,583              | 35,555   | 3,834   |

### COMMERCE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND BRAZIL.

The following is a statement of the commerce between the United States and the Brazils, from 1830 to 1845, inclusive, from official documents, each year ending 30th September, until 1842, from which period the official year ended the 30th June :—

| Years.    | Imports.    |             | Years.    | Exports.    |             |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
|           | \$          | \$          |           | \$          | \$          |
| 1830..... | \$2,491,460 | \$1,843,239 | 1838..... | \$3,191,238 | \$2,657,194 |
| 1831..... | 2,375,829   | 2,076,095   | 1839..... | 5,292,955   | 2,637,485   |
| 1832..... | 3,890,845   | 2,054,794   | 1840..... | 4,297,296   | 2,506,574   |
| 1833..... | 5,089,693   | 3,272,101   | 1841..... | 6,302,653   | 3,517,273   |
| 1834..... | 4,729,989   | 2,059,351   | 1842..... | 5,948,814   | 2,601,502   |
| 1835..... | 5,574,466   | 2,608,656   | 1843..... | 3,947,658   | 1,792,288   |
| 1836..... | 7,210,190   | 3,094,936   | 1844..... | 6,883,806   | 2,818,252   |
| 1837..... | 4,991,983   | 1,743,209   | 1845..... | 6,084,599   | 2,837,950   |

The following is a statement of the tonnage, American and foreign, employed in the commerce between the United States and the Brazils, from 1830 to 1845, inclusive, from official documents, each year ending 30th September, until 1842, from which period the fiscal year ends the 30th June :—

| Years.     | American tonnage. |        | Years.     | Foreign tonnage. |        |
|------------|-------------------|--------|------------|------------------|--------|
|            | Ent.              | Dep'd. |            | Ent.             | Dep'd. |
| 1830,..... | 38,005            | 44,450 | 1838,..... | 23,037           | 30,623 |
| 1831,..... | 29,855            | 36,892 | 1839,..... | 34,457           | 39,431 |
| 1832,..... | 31,222            | 30,439 | 1840,..... | 32,588           | 34,189 |
| 1833,..... | 35,024            | 49,736 | 1841,..... | 41,684           | 47,604 |
| 1834,..... | 34,900            | 37,092 | 1842,..... | 37,058           | 33,778 |
| 1835,..... | 34,720            | 39,269 | 1843,..... | 32,466           | 32,066 |
| 1836,..... | 39,259            | 45,533 | 1844,..... | 48,550           | 46,250 |
| 1837,..... | 25,122            | 19,576 | 1845,..... | 50,230           | 40,716 |

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

### THE BRITISH PASSENGER ACT.

AMONG the various matters which have been legislated on during the last session of the British Parliament, is that relating to the conveyance or carriage of passengers by sea. The subject being one of importance to merchants, ship-owners, &c., in the United States, as well as other nations, we publish it in the *Merchants' Magazine*, complete, so that all whom it may concern shall have full cognizance of its provisions:—

AN ACT TO AMEND THE PASSENGERS' ACT, AND TO MAKE FURTHER PROVISION FOR THE CARRIAGE OF PASSENGERS BY SEA.

Whereas, by an act passed in the session of Parliament holden in the fifth and sixth years of the reign of her present Majesty, entitled "An Act for regulating the Carriage of Passengers in Merchant Vessels," it is amongst other things provided, that the said act shall not extend to any ship carrying less than 30 passengers, and it is expedient that the said act should be amended in that respect: Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said recited act shall hereafter extend, and the same is hereby extended, to the case of every ship carrying any passenger on any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned: provided that when the number of passengers carried in any such ship shall not bear to the registered tonnage thereof a greater proportion than that of one passenger to every 25 tons, so much and such parts only as are next hereinafter specified of the said recited act shall extend, and are hereby extended, to the case of any such ship; that is to say, such parts thereof as relate to the recovery of money in certain cases by way of return of passage-money; or as relate to subsistence-money; or as relate to compensation to be made for the loss of passage; or as relate to the giving receipts for money received for or in respect of any passage to North America; or as relate to the receipt of money for or in respect of any such passage by any person as agent, not having a written authority from his principal to act in that capacity; or as relate to the inducing of any person by any fraud or false pretence to engage any such passage; or as relate to any prosecution or other proceeding at law for the recovery of such passage or subsistence-money, or of such compensation as aforesaid, or for the infliction of any fines or penalties in respect of any of the matters or things aforesaid: provided, also, that if in any suit, action, prosecution, or other legal proceeding, under the said recited act, any question shall arise whether any ship proceeding on any voyage did or did not carry a greater number of passengers than aforesaid in proportion to the tonnage thereof, the burden of proving that the number of passengers so carried in proportion to the tonnage of the ship was not greater than that of one person to every 25 tons, shall lie upon the person against whom any such suit, action, or other legal proceeding may be brought, and failing such proof, it shall for any such purpose as aforesaid be taken and adjudged that the number of passengers so carried did exceed that provision.

### ARTICLES OF FOOD.

2. And whereas it may from time to time be necessary that for the articles of food mentioned in the said recited act, or for some of them, other equivalent articles should be substituted: Be it enacted, that it shall be lawful for Her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners for the time being, acting under the authority of one of Her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, from time to time, by any notice or notices for that purpose, issued under the hands of any two of such commissioners, and published in the "*London Gazette*," to substitute for any of the articles of food mentioned in the said recited act any other article or articles of food, as to the said commissioners shall seem meet, and any such notice or notices from time to time to alter, amend, or revoke, as occasion may require: provided, always, that all the clauses and provisions in the said recited act contained respecting the articles of food therein mentioned shall extend, and are hereby extended, to the case of such substituted articles.

3. And be it enacted, that all articles of food required by the said recited act, or by any such notice or notices as aforesaid, to be laden on board any ship carrying passengers, shall, before such ship shall be cleared out, be furnished and laden on board by and at the expense of the owner or charterer of such ship, for the purposes in the said recited act provided, and shall be of a quality to be approved of by the emigration officer at the port of

clearance, or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, by the officer of customs from whom a clearance shall be demanded; and that in case of any default herein, the owner, charterer, or master of such ship shall be liable to the payment of a penalty not exceeding fifty pounds.

THE CARRIAGE OF GUNPOWDER, ETC.

4. And be it enacted, that in any ship carrying on any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned a greater number of passengers than in the proportion of one passenger to every 25 tons of the registered tonnage of such ship, it shall not be lawful to put on board or carry as cargo any gunpowder, vitriol, or green hides, and that no such ship having on board as cargo any such articles as aforesaid shall be allowed to clear out or proceed on her voyage.

PROPER LIGHT AND VENTILATION.

5. And be it enacted, that for the purpose of insuring a proper supply of light and air in every ship carrying on any such voyage as in the said recited act mentioned a greater number of passengers than in the proportion of one passenger to every 25 tons of the registered tonnage of such ship, the passengers shall, at all times during the voyage, (weather permitting,) have free access to and from the between-decks by each hatchway situate over the space appropriated to the use of such passengers: provided, always, that if the main hatchway be not one of the hatchways appropriated to the use of the passengers, or if the natural supply of light and air through the same be in any manner unduly impeded, it shall be lawful for the emigration officer at the port of clearance, or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, the chief officer of customs at the port from which a clearance shall be demanded, to direct such other provision to be made for affording light and air to the between-decks as the circumstances of the case may, in the judgment of such officer, appear to require, which directions shall be duly carried out to his satisfaction; and in case of any default herein, the master of the said ship shall be liable to the payment of a penalty not exceeding fifty pounds sterling.

SHIPS TO BE SURVEYED, AND NOT TO BE CLEARED UNLESS SEAWORTHY.

6. And be it enacted, that the emigration officer at the port of clearance, or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, the officer of customs from whom a clearance shall be demanded, shall in all cases require any ship fitted or about to carry passengers on any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned to be surveyed, at the expense of the owner or charterer thereof, by two or more competent surveyors, to be duly authorized and approved of, either by the Commissioners of Colonial Lands and Emigration, or by the Commissioner of Customs, as the case may be; and if it shall be reported by such surveyors that they have surveyed such ship, and that such ship is not in their opinion seaworthy, so as to be fit in all respects for her intended voyage, such ship shall not be cleared out until the same or two other surveyors appointed as aforesaid shall report that such ship has been rendered seaworthy, and in all respects fit for her intended voyage: provided, always, that the precautions for ascertaining the seaworthiness of ships, and their state of repair and efficiency for their intended voyages respectively, shall in all respects, and without distinction, be the same for foreign as for British ships.

SHIPS TO BE PROPERLY MANNED.

7. And be it enacted, that unless it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the emigration officer at the port of clearance, or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, the officer of customs from whom a clearance shall be demanded, that such ship as aforesaid is manned with a full complement of men, such ship shall not be cleared out.

CERTIFICATE THAT ALL REQUIREMENTS HAVE BEEN COMPLIED WITH.

8. And be it enacted, that no ship carrying on any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned a greater number of passengers than in the proportion of one passenger to every 25 tons of the registered tonnage of such ship, shall be allowed to clear out or proceed on her voyage until the master thereof shall have obtained from the emigration officer at the port of clearance, or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, from the officer of customs, from whom a clearance shall be demanded, a certificate under his hand that all the requirements, as well of this act as the said recited act, so far as the same can be complied with before the departure of said ship, have been duly complied with.

SHIPS PUTTING IN TO REPLENISH PROVISIONS, ETC.

9. And be it enacted, that if any ship carrying on any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned a greater number of passengers than in the proportion of one passenger to every 25 tons of the registered tonnage of such ship, shall put to sea, and shall



afterwards put into or touch at any port or place in the United Kingdom, it shall not be lawful for such ship to leave such port or place until there shall have been laden on board, as herein before is mentioned, such further supply of pure water, wholesome provisions, of the requisite kinds and qualities, and medical stores, as may be necessary to make up the full quantities of those articles required by the herein before recited act, or this act, for the use of the passengers during the whole of the intended voyage, nor until the master of the said ship shall have obtained from the emigration officer, or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, from the officer of customs, as the case may be, at such port or place, a certificate to the same effect as the certificate herein before required to enable the ship to be cleared out; and in case of any default herein, the master of the said ship shall be liable to the payment of a penalty not exceeding one hundred pounds sterling.

IN CASE SHIP IS WRECKED, ETC., A PASSAGE TO BE PROVIDED BY SOME OTHER VESSEL.

10. And be it enacted, that in case any ship carrying passengers on any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned, shall be wrecked or otherwise destroyed, and shall thereby or by any other cause whatsoever be prevented from landing her passengers at the place they may have respectively contracted to land, or in case such ship shall put into any port or place in a damaged state, and shall not within a reasonable time be required to proceed with her passengers on her intended voyage, after having been first efficiently repaired, and in all respects put into a sound and seaworthy condition, then, and in any of such cases, such passengers respectively shall be provided with a passage by some other equally eligible vessel to the port or place at which they respectively may have originally contracted to land; and in default thereof within a reasonable time, such passengers respectively, or any emigration officer in their behalf, shall be entitled to recover, by summary process, before any two or more justices of the peace, in like manner as in the said recited act is provided in the cases of moneys thereby made recoverable, all moneys which shall have been paid by or on account of such passengers, or any of them, for such passage, from the party to whom the same may have been paid, or from the owner, charterer, or master of such ship, and also such further sum, not exceeding five pounds, in respect of each such passage, as shall in the opinion of the justices who shall adjudicate on the complaint, be a reasonable compensation for any loss or inconvenience occasioned to any such passenger, or his or her family, by reason of the loss of such passage.

HOW CHILDREN ARE TO BE COMPUTED.

11. And in order to remove doubts which have arisen in the construction of the said recited act, Be it enacted, that, for the purpose of determining the number of persons which according to the said act can be carried in any ship in proportion to the registered tonnage thereof, two children under the age of fourteen years shall be computed as one person, and that children under one year shall not be included in such computation: provided, always, that if any ship shall carry upon any such voyage as in the said recited act is mentioned a greater number of persons, computed as aforesaid, in proportion to the registered tonnage thereof, than in the proportion in the said recited act mentioned, the master of such ship shall, for and in respect of every person constituting such excess, be liable to the payment of a penalty not exceeding five pounds sterling.

RECOVERY OF PENALTIES.

12. And be it enacted, that all penalties imposed by this act shall be sued for and recovered by such persons only, and in such and the same manner, as in the said recited act is provided in the case of the penalties thereby imposed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT FOR PASSAGE MONEY.

13. And whereas, in many cases, persons having received under the requirements of the said recited act contract tickets or written acknowledgments for money in respect of passengers to North America have afterwards been induced to part with the same, whereby they have been deprived of the means of enforcing their rights under such contract tickets: Be it enacted, that any owner, charterer, or master of a ship, or any passage broker or other person, who shall induce any person to part with, render useless, or destroy any such contract ticket or acknowledgment for passage money as aforesaid during the continuance of the contract which it is intended to be evidence, shall be liable in each case to a penalty not exceeding five pounds.

EMIGRATION OFFICERS.

14. And be it enacted, that the officers known as government emigration agents may henceforward be styled "Emigration Officers;" and that all powers, functions, and privileges vested in such government emigration agents by the said recited act, or by any other act, shall vest in and be exercised by the "emigration officers" for the time being, in like manner as if they bore the designation of government emigration agents.

## DEFINITION OF TERMS.

15. And be it enacted, that whenever the term "passenger" or "passage" is used in this act, it shall be held not to include or extend to the class of passengers or passages commonly known and understood by the name of "cabin passengers" and "cabin passages;" and that the term "ship" shall include and mean every description of vessel, whether British or foreign, carrying passengers upon any voyage to which the provisions of the said herein before recited Passengers' Act, or this act, shall for the time being extend.

16. And be it enacted, that this act may be amended or repealed during the present session of Parliament.

## COLLISION OF VESSELS.

This has always been a fruitful subject of discussion, as to the rules which ought to obtain, in deciding where the loss should fall. It was formerly, more than at present, a matter of frequent litigation, and gave rise to some very interesting opinions of the Admiralty and common law courts. These opinions, running through a long series of years, and founded on a variety of circumstances, have at length become pretty well established, and from their applicability to almost every case which arises, prevent legal disputes.

These rules, founded, as it will be seen, on good sense, are chiefly as follows:—

Where a collision arises from physical causes, beyond the control of the party inflicting the injury, and without fault in any one, the party injured must bear his own loss, without contribution or apportionment.

Vessels in motion, meeting each other, should observe the following particulars:

The vessel sailing with a free wind must get out of the way of one sailing close-hauled.

The vessel on the starboard tack has the right to keep her wind, and the one on the larboard tack must bear up or heave about at her peril.

The vessel to windward is to keep away when both vessels are on the same course in a narrow channel, and when there is danger of getting foul.

A steamer must, as a general rule, give way to a vessel with sails; she is considered as always having a free wind, and will be required to manage accordingly.

A vessel entering a crowded harbor must, at her peril, keep a proper check on her way, in coming to anchor.

We have been led to write out these simple directions, because the liability and duty of a vessel meeting another, are frequent matters of inquiry.

Not long since, a vessel dropping down the Penobscot in the night, with the tide, (as is usual in that river,) came into collision with another vessel, anchored in shore, (as also is usual,) and it was disputed whether the vessel inflicting the injury should pay the loss. It was finally considered that the vessel dropping down ought to be governed by the same rule as a vessel entering port; and if, by not checking or directing his way, the master of the vessel in question came in collision with the vessel at anchor, then his vessel should be liable for the damages. This matter was not the subject of judicial adjudication, but the parties acquiesced in the application of the above principle to their case, and settled it accordingly.—*Newburyport Herald*.

## A NEW GERMAN FREE PORT.

Late advices from Germany communicate a fact of some interest to the mercantile world. It announces to the mercantile and shipping interests the important fact of the rights and privileges of a free port having been accorded to a district on the Weser, where the small stream, the Geeste, runs into the river. This place is very near Bremen Haven, where all vessels of heavy burthen bound to Bremen are obliged to bring up. The Hanoverian government is deepening the water at, and in the approaches to, Harbourg, it is believed, with the intention of making Harbourg also a free port.

## BREADSTUFFS ADMITTED INTO DENMARK FREE.

The king of Denmark has issued an ordonnance declaring that, during the excessive dearness of the first necessities of life, and in deference to the wishes of the State, the territories of which are washed by the Elbe, articles of grain, roots, potatoes, flour, meal, and other alimentary products of the mill, ascending the Elbe, whatever may be the destination, shall be free of the customs duties to which such articles have been subject in passing before Lauenburg, until the end of September, 1847.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

### LIGHT-HOUSE ON HARTLEPOOL HEUGH.

The commissioners of the pier and port of Hartlepool hereby give notice that, acting under the sanction of the corporation of Trinity House, London, they have erected, in connection with the purposes of the said pier, and for the general advantage of the port, a light-house on the Heugh, or Headland, at Hartlepool, in the county of Durham, from which a fixed white light will be exhibited on the evening of the 1st October, 1847, and continued every night from sunset to sunrise.

The light will bear by compass from Souther Point, on the coast of Durham, S.  $\frac{1}{4}$  W., distance 17 sea miles, and from Staith's Old Nab, on the Yorkshire coast, N. W. by N., distant 16  $\frac{1}{2}$  sea miles; and will be seen at any place along the coast within these points, and seaward, during clear weather, at a distance of 15 miles; the light being of the first order, and at an elevation of 84 feet above the level of high water spring tides.

There will also be exhibited from the same tower, at night, (underneath the principal light,) from half-flood to half-ebb, a Tidal light, of a red color; and during the day, at half-flood, a red ball will be hoisted to the top of a mast, on the tower, where it will remain until half-ebb.

The light will be free of any charge whatever to the trade.

The stationary light on the pier-head of the old harbor will be shown as heretofore; but the tide light, in connection therewith, will, after the 30th of September next, be discontinued.

The fixed green light, which, under the like sanction, has been shown on each pier of the West harbor, from sunset to sunrise, and also the two red lights which have been exhibited in one, bearing N. W., as leading tide lights into the West harbor, will be continued as before.

Lat.  $54^{\circ} 41' 51''$  N. Lon.  $1^{\circ} 10' 19''$  of Greenwich.

### LIGHT-HOUSE ON POVER ROCK, NEAR ISTRIA.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, July, 1847.

Information has been received from the Austrian government, that a new light-house has been erected on the Pover Rock, near the Punta di Fromontore, in Istria, consisting of a fixed light on a stone tower, at the height of 85 feet above the rock, and 107 feet above the level of the sea; visible in clear weather, at the distance of sixteen miles, from the deck of a vessel.

The Pover Rock presents a large surface, and is situated near the S. W. extremity of the province of Istria, on the Western side of the Adriatic Sea, in lat.  $44^{\circ} 46' N.$ , and lon.  $13^{\circ} 53' 23'' E.$  of the meridian of Greenwich.

### PLYMOUTH SOUND.

The beacon upon the East end of the breakwater, and the red and white beacon upon Plymouth Hoe, presenting more distinct objects than those which have been heretofore used as the leading marks for the Eastern channel into the sound, notice is hereby given, that, on the 31st December next, the sea marks on the citadel wall will be obliterated, and the following used as the leading mark up to the breakwater, viz.:—

The beacon on the East end of Plymouth Breakwater on with the red and white beacon upon Plymouth Hoe.

### MOOTAPILLY SHOAL.

Lieutenant Fell, of the Indian navy, employed in surveying part of the Coromandel coast, has discovered an error in the position assigned, in Horsburg's Directory, 5th edition, Vol. I., p. 99, to the shoalest part of the Mootapilly Bank, on which there is 2  $\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms. This shoal patch is therein stated to be in lat.  $15^{\circ} 25' \frac{1}{2} N.$ , and only five miles distant from the shore; whereas, according to Lieutenant Fell, it is ten miles off the coast, and in lat.  $15^{\circ} 23' 15'' N.$  The difference so pointed out, may be of importance to ships of considerable draught approaching the position of the shoal patch described.

## WINTER BEACONS IN THE LAPPEGRUND.

From the beginning of next winter, the Lappegrund, Northward of Kronborg Point, will be marked with the following winter beacons, when the present summer beacons are removed in consequence of ice, viz. :—

1. ON THE NORTH END, FRONTING LAPPEGRUNDEN.—A beacon, with red staff and a red balloon, instead of the present red painted buoy, with iron rod, and a red balloon.

2. ON THE MIDDLE OF THE EAST SIDE OF LAPPEGRUNDEN.—A beacon, with red staffs, and two brooms, instead of the present black buoy.

3. FRONTING THE SOUTHEAST END OF LAPPEGRUNDEN.—A beacon, with red staff, and a broom, instead of the present beacon, with black staff and a broom.

4. CLOSE TO THE WEST SIDE OF THE BLOCK-HOUSE.—A beacon, with striped staff, and broom, like the one now in use.

## FIXED SINGLE LIGHT AT CALICUT.

Notice is hereby given, that a fixed single light will be exhibited at Calicut, from the 15th instant, on a column of masonry, 105 feet above the level of the sea.

The column, which is white, may be seen from the deck of a ship, at a distance of about 14 or 15 miles during the day time, and the light, which is a small one, may be distinguished at a distance of about 9 or 10 miles during the night.

The Calicut shoal bears from the light-house N. N. E., distance about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles.

The best anchorage for shipping is in 5 fathoms; with the light-house bearing from E. to E. N. E.

There is  $3\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms near the Western edge of the Calicut shoal, but vessels passing the port, either by day or night, should not come under 5 fathoms; this depth will carry them well clear of the shoal.

The light will not be exhibited from the 20th May to the 10th August of each year.

## LIGHT-HOUSE AT THE PORT OF CORUNNA.

Notice has been received at the Department of State, (Washington, August 30th,) from the Spanish government, through its Minister Plenipotentiary at Washington, that the light-house at the port of Corunna has been furnished with a new revolving light of the third order, placed on the old tower, called the "Tower of Hercules," one mile distant from the town, in latitude  $43^{\circ} 22'$ , and longitude of  $2^{\circ} 14'$  E. of Cadiz, corresponding with  $4^{\circ} 3'$  W. of Greenwich. The light is placed 363 feet above the sea at high tide. It shows one light nearly constant, visible 12 miles in clear weather, accompanied by bright flashes, visible 20 miles. The lights appear in the following order: a weak fixed light for 107 seconds, eclipse for 30 seconds; very bright light for 13 seconds, eclipse for 30 seconds; and so on continuously, the whole of the changes being completed in three minutes.

## PUERTO RICO—NEW LIGHT AT SAN JUAN.

The new light has been exhibited at the entrance of the harbor of San Juan, in lat.  $18^{\circ} 29'$  N., lon.  $66^{\circ} 7'$  W. of Greenwich, at the height of 187-feet above the level of the sea. It revolves in eight seconds, and may be seen twenty miles.

## MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

The Mississippi River takes its rise in latitude  $48^{\circ}$  north, and discharges its waters into the Gulf of Mexico in latitude  $29^{\circ} 5'$ . It flows through a channel 3,300 miles long; its course is south, nearly  $14^{\circ}$  east; its width averages about half a mile. Its width does not increase with the volume of water, but is about the same at Galena, 1,600 miles above the mouth, as at New Orleans, where the volume is six times as great. It is 645 yards wide at Vidalia, Louisiana. It drains an area of 300,000 square miles. Its mean velocity at the surface, for the year, opposite Vidalia, is 1.88 miles per hour. (Opposite St. Louis, its velocity is about three miles per hour.) Its mean depth, per annum, across the entire channel, at the same place, (Vidalia,) is about 60 feet. The mean velocity is reduced about 15 per cent by friction against the bottom. The total amount of water discharged, per annum, in cubic feet, is 8,902,118,940,000.—[Prof. Forshey.



## RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

### RAILWAY MOVEMENT ON THE CONTINENT.

WE publish, below, an interesting communication from C. EDWARDS LESTER, Esq., the United States Consul at Genoa, relating to the great railway movement on the Continent of Europe—a subject of almost universal interest at the present time. The information conveyed in the accompanying paper will be read with pleasure by the thousands of our citizens who annually visit the continent; and we may, we trust, be pardoned the seeming vanity of annexing the letter of Mr. Lester enclosing the particulars of the progress of this great movement abroad, as it contains an important fact touching the best method of sending letters and papers to Italy, etc.\*

GENOA, 9th August, 1847.

MR. HUNT—DEAR SIR: I am again in the regular receipt of your invaluable Magazine, which I have so long depended on, that I cannot now dispense with it. I have sent the last complete set of it, which I brought with me from America, to Naples, for the service of that government, and I have applications for the numbers, as fast as they arrive, from all quarters. It is now regarded throughout Europe as our best authority. Many of its articles are now translated for the principal Italian journals. By this steamer, and the last which preceded, you will have received files of the *Corriere Mercantile*, of Genoa, with a request from the editor to exchange. The *Corriere* is one of the best commercial journals in Italy. I hope you will exchange, and forward the Magazine to the editor, as you send mine—via the Havre steamer.† The accompanying article on the "GREAT GERMAN AND ITALIAN JUNCTION RAILWAY," is compiled from authorities on which the utmost reliance can be placed; and probably you will not be able readily to lay your hand on the same materials without waiting a considerable time.

Truly, your friend and servant,

C. EDWARDS LESTER.

### GREAT GERMAN AND ITALIAN JUNCTION RAILWAY,

(A NEW, AND THE SHORTEST ROUTE FROM ENGLAND TO ITALY AND INDIA,) FROM LAKE CONSTANCE TO THE LAGO MAGGIORE, WITH A BRANCH FROM SARGAUS TO WALLENSTADT.

Main Line, 143 miles—Branch, 7 miles. Capital, 75,000,000 francs, (£3,000,000)—in 150,000 shares, of 500 francs (£20) each—deposit, 50 francs (£2) per share; with a guarantee of interest from the governments of Sardinia, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden.

The proposed railway is, perhaps, the most important that has ever claimed the support of European capitalists; for, while conferring unequalled advantages, from its geographical position—political as well as commercial—upon Great Britain, Northern and Central Europe, and Italy, it is at the same time calculated to afford to its proprietors a remuneration unsurpassed by (if not exceeding) that yielded by the most successful undertakings now in operation.

It will traverse the three cantons of St. Gall, the Grisons, and Cicino; commencing at Rorschach, on Lake Constance, it will ascend the Rhine, by Rheineck, Sargaus, Reichenaud, as far as Dissentis; whence, entering the Val Cristallina, and crossing the Alps by a tunnel,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, it will descend by the Val Bleguo to Olivone, Biasca, and along the Cicino to Bellinzona and Locarno, on the Lago Maggiore, where it will termi-

\* We hope Mr. Lester receives letters from this country for less than the cost (\$2 50) of the present communication, covering less than three sheets of thin letter-paper. For a former communication, from the same source, we paid \$4 50.

† The French steamer, I mean. Do not send anything by the American steamers, the postage is too dear—say three times that of the French.

nate. From Sargaus, a branch will be carried to Wallenstadt, which will command the traffic from Glarif, Zurich, and other places.

It will form the indispensable connecting link between the great lines of Germany, which, from the ports of the Baltic and the German Ocean, advancing southward, converge to the Lake of Constance; and those of Italy, which, from the ports of the Mediterranean and Adriatic, advancing northward, converge to the Lago Maggiore.

The German railways branching off from Lake Constance, may be enumerated as follows:—

1. THE BADEN RAILWAY (authorized) from Constance to Radolfzell, Engen, Doneschingen, Willingen, and the Valley of the Kinsig, to Offenburg, where it joins the Great Baden Railway, (now open,) which, on the one hand, proceeds to Mannheim and Frankfurt, and, on the other, to the great French line from Strasburg to Paris. From Frankfurt, various lines, all authorized, and most of them in active construction, will lead to Cassel, Hanover, and Hamburg, as, also, to the great lines of Belgium and Holland.

2. THE WURTEMBERG RAILWAY (in active construction) from Friedrichshafen, by Ravensburg, Biberach, Ulm, Geisstingen, and along the Neckar to Stutgard and Louisburg; with branches, on the one hand, to Heilbroun, (the starting-point of the steamboats upon the Neckar;) and on the other, to Bruchsal, there joining the Great Baden Railway, above mentioned.

3. THE BAVARIAN RAILWAY (in active construction) from Lindau, by Kempten and Kaufbeuren, to Augsburg. At Augsburg, one line (now open) proceeds to Munich, where an extension will be made to meet the line projected from Salzburg to Lintz, the Danube, and Vienna; another proceeds to Donauworth, Nordlingen, Nuremberg, Erlangen, and Bamberg. From Bamberg, lines lead, in one direction, to Cobourg and Cassel, Hanover, Hamburg, and Bremen; in another, to Hof, Altenburg, and Leipsic; whence various lines (now open) diverge to Dresden, Magdeburg, Brunswick, Hanover, and Berlin, as, also, to Stettin and other ports on the Baltic.

4. THE SWISS RAILWAYS from Romaushorn to Zurich, (lately authorized,) and that (in course of construction) from Zurich to Bale.

The Italian railways branching off from the Lago Maggiore, may be stated as follows:—

1. THE SARDINIAN RAILWAY (in active construction) from Arona, by Novaro and Alessandria, to Genoa. From Alessandria, one line (also in active construction) is carried to Turin, whence it will be extended through Upper Piedmont and Nice, to connect with the railways of the South of France; and another is projected to Piacenza, there to join those of Lombardy, Tuscany, and Romagna.

2. THE RAILWAY (lately authorized) from Bellinzona to Lugano and Chiapo, on the frontiers of Lombardy, destined to join, at Como, the railway to Milan. From Milan, the line to Verona, Vicenza, and Venice, is nearly executed; and another is projected to Piacenza, Parma, Modena, and Bologna, where it will join the lines (lately authorized by the Pope) from Bologna, Ancona, Rome, and Ceprano, on the confines of the Kingdom of Naples. From Ceprano, a line is intended to be made to Capua, there joining the railway now open to Naples. From Naples, a line to Barletta has been authorized, and an extension is contemplated from the free port of Brindisi, on the southeastern extremity of that kingdom.

While connecting the German with the Italian States, the proposed railway will furnish the 28,000,000 population of the Zollverein with a safe and expeditious outlet to the Mediterranean, which is absolutely necessary for their commercial prosperity. It will likewise form part of the great channel of communication between England, Alexandria, and India; for, as soon as continuous lines are established from Genoa to Ostend, and from Marseilles to Boulogne, the journey from Alexandria to London, via Genoa, will be shorter than that via Marseilles, as the following table will show:—

|                                                                                                     | Miles. | Hours. |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|--------|
| Alexandria to Marseilles.....                                                                       | 1,450  | 161    |
| Marseilles (by Paris) to Boulogne.....                                                              | 750    | 25     |
| Boulogne to London.....                                                                             | 110    | 5      |
| Total.....                                                                                          | 2,310  | 191    |
| Alexandria to Genoa.....                                                                            | 1,330  | 148    |
| Genoa to Ostend, via Arona, Constance, Offenburg, Mannheim, Treves,<br>Luxemburg, and Brussels..... | 808    | 29     |
| Ostend to London.....                                                                               | 152    | 8      |
| Total.....                                                                                          | 2,290  | 185    |

Being a saving in distance of 20 miles; time, 6 hours.

This calculation is based on the supposition that, in both cases, the journey will be performed at the rate of 9 miles an hour by sea, and 30 by land; and that the steamer to and from Marseilles will always be able to take the shortest course, which is through the straits of Bonifazio; but these are often impracticable, especially in winter—and when so, the voyage becomes several hours longer.

When the railways authorized and projected from the North of Italy to Ancona, or Brindisi, are completed, this saving in time will be still greater. For instance:—

|                                                       | Miles. | Hours. |
|-------------------------------------------------------|--------|--------|
| Alexandria to London, via Marseilles, (as above)..... | 2,310  | 191    |
| Alexandria to Ancona.....                             | 1,130  | 126    |
| Ancona to Bellinzona, Ostend, and London.....         | 1,140  | 42     |
| Total.....                                            | 2,270  | 168    |
| Alexandria to Brindisi.....                           | 830    | 93     |
| Brindisi to Genoa, Ostend and London.....             | 1,660  | 60     |
| Total.....                                            | 2,490  | 153    |

Being an average, as compared with the route via Marseilles, of 23 hours by Ancona, and 38 hours by Brindisi.

Thus, in the journey to and from Alexandria, there will be a difference, in the one case, of two, and in the other, of three days, which must ultimately cause the route via Marseilles to be superseded; and as the line through the Tyrol, even if possible, would be too circuitous and expensive, owing to the various chains of mountains it would have to cross, it is evident that the intercourse between Great Britain and her possessions in the East will be maintained by means of the present undertaking.

No comparison has been made between the route via Genoa and that via Trieste, as it is deemed unnecessary. Trieste cannot even contend with Marseilles; for, though it is nearer Alexandria than either Marseilles or Genoa, it has no advantage over them in point of time, owing to the proverbial difficulty and uncertainty of the navigation of the Adriatic. As to the remainder of the journey to be performed by land, the route from Trieste to London is far longer than from Marseilles or Genoa, and it lies across a mountainous country, wholly unfit for direct railway communication.

The proposed railway has, moreover, another merit, which should not be disregarded—that of establishing a new route to India, upon neutral ground, independent alike of France as of Austria. (If I had time, I would extend this article; but what I should say will immediately suggest itself to those readers of the Merchants' Magazine who are familiar with the political relations of Europe.)

The provincial committee, formed at Turin, under the most favorable circumstances, have had the whole country between the Lake of Constance and the Lago Maggiore carefully surveyed, by engineers of the greatest eminence, and have likewise obtained the necessary grants from the governments of three Swiss cantons, through which the projected railway passes.

The line selected is indisputedly the most practicable and the most desirable that can be planned for the passage of the Alps, and its great advantages have been fully recognized by engineers appointed by the governments of Sardinia and Bavaria to report upon the subject, previous to conceding their powerful support.

The valleys of the Rhine, Bleguo, and Cicino, along which it passes, are placed by nature so favorably that they form the shortest possible route from the Lake of Constance to the Lago Maggiore, and are only separated by one ridge, unusually easy of access.

The grants obtained from the three cantons contain various conditions, singularly favorable to the undertaking, among which may be noted:—

1. The exclusive grant for 75 years.
2. Successive renewal of the grant, or the purchase by the government of the railway, at a valuation.
3. Exemption of the railway from all impost and taxes.
4. Exemption of imported materials required for the railway from all impost and taxes.
5. Full power to fix the price of transport of passengers and goods, so long as the dividend does not exceed 12 per cent.
6. Unrestricted management of the line, and appointment of the company's officers.
7. Compulsory power to take lands required for the railway.
8. Settlement by arbitration of all disputes between the company and the conceding governments.

Although the above conditions, and the intrinsic merit of the line, are alone sufficient to warrant the assertion that the proposed railway will yield most ample remuneration for the capital invested, still the governments of Sardinia, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden, wishing to promote the execution of the present enterprise, have resolved to guarantee, within certain limits, 3½ per cent interest upon the capital of the company.

The active support thus given by these several governments to a line which, in its whole length, traverses a country not their own, and entirely independent, is sufficient to show the vast importance attached to it upon the continent.

The proposed undertaking, however, can scarcely prove less advantageous to England than to the continent; and the provincial committee, notwithstanding the present monetary depression, hope to obtain the co-operation of British capitalists in the formation of a powerful and *bona fide* company to carry it out.

If I had time, I would show the vast advantages that would accrue to our own commerce by this gigantic undertaking. In a word, it will open all Central Europe to our American ports. From time to time, I may note (in other articles) the bearings and progress of this enterprise.

C. E. L.

### STATISTICS OF THE SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROADS IN 1846.

The following is a statement of the number of passengers conveyed upon the Railroad between Charleston, Hamburg, and Columbia, with the amount received for freight and passage, from 1st January to 31st December, 1846:—

| Months.         | PASSAGE. |             |        |             | Up and down. |              |          |         |
|-----------------|----------|-------------|--------|-------------|--------------|--------------|----------|---------|
|                 | Pass'rs. | Amount.     | Up.    | Down.       | Pass'rs.     | Amount.      | Pass'rs. | Amount. |
| January,.....   | 2,337    | \$7,467 76  | 2,012  | \$6,391 27  | 4,349        | \$13,859 03  |          |         |
| February,.....  | 2,022    | 7,144 36    | 1,684  | 6,159 43    | 3,706        | 13,303 79    |          |         |
| March,.....     | 2,576    | 9,083 62    | 2,008  | 7,226 18    | 4,584        | 16,309 80    |          |         |
| April,.....     | 8,014    | 10,377 42   | 7,753  | 8,786 36    | 15,667       | 19,153 78    |          |         |
| May,.....       | 2,624    | 8,560 47    | 1,973  | 6,359 36    | 4,597        | 14,919 83    |          |         |
| June,.....      | 2,182    | 6,483 82    | 1,673  | 4,979 05    | 3,855        | 11,462 87    |          |         |
| July,.....      | 1,866    | 5,341 23    | 1,555  | 4,752 85    | 3,421        | 20,094 08    |          |         |
| August,.....    | 1,764    | 5,915 11    | 1,505  | 4,232 23    | 3,269        | 9,147 34     |          |         |
| September,..... | 2,203    | 7,582 69    | 1,421  | 4,205 77    | 3,624        | 11,788 46    |          |         |
| October,.....   | 2,693    | 9,491 88    | 2,399  | 8,192 77    | 5,092        | 17,684 65    |          |         |
| November,.....  | 2,748    | 9,806 80    | 2,285  | 8,605 24    | 5,033        | 18,412 04    |          |         |
| December,.....  | 3,153    | 10,093 38   | 3,687  | 11,215 15   | 6,839        | 21,308 53    |          |         |
| Total,.....     | 34,181   | \$96,348 54 | 29,955 | \$81,095 66 | 64,136       | \$177,444 20 |          |         |

| FREIGHT.        |                |                  |                         |                                  |  |
|-----------------|----------------|------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|--|
| Months.         | Up.<br>Amount. | Down.<br>Amount. | Up and down.<br>Amount. | Total Amount.<br>Fr't & passage. |  |
| January,.....   | \$9,389 49     | \$9,389 65       | \$18,876 14             | \$32,735 17                      |  |
| February,.....  | 10,557 28      | 9,168 01         | 19,724 29               | 33,029 08                        |  |
| March,.....     | 20,415 93      | 10,192 33        | 30,608 26               | 46,918 06                        |  |
| April,.....     | 18,204 41      | 8,469 68         | 26,674 09               | 45,827 87                        |  |
| May,.....       | 12,908 49      | 9,110 01         | 22,018 50               | 36,938 33                        |  |
| June,.....      | 7,241 91       | 5,531 38         | 12,773 29               | 24,236 16                        |  |
| July,.....      | 7,116 38       | 7,166 75         | 14,283 13               | 24,377 21                        |  |
| August,.....    | 9,520 29       | 5,704 57         | 15,224 86               | 24,372 20                        |  |
| September,..... | 20,916 28      | 10,647 32        | 31,563 60               | 43,352 06                        |  |
| October,.....   | 26,948 31      | 33,951 15        | 60,899 46               | 78,584 11                        |  |
| November,.....  | 16,072 77      | 39,796 14        | 55,868 91               | 74,280 95                        |  |
| December,.....  | 12,999 42      | 30,174 97        | 43,174 39               | 64,482 92                        |  |
| Total,.....     | \$172,290 96   | \$179,398 96     | \$351,689 92            | \$529,134 12                     |  |

|                                                                         |              |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Received for freight and passage, as above,.....                        | \$529,134 12 |
| “ for through tickets sold by Georgia Railroad Co., the past year,..... | 12,200 67    |
| Total freight and passage,.....                                         | \$541,334 79 |
| Received for transportation of the mails for the past year,.....        | 39,746 76    |
| “ for rents, storage, and other minor sources,.....                     | 7,999 97     |
| Total receipts for the year,.....                                       | \$589,081 52 |



STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER OF BALES OF COTTON RECEIVED IN CHARLESTON, BY THE RAILROAD,  
FROM JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1846.

| Months.         | Hamburg. | Aiken. | Bl'kville. | Midway. | Br'chville. | Way H. R. | Tot. H. R. |
|-----------------|----------|--------|------------|---------|-------------|-----------|------------|
| January,.....   | 4,314    | 77     | 281        | 282     | 13          | 197       | 5,164      |
| February,.....  | 4,478    | 31     | 540        | 242     | 21          | 83        | 5,395      |
| March,.....     | 5,202    | 11     | 177        | 58      | 63          | 47        | 5,558      |
| April,.....     | 3,106    | 34     | 345        | 185     | 23          | 161       | 3,854      |
| May,.....       | 6,849    | 15     | 53         | 91      | 78          | 46        | 7,132      |
| June,.....      | 3,650    | 00     | 1          | 44      | 00          | 00        | 3,695      |
| July,.....      | 6,365    | 33     | 54         | 00      | 17          | 5         | 6,474      |
| August,.....    | 4,649    | 00     | 3          | 2       | 00          | 8         | 4,662      |
| September,..... | 7,229    | 00     | 15         | 8       | 56          | 7         | 7,315      |
| October,.....   | 14,117   | 50     | 348        | 227     | 91          | 135       | 14,968     |
| November,.....  | 18,901   | 88     | 688        | 332     | 95          | 920       | 21,024     |
| December,.....  | 15,998   | 7      | 444        | 208     | 100         | 135       | 16,892     |
| Total,.....     | 94,858   | 346    | 2,949      | 1,679   | 557         | 1,744     | 102,133    |

TABLE—CONTINUED.

| Months.         | Columbia. | Gadsden. | Lewisville. | Or'ngb'g. | Way C. B. | Total C. B. | G. Total. |
|-----------------|-----------|----------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| January,.....   | 3,271     | 950      | 226         | 149       | 404       | 5,000       | 10,164    |
| February,.....  | 3,829     | 282      | 220         | 101       | 860       | 5,292       | 10,687    |
| March,.....     | 5,399     | 339      | 147         | 80        | 68        | 6,033       | 11,591    |
| April,.....     | 2,820     | 90       | 662         | 205       | 219       | 4,996       | 8,850     |
| May,.....       | 4,034     | 371      | 275         | 65        | 131       | 4,876       | 12,003    |
| June,.....      | 2,636     | 154      | 40          | 00        | 108       | 2,938       | 6,633     |
| July,.....      | 2,205     | 9        | 145         | 00        | 258       | 2,617       | 9,091     |
| August,.....    | 1,537     | 36       | 00          | 00        | 12        | 1,585       | 6,247     |
| September,..... | 3,772     | 190      | 00          | 00        | 138       | 4,100       | 11,415    |
| October,.....   | 14,902    | 1,241    | 564         | 174       | 1,023     | 17,904      | 32,872    |
| November,.....  | 15,112    | 963      | 731         | 237       | 476       | 17,519      | 38,543    |
| December,.....  | 9,641     | 386      | 319         | 79        | 853       | 11,278      | 28,170    |
| Total,.....     | 70,158    | 5,011    | 3,329       | 1,090     | 4,550     | 84,138      | 186,271   |

STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER OF PACKAGES AND PIECES FORWARDED ON THE RAILROAD, (UP),  
FROM 1ST JANUARY TO 31ST DECEMBER, 1846.

|                 |        |                                       |
|-----------------|--------|---------------------------------------|
| January,.....   | 2,776  | pieces and packages, from 29 Vessels. |
| February,.....  | 2,536  | " " " 24 "                            |
| March,.....     | 5,788  | " " " 30 "                            |
| April,.....     | 3,828  | " " " 25 "                            |
| May,.....       | 2,646  | " " " 34 "                            |
| June,.....      | 1,827  | " " " 34 "                            |
| July,.....      | 885    | " " " 22 "                            |
| August,.....    | 3,113  | " " " 27 "                            |
| September,..... | 8,617  | " " " 28 "                            |
| October,.....   | 17,748 | " " " 55 "                            |
| November,.....  | 6,352  | " " " 31 "                            |
| December,.....  | 4,787  | " " " 41 "                            |
| Total,.....     | 60,893 | " " " 380 "                           |

STATEMENT OF ARTICLES RECEIVED BY THE RAILROAD, AND FORWARDED TO OTHER PLACES, IN  
THE YEAR ENDING 31ST DECEMBER, 1846.

|                               |       |       |                           |          |       |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|---------------------------|----------|-------|
| Cotton,.....                  | bales | 6,822 | Dried peaches,.....       | bags     | 22    |
| Waste,.....                   | "     | 31    | Wax and merchandise,..... | bbles    | 34    |
| Yarn,.....                    | "     | 619   | Wax,.....                 | tierce   | 1     |
| Domestics,.....               | "     | 35    | Wax and merchandise,..... | casks    | 6     |
| Wool,.....                    | "     | 6     | Merchandise,.....         | boxes    | 114   |
| Fur skins,.....               | "     | 4     | Indigo,.....              | "        | 7     |
| Rags,.....                    | "     | 3     | Merchandise,.....         | packages | 24    |
| Pink root, ginseng, &c.,..... | "     | 22    | Bellows,.....             | pairs    | 10    |
| Feathers, roots and wax,..... | bags  | 1,353 | Trunks,.....              | "        | 7     |
| Total,.....                   |       |       |                           |          | 9,120 |

## NEW YORK CANAL REVENUE.

By a statement submitted to the New York Legislature, September 20th, 1847, from the Commissioners of the Canal Fund, it appears that the amount of revenue from canal tolls, including the sum of \$38,946 49 paid by the Railroads, for the fiscal year commencing on Sept. 1, 1846, and ending Aug. 31, 1847, is.....

|                                                                    |                |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|
| Rents of surplus water,.....                                       | 1,500 00       |
| Interest on current deposits in banks,.....                        | 10,000 00      |
|                                                                    | <hr/>          |
|                                                                    | \$3,470,904 82 |
| Expenses of collection, superintendence and ordinary repairs,..... | 600,000 00     |
|                                                                    | <hr/>          |
|                                                                    | \$2,870,904 82 |
| Deduct for sinking funds,.....                                     | \$1,650,000    |
| Payment to the Treasury of the State, under sec. 7, art. 3,.....   | 200,000        |
|                                                                    | <hr/>          |
|                                                                    | 1,850,000 00   |
| Surplus,.....                                                      | <hr/>          |
|                                                                    | \$1,020,904 82 |

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LENGTH OF STEAMBOAT NAVIGATION ON THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

Mississippi, from the Gulf of Mexico to St. Anthony's Falls.....	miles 2,200
Missouri, from its mouth to the foot of the Rapids.....	2,000
Red River, to head of navigation.....	1,100
Ohio, to Pittsburgh.....	1,000
Arkansas, to mouths of the Neosho and Verdigris.....	630
Tennessee, to Chattanooga.....	485
Wabash, to Lafayette.....	300
Illinois, to Ottawa.....	250
Cumberland, to Nashville.....	200
Osage.....	200

A steamboat, leaving Pittsburgh and going to New Orleans, and being there chartered to go up the Missouri as high as the Rapids, and thence returning to Pittsburgh, will perform a REGULAR VOYAGE of about 8,450 miles, a distance nearly equal to crossing the Atlantic three times.

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SPARK ARRESTER FOR RAILWAYS.

The Railroad Journal says:—"The value of this appendage to the locomotive has been thoroughly tested, and found to surpass anything of the kind, for that purpose, in use in this country. An evidence of the estimation of its value may be found in the fact, that nearly four hundred of them have been made within the past four years. We saw *six* of them nearly completed, on a visit to the manufactory, a few days since, to fill an order for the "Cardenas Railroad," in Cuba—another order was recently filled with *nine* of them, made of copper, for the "Havana and Guienas Railroad," on the same island—and fifteen others were sent to the different roads in Cuba last year. These spark arresters are also, we understand, very generally used on the railroads in the Southern States, where *cotton* is transported. They are, also, a certain preventive of accidents by fire from sparks, as well as great relief to passengers—and should be used on *every locomotive* in the country. There has not been, we understand and believe, a single accident from fire, arising from sparks from the locomotive, where this arrester has been used—while on some roads, fires, causing great loss of property, were not uncommon before the introduction of the 'spark arrester' of French, Baird & Campbell, of Philadelphia."

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COST OF RUNNING STEAMBOATS ON WESTERN RIVERS.

The Oswego Times says the cost of running a steamboat on the western rivers, is six times greater than the cost incurred upon the lakes. For proof of this, the Times exhibits the following statements:—

"The capital invested in the vessels of the Upper Lakes, is estimated at \$6,000,000, and the cost of running them (exclusive of insurance and interest on the capital) is stated to be about one-third of their value. The capital invested in the steamboats of the Valley of the Mississippi, is \$16,188,561, and the cost of running them (exclusive of insurance and interest) is estimated at \$32,700,000, or more than double their value."

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

GOLD AND SILVER COINS: THEIR VALUE IN UNITED STATES MONEY.

THE following is the current value in Federal Money of those gold and silver coins in most general circulation here, derived from J. Thompson's Pictorial Chart:—

GOLD COINS.

Eagle, American,.....	\$10 00	One-third Guinea, English,.....	\$1 66
Half Eagle, do,.....	5 00	One Mohur, East Indies,.....	6 75
Half Eagle, do., 1798 and 1833,...	5 25	Double Louis D'Or, France,.....	9 00
Qr. Eagle, do,.....	2 50	Louis D'Or, do,.....	4 50
Doubloon, Spanish,.....	\$15 60 a 16 75	Forty Francs, do,.....	7 66
Half Doubloon, do,.....	7 80 a 8 37	Twenty Francs, do,.....	3 83
Qr. do. do,.....	3 90 a 4 12	Hundred Livres, Sardinia,.....	19 15
Eighth do. do,.....	1 90	Twenty Livre, do,.....	3 83
Doubloon, Colombian,....	15 50 a 15 75	Ten Scudi, Rome,.....	10 00
Eighth do. do,.....	1 87	Twenty Livre, Italy,.....	3 83
Doubloon, Mexican,.....	15 50 a 15 75	Quadruple Ducat, Austria,.....	8 80
Doubloon, New Granadian, 15 50 a 15 75		Sovereign, do,.....	6 50
Doubloon, Ecuador,.....	15 50 a 15 75	Five Roubles, Russia,.....	3 90
Half Doubloon, Central America,...	7 75	Double Frederick D'Or, Prussia,...	7 80
Quarter Doubloon, Peruvian,.....	3 87	Double Christian D'Or, Denmark,.	7 80
Half Joe, Portugal, (by wt.)... 7 90 a 8 50		Ten Thalers, Hanover,.....	7 80
Moidore, do. do,.... 4 70 a 6 40		Five Thalers, do,.....	3 90
Sovereign, English, 1844,....	4 83	Two and a half Thaler, Hanover,	1 95
Sovereign, Dragon, do., 1824,....	4 80	Ten Thalers, Saxony,.....	7 80
Half Sovereign, do,.....	2 41	Ten Guilders, Netherlands,.....	4 00
Guinea, do,.....	5 00	Five Guilders, do,.....	2 00
Half Guinea, do,.....	2 50	Ducat, do,.....	2 20

SILVER COINS.

Dollar, American,.....	\$1 00	Scudi, Sicily,.....	\$0 93
Halves and Quarters, in proportion.		Five Livre, Italy,.....	0 93
Dime,.....	0 10	Two Livre, do,.....	0 35
Half Dime,.....	0 05	One Livre, do,.....	0 17
Dollar, Spanish, Mexican, and Peruvian,.....	1 00	Five Livre, Sardinia,.....	0 93
Halves, Quarters, Eighths and Sixteenths, in proportion.		One Livre, do,.....	0 17
Dollar, Brazil,.....	1 00	Florin, Westphalia,.....	0 48
Four Reals of La Plata,.....	0 35	Florin, Brunswick and Lunenburg,...	0 48
Head Pistareen,.....	0 18	Florin, Tuscany,.....	0 20
Cross Pistareen,.....	0 16	Florin, Hanover,.....	0 50
English Crown,.....	1 15	Double Thaler, Baden,.....	1 32
English Half Crown,.....	0 57	Crown Thaler, do,.....	1 04
Bank Token, (three shillings Eng.)	0 50	Thaler of Baden and Hanover,....	0 66
Rupee, East India,.....	0 40	Thaler of Prussia,.....	0 66
British Colonial Quarter Dollar,...	0 23	Double Thaler, do,.....	1 32
English Shilling,.....	0 23	Imperial Thaler of Austria,.....	0 97
English Sixpence,.....	0 11	Rouble, Russia,.....	0 65
English Fourpence,.....	0 07	Crown Dollar of Bavaria,.....	1 04
English Threepence,.....	0 05	Double Guilder, do,.....	0 72
Tenpence, Irish,.....	0 12	German Crown,.....	1 04
French Crown,.....	1 07	Crown Thaler, Hesse,.....	1 04
French Half Crown,.....	0 50	Guilder of Nassau,.....	0 36
Five Francs, French,.....	0 93	Third of a Thaler,.....	0 20
Two Francs, do,.....	0 35	Quarter Florin, Netherlands,.....	0 08
One Franc, do,.....	0 17	Thirty-six Grotes, Bremen,.....	0 30
Half Franc, do,.....	0 08	Six Grotes, Hanse Towns,.....	0 04
Quarter Franc, do,.....	0 04	Specie Dollar, Norway,.....	1 04
		Specie Dollar, Sweden,.....	1 04
		Specie Rix Dollar, Denmark,.....	1 04

FREE BANKS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK:

THEIR CIRCULATION AND SECURITIES.

J. Thompson, exchange broker, has, with a vast deal of labor and research, prepared and published, in his "Bank Note List Reporter," of September 9th, several valuable tables, showing the circulation of each free bank in the State of New York, and also the amount of securities on deposit with the Comptroller for such circulation.

The public should bear in mind that no free bank can issue a dollar of circulation, except it be secured, registered, and countersigned, in the Comptroller's office; thus guarding the public (provided the securities are good) against loss.

Mr. Thompson has divided these banks into four classes. The first class are secured wholly by New York State stocks—making their notes safe under any event.

The second class are secured by bonds and mortgages, and New York State stocks. In case of the failure of this class, these notes would be worth from 90 to 100 cents on the dollar.

The third class are secured in part by Arkansas, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan stocks. They are, at present, well managed and safe; but should they fall into bad hands and fail, there would be a loss of from 10 to 40 per cent on their notes.

Of the fourth class, we are glad there are but few. The owners of these should substitute good securities with the Comptroller for their foreign stocks, or wind up.

I. BANKS SECURED WHOLLY BY NEW YORK STATE STOCK.

	Circulation.	Deposit.
Amenia Bank.....	\$77,179	\$78,082
Bank of Commerce, in New York.....	350,000	350,000
Bank of New Rochelle.....	50,382	50,382
Commercial Bank, Albany.....	105,500	170,000
Drovers' Bank, Cataraugus county.....	100,000	100,000
Exchange Bank, Buffalo.....	27,996	28,000
Merchants' Bank, Chataugue county.....	201,000	204,000
Farmers' and Mechanics', Ogdensburgh.....	394,586	394,677
Fulton Bank, in New York.....	250,400	256,141
Hungerford's Bank.....	63,992	64,000
Long Island Bank.....	175,147	175,153
Mechanics' Banking Association.....	367,458	369,750
Merchants' Bank, Canandaigua.....	86,666	86,666
Merchants' Bank, Erie county.....	25,000	25,000
Merchants' Bank, Poughkeepsie.....	129,998	130,000
Merchants' and Farmers' Bank, Putnam county.....	115,350	115,600
New York State Stock Security Bank.....	28,471	31,800
New York Stock Bank, Durham.....	107,922	108,159
North River Bank, New York.....	455,000	455,099
Oliver Lee & Co.'s Bank.....	200,000	200,000
Prattville Bank.....	100,000	100,000
Suffolk County Bank.....	94,097	95,215
Unadilla Bank.....	85,595	85,600
Warren County Bank.....	189,500	189,540
White's Bank, Buffalo.....	50,000	50,000
Franklin County Bank.....	94,970	94,970
Chemical Bank.....	321,052	325,106
Cuyler's Bank.....	58,869	59,870
Champlain Bank.....	105,000	105,000
Northern Bank of New York.....	173,005	173,005
Bank of Bainbridge.....	93,000	93,000
Farmers' Bank, Chataugue county.....	84,997	85,000
State Bank at Saugerties.....	62,881	62,883
Atlas Bank of New York.....	50,000	50,000
Rochester Bank.....	50,600	50,604
American Bank, Chataugue county.....	49,995	50,000
Commercial Bank, Alleghany county.....	49,995	50,000
Bank of Saratoga Springs.....	49,995	50,000
Franklin Bank, Chataugue county.....	49,995	50,000
Northern Exchange Bank.....	65,000	65,000
Bowery Bank.....	109,000	110,000

II. BANKS SECURED BY NEW YORK STATE STOCKS, AND BONDS AND MORTGAGES.

	Circulation.	Bonds and Mortgages.	New York State Stock.
Ballston Spa Bank.....	\$114,202	\$16,100	\$104,952
Bank of Vernon.....	66,537	16,550	50,000
Bank of Whitestown.....	82,550	27,550	55,000
Black River Bank.....	84,337	33,679	50,692
Commercial Bank, Troy.....	109,020	44,370	64,650
Exchange Bank, Lockport.....	61,101	30,969	31,710
Farmers' Bank, Amsterdam.....	65,986	23,900	37,100
Luther Wright's Bank.....	157,045	14,004	164,000
Kirkland Bank.....	50,000	15,000	35,000
Mohawk Valley Bank.....	131,438	37,970	93,668
Palmyra Bank.....	19,398	8,900	10,500
Patchin Bank.....	202,015	5,922	196,202
White Plains Bank.....	25,837	1,500	24,337
Wooster Sherman's Bank.....	39,366	19,325	20,047
Chester Bank.....	99,993	13,600	86,400

III. BANKS SECURED BY NEW YORK STATE STOCKS, STOCKS OF OTHER STATES, AND BONDS AND MORTGAGES.

	Circulation.	Bonds and mortgages.	New York State stock.	Stocks of oth. States.
Agricultural Bank.....	\$61,851	\$35,600	\$24,900	\$32,000
Albany Exchange Bank.....	90,400	38,850	15,000	58,000
Bank of Albion.....	63,500	37,355	26,000	9,000
Bank of Attica.....	50,000	31,018	14,628	15,000
Bank of Central New York.....	79,998	32,220	25,000	34,000
Bank of Dansville.....	111,672	54,300	41,000	50,000
Bank of Lowville.....	78,750	39,900	34,000	30,000
Bank of Silver Creek.....	81,103	36,790	34,000	20,000
Bank of Syracuse.....	170,500	85,263	20,000	100,000
Bank of Waterville.....	100,005	31,300	43,661	30,000
Commercial Bank, Rochester.....	230,000	118,650	81,450	70,000
Farmers' Bank, Hudson.....	96,500	48,700	10,000	50,000
Exchange Bank, Genesee.....	49,620	29,551	5,000	20,000
Farmers' and Drivers' Bank, Somers.....	58,226	18,400	9,000	50,000
Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank, Genesee.....	42,348	18,918	5,000	28,000
Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank, Rochester...	63,881	20,000	25,000	26,000
Fort Plain Bank.....	81,437	42,375	9,597	48,326
James' Bank.....	69,258	45,943	19,200	18,000
Lockport Bank, and Trading Company.....	76,543	66,060	3,455	34,000
Merchants' and Farmers' Bank, Ithaca.....	41,600	20,050	15,000	21,000
Middletown Bank.....	77,245	46,500	24,900	20,000
Pine Plains Bank.....	87,326	34,200	10,000	68,304
Powell Bank.....	111,052	48,560	42,575	15,000
American Exchange Bank.....	327,955	100,000	380,666
Delaware Bank.....	102,806	58,000	66,978

IV. BANKS SECURED BY BONDS AND MORTGAGES, AND STOCKS OF OTHER STATES.

	Circulation.	Bonds and mortgages.	Stocks of oth. States.
Bank of Corning.....	\$63,554	\$25,550	\$70,000
Bank of Watertown.....
Bank of Kinderhook.....	71,460	41,090	57,000
Genesee County Bank.....	43,190	46,000	25,000
Washington County Bank.....	58,764	29,031	50,000

UNITED STATES CUSTOMS REVENUE.

The new tariff went into operation on the 1st of December last; the nett proceeds under it (after deducting all expenses of collection,) actually paid into the Treasury during the first nine months of its operation, were \$22,961,333 28; being greater, by the sum of \$3,176,018 57, than the sum paid into the Treasury during the same period of nine

months, under the tariff of 1842; and exhibiting a gain, at the same ratio of increase, of \$4,224,691 42, of the first twelve months, under the tariff of 1846, as compared with the tariff of 1842.

The gross proceeds received by the Collector are much greater, as the expenses of collection are deducted before the money is paid into the Treasury, and recorded by the Register.

The following statement exhibits the receipts into the Treasury, (made up at the Treasury Department, Register's Office, Sept. 15, 1845,) from customs, during the under-mentioned periods:—

From the 1st October, 1845, to 1st July, 1846,.....	\$17,850,735 73
From the 1st October, 1846, to 1st July, 1847,.....	17,594,038 08
From the 1st December, 1845, to 31st August, 1846; and from the 1st of December, 1846, to 31st August, 1847, to wit:—	
During the month of December, 1845,.....	\$1,289,484 97
From 1st January to 30th June, 1846,.....	13,657,944 96
During the months of July and August, 1846,.....	4,847,884 78
	<hr/>
	\$19,795,314 71
During the month of December, 1846,.....	\$1,451,076 00
From the 1st January to 30th June, 1847,.....	13,952,845 86
During the months of July and August, 1847,.....	7,557,411 42
	<hr/>
	\$22,961,333 28

THE HOLLAND BUDGET OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENSES.

The annual budget of expenses for 1848 amounts to 71,530,835 florins, and for 1849 to 71,135,067 florins. To this sum must be added, for each of the two years, 500,000 florins, destined to cover unforeseen expenses. The budget is divided into eleven heads, as follows:—

	1848. Florins.	1849. Florins.
1. The King's household.....	1,250,000	1,250,000
2. Colleges of State.....	652,939	650,939
3. Ministry of Foreign Affairs.....	541,933	540,933
4. Ministry of Justice.....	2,490,734	2,491,364
5. Ministry of Interior.....	4,464,458	4,318,608
6. Protestant worship, &c.....	1,644,896	1,649,896
7. Popish worship, &c.....	562,478	562,376
8. Marine.....	5,545,632	5,352,632
9. (A.) National debt.....	36,294,040	36,274,715
9. (B.) Finances.....	6,315,129	6,878,909
10. War.....	11,675,000	11,675,000
11. Colonies.....	88,696	88,695

The budget of receipts for 1848 has been fixed at the sum of 71,679,514 florins, divided into thirteen heads, viz:—

	Florins.
1. Direct taxes.....	18,748,800
2. Excise.....	18,872,020
3. Indirect taxes.....	9,384,000
4. Import and export duties.....	4,716,000
5. Guarantee for bullion, &c.....	139,772
6. Domains.....	1,384,522
7. Post-office.....	1,330,000
8. Potteries.....	400,000
9. Hunting and fisheries.....	100,000
10. Produce of sales, &c.....	1,754,000
11. Rentes charged on Belgium.....	400,000
12. Reimbursements for the rentes of the East Indies.....	9,800,000
13. Pay of the Colonial Administration.....	4,650,000

Thus, a population of about 3,000,000 souls, already with a monstrous debt, amounting to 1,228,942,511—00 florins, the annual interest payable on which already amounts to a sum of 36,294,000—00 florins, will have to pay the State, annually, the sum of 71,679,514 florins, which is at the rate of almost 48 florins per head when paupers and children (say one-third) are deducted.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

FRANCIS HALL, Esq., one of the proprietors of the "Commercial Advertiser," while on a visit to England, was favored with an opportunity of examining "the interior and exterior of this mighty engine, which guides, in some measure, the commerce and political movements of Europe, if not of the world." Although we have published, in former volumes of the Merchants' Magazine, descriptions of the bank, the account of Mr. Hall is so brief, and yet comprehensive, we cannot resist the temptation of copying it entire:—

The Bank of England is an immense structure, covering five acres of ground, having no windows in either of its fronts, but receiving light from above, or from its courts. It is open for business at nine in the morning, and continues open until five in the afternoon—employing during these hours between nine hundred and one thousand persons. At seven o'clock in the evening a detachment of soldiers are marched from the "Tower" into the bank, where they mount guard until seven o'clock the next morning.

The bank has a capital of eighteen millions sterling, and is managed by governors, &c. Its notes are never re-issued by the bank, after being presented for payment. They may continue in circulation for any time, and pass from one bank to another; but, when presented to the bank for specie, the name of the person presenting must be endorsed, with his residence; then, after a careful examination, the note is paid and cancelled.

The printing, binding, &c., required by the bank and its branches, are done within the building by the most approved methods. The steam-presses and all the machinery are the best that can be obtained in England or Scotland.

So admirably arranged is everything, from the engine-room to the "bank parlor," that every room resembles a beautiful toy shop. No "stoker" or engine "driver" is required to attend the fire or look after the engine during the day. The fire is fed in the same manner that wheat is ground. In the morning a sufficient quantity is put into the "hopper," and that sends a regular supply into the grates or stoves, and nothing farther is required. The water is supplied in the same way; and should there be any want of water, by accident or otherwise, an alarm is sounded by a whistle.

Each note is printed on what is called one sheet of paper; the lowest denomination is five pounds, the highest one thousand. The paper is first counted to those whose duty it is to "wet it down." This is done by a steam process. After the paper is in a proper state to be worked, it is locked up in boxes and sent to an officer, who recounts it. It is then counted again in parcels of one hundred sheets, and put into boxes, which are locked and placed in a sliding case ready for the pressmen, who are at work above. These sheets are drawn up and printed, and returned in the same manner; every sheet worked registers itself, and it is as well known in the room below, what number A. B. is printing above, as by himself. If, by accident, A. B. "spoils a sheet," it must be marked as such, and every particle of the spoiled sheet sent down. Every note or bill passes through the hands of two sets of pressmen. First, they are printed without the number and date. Secondly, the number and date are added, when they are ready for the finishing touch, the signature of one of the cashiers. One of the most ingenious pieces of mechanism I have ever seen is that used to mark the number on each bill. There is no change of number by hand, but all is done by this machine, and by steam-power.

When the bills have passed through the hands of the printers, they are sent to the drying room, where they are again counted and dried; they are then put up into convenient packets, and sent to the cashier's room, for signature. Thence they go to the register's department, and from that office are brought back to "the treasury." Here they are kept in fire-proof iron cases, which cover all the sides of the room. The room itself is fire-proof, there being only one thing that can burn, the counter. On one side of this room the cases are filled with gold, tied up in bags, and on the other the bills in packages, convenient for the "paying tellers." There are two large locks to each case, and the keys are kept by separate officers, so that both must be present before any sum can be removed. I held in my hand, while in this room, *two millions sterling*, all ready to be put in circulation.

Each day from thirty to thirty-six thousand bills are printed. The ink is made in the bank, and it is of such a peculiar composition that, by its effect, together with that of the high-sized paper, the "blankets" used on the presses require to be washed by steam at least once a day. The highest number of the notes is 99,999. When that number is reached, they return to No. 1, with a new date. The pressmen and most of the machinists receive £3 per week; the females in the binding and ruling rooms, from fifteen shillings to one pound per week.

The clerks are paid good salaries after they have been some years in the service of the bank. They commence, however, at a low rate, but soon become "higher graduates," with an increased salary in the bank, or are transferred to one of its branches. The plan of personal security is frequently observed, as in the United States; but I was informed that there is an institution called the "guarantee fund," by which an individual, paying so much per month, becomes a member, and this institution is security for its members—thus securing the bank against loss, or the painful alternative of calling on personal security in case of mal-administration.

In one of the rooms ninety-seven clerks are employed, whose business it is to examine the notes by register, and so minute and accurate is the concern that it is known in the bank what notes are out, and who received them; and it is the practice of *all* bankers, in town or country, to take the number of each note before it is paid, and to whom paid. This is a work of time, but it gives great security.

In the bank there is a department called the weighing-room. Here two gentlemen are employed weighing sovereigns by steam. The scales are so constructed as to drop the light coin on the left, the full weight on the right. Those that fall on the left are taken out and cut by a machine, and returned to the local bank or individual from which they came; they are then sold to the bank for bullion, to be recoined.

There are several families residing in the bank, who have very comfortable accommodations. There is also a bank *kitchen*, as well as bank parlor. This is for the accommodation of the directors on duty, who may wish a cup of coffee, or a beef-steak, &c.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

PERUVIAN SILVER MINES.

FIRST DISCOVERY OF THE MINES—CARELESS MODE OF WORKING THEM—MINE-OWNERS AND MINE LABORERS—AMALGAMATION AND REFINING—PRODUCE OF THE MINES.

WE compile from Tschudi's "Travels in Peru, during the years 1835-1842," the following particulars of the silver mines, etc., of that country:—

History relates that about two hundred and fifteen years ago, an Indian shepherd, named Huari Capcha, tended his flocks on a small pampa, to the southeast of the Lake of Llauricocha, the mother of the great river Amazon. One day, when the shepherd had wandered farther than usual from his hut, he sought a resting-place on a declivity of the Cerro de Santiestevan, and when evening drew in, he kindled a fire to protect himself against the cold; he then lay down to sleep. When he awoke on the following morning, he was amazed to find the stone beneath the ashes of his fire melted, and turned to silver. He joyfully communicated the discovery to his master, Don Jose Ugarte, a Spaniard, who owned a hacienda in the Quebrada de Huariaca. Ugarte forthwith repaired to the spot, where he found indications of a very rich vein of silver ore, which he immediately made active preparations for working. In this mine, which is distinguished by the name of *La Descubridora*, (the discoverer,) silver is still obtained. From the village of Pasco, about two leagues distant, where already productive mines were worked, several rich mine-owners removed to Llauricocha; here they sought and discovered new veins, and established new mining works. The vast abundance of the ore, drew new speculators to the spot; some to work the mines, and others to supply the necessary wants of the increasing population. In this manner was rapidly founded a city, which, at times, when the produce of metal is very large, counts 18,000 inhabitants.

In Cerro de Pasco, there are two very remarkable veins of silver. One of them, the Veta de Colquirirca, runs nearly in a straight line from north to south, and has already been traced to the length of 9,600 feet, and the breadth of 412; the other vein is the Veta de Pariarirca, which takes a direction from east-southeast to west-northwest, and which intersects the Veta de Colquirirca precisely, it is supposed, under the market-place of the

city. Its known extent is 6,400 feet in length, and 380 feet in breadth. From these large veins numberless smaller ones branch off in various directions, so that a net-work of silver may be supposed to spread beneath the surface of the earth. Some thousand openings or mouths (*bocaminas*) are the entrances to these mines. Most of these entrances are within the city itself, in small houses; and some in the dwellings of the mine-owners. Many of them are exceedingly shallow, and not more than five hundred deserve the name of shafts. All are worked in a very disorderly and careless way; the grand object of their owners being to avoid expense. The dangerous parts in the shafts are never walled up, and the excavations proceed without the adoption of any measures of security. The consequence is, that accidents caused by the falling in of the galleries are of frequent occurrence; and every year the lives of numbers of Indian miners are sacrificed. A melancholy example of the effects of this negligence is presented by the now ruined mine of Matagente, (literally *Kill People*), in which three hundred laborers were killed by the falling in of a shaft. Tschudi descended into several of the mines, among others, the *Descubridora*, which is one of the deepest, and always felt that he had good reason to congratulate himself on returning to the surface of the earth in safety. Rotten blocks of wood and loose stones serve for steps, and, where these cannot be placed, the shaft, which, in most instances, runs nearly perpendicular, is descended by the help of rusty chains and ropes, whilst loose fragments of rubbish are continually falling from the damp walls.

The mine laborers, all of whom are Indians, are of two classes. One class consists of those who work in the mines all the year round without intermission, and who receive regular wages from the mine-owners;—the other class consists of those who make only temporary visits to Cerro de Pasco, when they are attracted thither by the *boyas*.* This latter class of laborers are called *maquipuros*. Most of them come from the distant provinces, and they return to their homes when the *boya* is at an end. The mine laborers are also subdivided into two classes, the one called *barreteros*, whose employment consists in breaking the ore; and the other called *hapires*, or *chaquiris*, who bring up the ore from the shaft. The work allotted to the *hapires* is exceedingly laborious. Each load consists of from fifty to seventy-five pounds of metal, which is carried in a very irksome and inconvenient manner in an untanned hide, called a *capacho*. The *hapiro* performs his toilsome duty in a state of nudity, for, notwithstanding the coldness of the climate, he becomes so heated by his laborious exertion, that he is glad to divest himself of his clothing. As the work is carried on incessantly day and night, the miners are divided into parties called *puntas*, each party working for twelve successive hours. At six o'clock, morning and evening, the *puntas* are relieved. Each one is under the inspection of a mayor-domo. When a mine yields a scanty supply of metal, the laborers are paid in money; the *barreteros* receiving six reals per day, and the *hapires* only four. During the *boyas* the laborers receive, instead of their wages in money, a share of the ore. The Indians often try to appropriate to themselves, surreptitiously, pieces of ore; but to do this requires great cunning and dexterity, so narrowly are they watched by the mayor-domos. Nevertheless, they sometimes succeed. One of the *hapires* related to me how he had contrived to carry off a most valuable piece of silver. He fastened it on his back, and then wrapping himself in his poncho, he pretended to be so ill, that he obtained permission to quit the mine. Two of his confederates, who helped him out, assisted him in concealing the treasure. The *polvorilla*, a dark powdery kind of ore, very full of silver, used to be abstracted from the mines by the following stratagem:—the workmen would strip off their clothes, and having moistened the whole of their bodies with water, would roll themselves in the *polvorilla*, which stuck to them. On their return home they washed off the silver-dust, and sold it for several dollars. But this trick being detected, a stop was soon put to it; for, before leaving the mines, the laborers are now required to strip, in order to be searched.

The operation of separating the silver from the dross, is performed at some distance from Cerro de Pasco, in haciendas, belonging to the great mine-owners. The process is executed in a very clumsy, imperfect, and, at the same time, a very expensive manner. The amalgamation of the quicksilver with the metal, is effected by the tramping of horses. The animals employed in this way, are a small ill-looking race, brought from Ayacucho and Cuzco, where they are found in numerous herds. The quicksilver speedily has a fatal effect on their hoofs, and, after a few years, the animals become unfit for work. The separation of the metals is managed with as little judgment as the amalgamation, and the waste of quicksilver is enormous. It is computed that on each mark of silver, half a pound of quicksilver is expended. The quicksilver, with the exception of some little brought from

* A mine is said to be in *boya* when it yields an unusually abundant supply of metal. Owing to the great number of mines in Cerro de Pasco, some of them are always in this prolific state. There are times when the *boyas* bring such an influx of miners to Cerro de Pasco, that the population is augmented to double or triple its ordinary amount.

Idria and Huancavelica, comes from Spain in iron jars, each containing about seventy-five pounds weight of the metal. In Lima, the price of these jars is from sixty to one hundred dollars each, but they are occasionally sold as high as one hundred and thirty-five or one hundred and forty dollars. Considering the vast losses which the Peruvian mine-owners sustain, by the waste of quicksilver, and the defective mode of refining, it may fairly be inferred, that their profits are about one-third less than they would be under a better system of management.

In Cerro de Pasco, there are places called *boliches*, in which the silver is separated from the dross by the same process as that practised in the haciendas, only on a smaller scale. In the *boliches*, the amalgamation is performed, not by horses, but by Indians, who mix the quicksilver with the ore by stamping on it with their feet for several hours in succession. This occupation they usually perform barefooted, and the consequence is, that paralysis and other diseases caused by the action of the mercury, are very frequent among the persons thus employed. The owners of the *boliches*, who are mostly Italians, are not mine proprietors. They obtain the metal from the Indians, who give them their *huachacas** in exchange for brandy and other articles. On the other hand, the owners of the *boliches* obtain the money required for their speculations from capitalists, who make them pay an enormous interest. Nevertheless, many amass considerable fortunes in the course of a few years; for they scruple not to take the most unjust advantage of the Indians, whose laborious toil is rewarded by little gain.

The law requires that all the silver drawn from the mines of Cerro de Pasco, shall be conveyed to a government smelting house, called the *Callana*, there to be cast into bars of one hundred pounds weight, to be stamped and charged with certain imposts. The value of silver in Cerro de Pasco, varies from seven to eight dollars per mark. The standard value in Lima is eight dollars and a half.

It is impossible to form anything like an accurate estimate of the yearly produce of the mines of Cerro de Pasco; for a vast quantity of silver is never taken to the *Callana*, but is smuggled to the coast, and from thence shipped for Europe. In the year 1838, no less than 85,000 marks of contraband silver were conveyed to the seaport of Huacho, and safely shipped on board a schooner. The quantity of silver annually smelted and stamped in the *Callana* is from 200,000 to 300,000 marks—seldom exceeding the latter amount. From 1784 to 1820, 1826, and 1827, the amount was 8,051,409 marks; in the year 1784, it was 68,208 marks; and in 1785, 73,455 marks. During seventeen years it was under 200,000 marks; and only during three years above 300,000. The produce of the mines is exceedingly fluctuating. The successive revolutions which have agitated the country, have tended very considerably to check mining operations. On the overthrow of Santa Cruz, Don Miguel Otero, the most active and intelligent mine-owner of Cerro de Pasco, was banished; an event which had a very depressing influence on all the mining transactions of that part of South America. Within the last few years, however, mining has received a new impetus, and attention has been directed to the adoption of a more speedy and less expensive system of amalgamation.

MANUFACTURE OF STOCKINGS.

A London journal, in an article upon foreign manufactures, has the following item in relation to the making of stockings:—

“It is not generally known, that the Chinese knit a considerable quantity of silk stockings by the hand, many of them as fine as twenty guage, the quality which was generally made in Europe previous to the year 1720. A very large quantity of cotton stockings are also hand-knitted in Hindostan, it being a general manufacture at Musilapatam, and in those vicinities where the Dutch and Tweed factories were established, though they are now under the dominion of the British. The received opinion is, that the Portuguese taught the Hindoos, as well as the Chinese, this art. Cotton stockings, as fine as thirty-four guage, are knit in India. They are beautiful articles, being made of hand-spun cotton, which is much levellier in the thread than mill-spun yarn. It is, in general, considered in the East, that spinning machinery is in its infancy; and in this opinion, a few of the ablest operative spinners of Manchester fully coincide, they being of opinion that the method first pursued by the colleague of Arkwright will finally supersede the draw frame and mule spinning.

* *Huachacas* are the portions of ore which are distributed among the Indians at the time of the boyas, instead of their wages being paid in money.

MAMMOTH STARCH FACTORY IN MICHIGAN.

We learn from the "*Detroit Free Press*," that Mr. Mawbry Chamberlain, of Vermont, removed to Almont, Lapeare County, Michigan, about two years since. Mr. C. carried on the business extensively in Vermont, and is still interested in two large establishments, managed by his brothers, near Windsor, Vt. It seems that he has now erected a factory in Almont, to carry on the manufacture of starch on a more extensive scale than at any similar factory at the East.

The factory is 214 feet long, and 40 feet wide, including an L. The main building is 134 feet long—14 of which are used for an engine-room—and is two stories high. The lower part has 64 tubs, holding about 600 gallons each, giving a total of 28,400 gallons. The L part is 80 feet long, by 40, of brick, one and a half stories high, for a potato-bin. Loaded teams drive up a platform into the second story; and, following a circle, 13 teams can unload at a time, through trap-doors over the bin, which is calculated to hold 40,000 bushels. One hundred and thirty loads have been received in a day, making a total of 4,000 bushels.

In the second story of the principal building is an oven, 100 feet long by 18 wide, for drying the starch—or rather, I should say, an oven of 200 feet by 9, as there is a division in the centre, with doors some 10 feet apart. In the oven, there are sets of pans, one above the other, which can be turned at pleasure. It is heated from the steam works, and conductors of heat are carried in tin pipes all over the building. The whole machinery is a specimen of so much ingenuity, that I cannot describe it. You must visit it—it is worth the journey. The proprietor, who is a gentleman much beloved here, kindly allows strangers to go through the establishment, and does not confine it to the sign, "no admittance," as at similar works in New England.

The potatoes are shovelled from a bin into a hopper, where there is water constantly running into it, and there they are as thoroughly washed by machinery, as a cook could do it for your dinner. Then, by the action of the machinery, they are separated from the dirt, stones, and sticks, and pass on to two cylinder graters, at the rate of 100 bushels an hour. From the graters, by the action of machinery, they go into the sieve that separates the starch from the potato. The pulp then passes into four large cisterns, and then, again, machinery pumps it into the 64 large tubs or cisterns, before alluded to, for settling. Then the water is drawn off, and the starch, by a forcing-pump, is carried into the second story, and, when settled, put into the oven I have before spoken of, which is calculated to bake a day's work—being the starch from 1,000 bushels, or 60,000 lbs. of potatoes. The starch is packed in casks, and shipped East. The cost of the factory is \$12,000.

Considerable starch was made last season, but the rotting of some 30,000 bushels of potatoes last fall, curtailed the quantity anticipated. This large quantity of the raw material was thrown away. It served to feed many cattle and hogs of the neighborhood for some months. The pulp remaining as worthless, is used in fattening hogs, which the proprietor has in a yard adjoining.

The factory price for potatoes is 10 cents a bushel. Mr. C. has contracted with various farmers to the amount of 400 acres. The average number of bushels raised last year on an acre was 275. Allowing the same this year, it will amount to over 100,000 bushels; but this is not half the quantity wanted. Farmers were unwilling to contract, fearing the rot. Present indications are good for the crop. All varieties are used, even the Rohan.

It takes the fall and winter to destroy the potatoes, then wheat and corn are used for the same purpose. The quantity made from the potato per year will not be far from 1,000,000 lbs., or 400 tons. It sells for \$5 a hundred in New York.

PASTEBOARD SHOES.

The "Artisan" describes a specimen of cheaterly in shoes, of which we had heard, but never supposed to be a fact:—

"The shoes are of the coarse brogan kind, such as sell at retail for \$1 00 and \$1 25. What is usually the sole, is, in this case, only very thin poor leather—it may be sheepskin. The welt is very thick coarse leather, to which both upper leather and sole are sewed or pegged; the deficiency inside is supplied by thick yellow pasteboard. The shoes thus appear to have very good stout soles. A very little wear carries away the thin skin of a sole, and the yellow pasteboard presents itself, and the cheaterly is thus exposed too late for the purchaser. We have seen all this—but we do not put it under the head of new inventions."

MINE OF COBALT AND NICKEL.

Nickel, from its scarcity, and the place it has taken in our manufactures in the formation of an alloy, as a substitute for silver, besides being applied to various other purposes in the metallic arts, has become a valuable and important metal. Its produce, as a commercial metal, has hitherto been confined to some valuable mines in Saxony, which (now at a depth of 450 feet,) are said to be declining in produce, while the cost of production has greatly increased. At Chatham, in the State of Connecticut, there is a mine of cobalt and nickel, first discovered and worked by some German settlers, for cobalt, but finding that nickel greatly preponderated—a metal whose properties were then unknown, and for which there was no market—the mine was abandoned. It afterwards became the property of Governor Seth Hunt, who, after about three years' exploration, during which period he obtained a considerable quantity of cobalt, abandoned it from the same cause. The strata in which the veins are situated is a soft mica slate formation, of the same kindly nature as those which occur in the valuable mines of Saxony, being much softer near the lode, which is always considered a promising feature. There seems to be no doubt as to the lodes continuing, or even improving, in depth; and from the present commercial value of both metals, the judicious working of this mine cannot but be attended with the most profitable results.

A POUND OF COTTON AND HALF A POUND OF IRON.

The following paragraph is not new; we have seen it in print a hundred times, more or less; but as we do not recollect having recorded it in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, and as it contains such an amount of information respecting the various processes that a pound of cotton had to undergo, before it appeared in the form of muslin, we venture to copy it, although it may seem rather trite to a large portion of our readers:—

"The cotton came from the United States to London. From London it went to Manchester, where it was made into yarn. From Manchester it was sent to Paisley, where it was woven. It was then sent to Ayrshire, where it was tumbled. After this it was conveyed to Dumbarton, where it was hand-seeded, and again returned to Paisley, from whence it was sent to Kurfew, a distant part of the country, to be bleached; and then it was again returned to Paisley, and afterwards returned to London by coach. It is calculated that this article was two years in getting to market from the time it was packed in this country, till the cloth arrived at the merchant's warehouse in London; and that it travelled 3,000 miles by sea and 920 miles by land; and, also, that it contributed to the support of no less than 150 persons, who were necessarily engaged in the carriage and manufacture of the small quantity of cotton, by which its value was increased to two thousand per cent."

"Half a pound of iron can be manufactured into 10,000 hair-springs, for watches, each worth two dollars, or \$20,000 for what originally cost only two to three cents. This is a vastly greater increase of value bestowed by labor, than in the above case, of a pound of cotton."

UNITED MEXICAN MINING ASSOCIATION.

From the report of the Association, recently made at its half-yearly meeting in London, we gather the following particulars of its affairs, which will be interesting to mining interests generally:—

"It appears that in the mine of Rayas, a considerable outlay had been incurred to keep the water out, so that the works might be prosecuted, and by the last report it had considerably diminished. The ore raised had been 52,462 cargoes, and the amount of receipts \$11,831. The coinage of 1845 had been \$729,820, and for 1846, \$757,680, showing an increase of \$27,860. With respect to the new mines, the directors had taken no decisive steps, but would act with caution. The works had been greatly impeded by the scarcity of quicksilver, and the difficulty of transit from the coast, owing to the unsettled state of the country. The general operations of the past year had produced \$71,400, less the expenses, \$29,850, leaving a balance of \$41,550, or in sterling £7,444 3s. 11d. The amount of good property abroad had been estimated at \$1,336,526, or £239,514 sterling. The surplus cash in hand was £4,719 17s. 3d."

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE MERCANTILE CHARACTER.

FROM THE PHILADELPHIA EVENING BULLETIN.

In all free countries, the merchants have played a distinguished part. In old Venice they were already dukes and princes at a period when the nobility of other lands were military chieftains. Florence owed her wealth and power to her merchants. It was commerce that raised Amsterdam to greatness. The merchants of England sit in her House of Lords, and hold the destinies of the realm in their potent hands. In fact, as civilization advances, commerce asserts her rightful claims to superior consideration over the rude and often unlettered military chieftain; and the men who develop the resources of a nation, and increase intelligence, as well as add to its physical comforts, are deservedly ranked highest as benefactors of mankind. It would be a curious study to trace, if we had time, the struggle in England between the mercantile interest and the landed aristocracy, the one seeking to obtain its due weight in government, the other laboring to keep down its aspiring rival. But the merchant, in the end, conquered the feudal baron. And had it not been for her merchants, England would long since have succumbed in one or another of her foreign wars. But for their gigantic resources, freely placed at the service of the State, Napoleon would have burnt her dock-yards and pulled down Westminster Hall.

The character of the *true* merchant deserves all of this eulogium. But in speaking of the merchant, we allude to the liberal and intelligent commercial man, not to the mean and narrow-minded. A merchant of enlarged views, like Abbot Lawrence, of Boston, has no superior in any walk of life; and there are men of the same stamp in Philadelphia, though, perhaps, it would be indelicate to name them here. Such a man, especially if engaged in a foreign trade, is really better informed for all the higher purposes of legislation, and has altogether more comprehensive views, than most of our professed statesmen. His business relations force him to keep up with the changes in other countries. He must know the settled and unsettled condition of their governments, their native products and manufactures, the habits and mode of life of the people, else he cannot make shipments with any prospect of success. In the late difficulty with Brazil, when all persons begun to inquire respecting that empire—and we must say that the general ignorance regarding Brazil, considering its immense resources, and the fact that it is the United States of South America, is very reprehensible—the shipping merchants were the only class of our citizens who could furnish any correct account of the people and government there. We would give more for the opinion of an able merchant on any affair relating to our foreign relations, than for that of all the lawyers, politicians, and professed statesmen we have, if we except one or two illustrious names.

So of our merchants of intelligence engaged in the Western trade. They do not confine themselves to the mere acquisition of a fortune, to the amassing cent per cent, but enlarge their minds by a knowledge of the peculiarities and resources of the great West. Their business frequently calling them abroad, they have opportunities to compare the social condition of Europe with that of America, the relative progress of inventions in each, the spread of intelligence, the extension of liberal principles, and all those other great questions in which every generous and observing mind may be presumed to take an interest. Unfortunately, all do not avail themselves of these advantages. There are, and we speak it with regret, merchants who neglect those occasions for improving the mind and heart, who make money their god, and who spend a long life with every energy devoted solely to acquiring that gold which is only to be a subject of quarrel among their descendants. Such persons are like crazed wanderers, passing through a pleasant country, and taking no note of the beautiful scenery around, so intensely are they absorbed in their childish and foolish thoughts; or, like the man in the Pilgrim's Progress, who raked among dust and ashes for dross, while an angel overhead vainly offered him a golden crown. For nothing is more true, than that an undivided attention to the acquisition of wealth stifles our social sympathies, debases the intellect, and lays up, as the scriptures solemnly express it, "much store of sorrows" for after days. The man who makes himself a slave to money, wins for his prize the Dead Sea apple—"golden without, but ashes within."

LAWS FOR THE COLLECTION OF DEBTS.

In republishing the following remarks, which originally appeared in the "*Dry-Goods Reporter*," we are not prepared to express an opinion as to the propriety of repealing all laws for the collection of debts, and placing the credit system entirely on the basis of character, although we have frequently heard experienced merchants and business men express opinions in accordance with the views entertained by the writer. The discussion of the subject can do no harm, and will, perhaps, tend to promote the interests of debtor and creditor, which, in our view, are identical:—

The opinion that the creditor community would suffer less loss, and that business operations would be placed on a sounder basis, by the abolition of laws for the collection of debts, seems, of late years, on the increase, though we know of no trial that has been given to this new scheme of reformation; we are aware that no precedent for it can be found among any of the nations of antiquity. The Roman and Grecian laws were especially severe and rigorous, and the laws of the Hebrews were clear, simple, and efficient, and in nothing do they differ so much from our own as in these characteristics.

Imprisonment for debt was unknown among them, and they were equally free from those long and expensive modes of procedure for the collection of debt, (which are known to many of our readers to their cost.) Among the Israelites a debtor might be sold as a bound slave for the payment of his debts. All modern nations have, we believe, without exception, laws on this subject of more or less rigor, but none less than our own State.

The question, however, is not as to the perfection or imperfection of our own laws, but whether the interest of the whole community would be advanced by their entire abolition, leaving each party to the good faith, pecuniary responsibility, and integrity of the one with whom he deals. Such a movement would, doubtless, be attended with a very salutary influence upon the system of credit so extravagantly extended in our business community; its effect would be to awaken more caution in the seller as to the character and responsibility of the buyer, as well as to check a spirit of wild speculation, always the result of great facilities for obtaining credit. In this its influence would be healthy and most desirable. Our own experience has led us to the conclusion that a rogue will only pay *what and when he pleases*, and the honest man will pay *as soon as he can, and all that he can*.

The national bankrupt law of 1841 was no doubt abused to a very great extent, but still quite an army of honest and willing but unfortunate debtors were enabled, through its operations, to again commence the world, wiser and better men; men who had the disposition to pay, but who were crushed under a load of debts, judgments, and creditors' bills, and who were as much debarred from the exercise of their talents, even to gain a respectable livelihood (to say nothing of paying their debts,) as the poor Indian was, when incarcerated at Albany, in default of the payment of a certain number of beaver skins, (then taken as currency,) whose common-sense remark strikes home, "that the prison was a mighty bad place to catch beaver!" A wrong view is often taken of the operation of the bankrupt law. It is true we find that \$441,000,000 of indebtedness was liquidated, and that the assets were small. The State of New York came in for \$172,000,000 of this sum, and the Southern District alone was represented by debtors to the amount of \$120,000,000, from which \$140,000 were realized, after deducting \$110,000—*only* \$110,000, for legal and judicial proceedings!

The amount of loss to creditors, nominally, was very large; but it is a question by no means clear whether the creditor is not in a better position now than before the passage of that act.

Although we believe no law should be made which will be retrospective in its operations, yet we think that the bankrupt law was in force just long enough to achieve all the mischief which could accrue from it, and was repealed before its beneficent workings could be appreciated. And to those who take a different view of this subject, we can only urge that a vigorous prevention would be preferable to a wonderful cure wrought by this act.

It is true, that under a total abolition of all laws for the collection of debts, designing men would be found who would lay themselves out to cheat and practise upon the credulity of the unsuspecting. But are we free from this now? Do the various laws, as they exist, protect the merchant now? We have laws, it is true, and any one who has had occasion to collect a debt by legal process can fully appreciate their beauties. That a stringent law against false representation, and the total abolition of all laws coercing, would do a vast deal towards the regulation of credits and trade generally, is the opinion of many of our shrewd and experienced merchants.

MAMMON AND MANHOOD:

A HOMILY FOR MERCANTILE MEN.

The Scripture speaketh not in vain in saying, that "the love of money is the root of all evil," for there is not an evil under the sun, to the commission of which men are not prompted by the love of money; and yet, notwithstanding all the light on this subject given in the Scriptures, and confirmed by general experience, men everywhere are occupied in the constant and keen pursuit of wealth, and the prime object with the many is to obtain it, and to push their families forward in the unhappy race of avarice and aggrandizement. For money, men sacrifice domestic comfort, health, character, and even hazard life itself; for it they are guilty of fraud, deception, and robbery. For money, they sacrifice friendship, gratitude, natural affection, and every holy and divine feeling. For money, man becomes a creeping, crawling, obsequious creature, instead of walking erect as the offspring of man. Mammon and Manhood are incompatible. Why all this anxiety about money? Why this constant fever, this pushing and driving in order to obtain it? Even because men form a false estimate of *Life* and its elements. "A man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the things which he possesseth." He who would live, must stir up the divine fire that is in him, to consume selfishness, and to dispense the light and heat to all around. Money he may seek in moderation, as a means, not as an end; and in order to preserve his manhood, he must learn to practise self-denial and economy, and to be contented with small things; above all, he must remember that God has set honor upon his labor, by appointing man to live by labor; labor is truly honorable, and however mean the occupation may be, if honest, it is never disgraceful. Instead, therefore, of sinking Manhood in the pursuit of Mammon, by creeping, crawling, and bending to every one whom you may imagine can help you forward in the race of worldly advancement, stand *erect*, determine in the strength of God to be a MAN, to buy the truth at whatever cost, and never sell it for any price; to labor at any work, if needful, to speak what is in thy heart, and never to creep, and crawl, and mutter. God helps those who help themselves.

METHOD IN TRADE CARRIED TO PERFECTION:

OR, THE MANNER OF CONDUCTING BUSINESS IN A DRY-GOODS STORE IN PHILADELPHIA.

We find the following interesting account of the mode of conducting business arrangements in a dry-goods store in Philadelphia, in the columns of a Southern Journal. Precision in such matters begets thrift and prosperity, and we hope the precepts of the annexed article may be universally carried out in business communities:—

The amount of sales made at this store, is about \$300,000 annually; each department in the store is alphabetically designated. The shelves and rows of goods in each department are numbered, and upon the tag attached to the goods, is marked the letter of the department, the number of the shelf and row on that shelf to which such piece of goods belongs. The cashier receives a certain sum extra per week, and he is responsible for all worthless money received. Books are kept, in which the sales of each clerk are entered for the day, and the salary of the clerk cast, as a per centage on each day, week and year, and, at the foot of the page, the aggregate of the sales appear, and the per centage that it has cost to effect these sales, is easily calculated for each day, month or year. The counters are designated by an imaginary color, as the blue, green, brown, &c., counter. The yard-sticks and counter-brush belonging to it, are painted to correspond with the imaginary color of the counter; so, by a very simple arrangement, each of these necessities is kept where it belongs; and should any be missing, the faulty clerks are easily known.

All wrapping paper coming into the store is immediately taken to a counter in the basement, where a lad attends with a pair of shears, whose duty it is to cut the paper into pieces to correspond with the size of the parcels sold at the different departments, to which he sees that it is transferred. All pieces too small for this, even to the smallest scraps, are by him put into a sack, and what is usually thrown away by our merchants, yields to this systematic man some \$20 per year. In one part of the establishment is a tool closet, with a work-bench attached; the closet occupies but little space, yet in it we notice almost every useful tool, and this is arranged with the hand-saw to form the centre, and the smaller tools radiating from it in sun form; behind each article is painted, with black paint, the shape of the tool belonging in that place.

It is, consequently, impossible that anything should be out of place except through design; and if any tool is missing, the wall will show the shadow without the substance. Such is the salutary influence exerted by order, that those who enter this employ habitu-

ally careless and reckless, are reformed entirely; and system, which before was irksome, has become to them a second nature. The proprietor's desk stands at the farther end of the store, raised on a platform facing the front, from which he can see all the operations in each section of the retail department. From this desk run tubes, connecting with each department of the store, from the garret to the cellar, so that if a person in any department, either porter, retail or wholesale clerk, wishes to communicate with the employer, he can do so without leaving his station. Pages are kept in each department to take the bill of parcels, together with the money paid; and return the bill receipted, and change, if any, to the customer. So that the salesman is never obliged to leave the counter; he is at all times ready either to introduce a new article, or watch that no goods are taken from his counter, excepting those accounted for.

His peculiar method of casting the per centage of a clerk's salary on his sales, enables him at all times, (coupling it with the clerk's general conduct, and the style of goods he is selling,) to form a just estimate of the relative value of the services of each, in proportion to his salary. By the alphabetic arrangement of departments, numbering of shelves, and form of the tools, any clerk, no matter if he has not been in the store more than an hour, can arrange every article in its proper place, and at any time, if inquired of respecting, or referred to by any clerk, the proprietor is able to speak understandingly of the capabilities and business qualities of any of his employees. He has brought up some of the best merchants at present engaged in the trade, who do honor to the profession as well as their tutor.

WHAT A MERCHANT SHOULD BE.

FROM GILBERT'S LECTURES ON ANCIENT COMMERCE.

A merchant should be an honorable man. Although a man cannot be an honorable man without being an honest man, yet a man may be strictly honest without being honorable. Honesty refers to pecuniary affairs; honor refers to the principles and feelings. You may pay your debts punctually, you may defraud no man, and yet you may act dishonorably. You act dishonorably when you give your correspondents a worse opinion of your rivals in trade than you know they deserve. You act dishonorably when you sell your commodities at less than their real value, in order to get away your neighbor's customers. You act dishonorably when you purchase at higher than the market price, in order that you may raise the market upon another buyer. You act dishonorably when you draw accommodation bills, and pass them to your banker for discount, as if they arose out of real transactions. You act dishonorably in every case wherein your external conduct is at variance with your real opinions. You act dishonorably if, when carrying on a prosperous trade, you do not allow your servants and assistants, through whose exertions you obtain your success, to participate in your prosperity. You act dishonorably if, after you have become rich, you are unmindful of the favors you received when poor. In all these cases there may be no intentional fraud. It may not be dishonest, but it is dishonorable conduct.

COMMERCE OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Papers lately received, furnish us with some interesting details of the trade of the colony, extracted from the annual report of the committee of the Commercial Exchange for the years 1846-7. According to the comparison made in this document, it appears that the value of imports has exceeded those of the previous year by £124,860 9s., of which £50,000 was specie for military expenditure. The exports, it is stated, have fallen below 1845-6, by £29,882 13s. 6d. The great increase in local consumption is established by the fact that, whereas the collections of the customs department last year were not more than £85,119 17s. 5d., they have risen this year to the amount of £100,759 12s. 10d.—an improvement nearly equal to 18 per cent. The tables of export show a decrease in the articles of aloes, tallow, and wine, and an increase in wool, skins, hides, and ivory. The number of vessels visiting the colony was less by 144 than those reported in the former year, and this decrease was attributed to the comparative suspension of the guano trade, and the fines hitherto enforced under the provisions of the Merchant Seamen's Act.

☞ The judicious reader of our "Commercial Chronicle and Review," will have read *lbs.*, for *bales*, in a table of "exports of cotton from the United States," on page 295, of the September number; also, on page 296, first line, "England," for the United States.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Commentaries on the Laws of England; in Four Books; with an Analysis of the Work.* By SIR WILLIAM BLACKSTONE, Knt., one of the Justices of the Court of Common Pleas. With the Last Corrections of the Author, and Notes from the Twenty-First London Edition. With Copious Notes, Explaining the Changes in the Law Effected by Decision on Statute, down to 1844. Vol. I. By J. F. HARGRAVE, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. Together with Notes, adapting the work to the American Student. By JOHN L. WENDELL, late State Reporter of New York. 4 vols., 8vo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Any notice of Blackstone's Commentaries, at this late day, would be, on our part, a work of supererogation. It is a standard of the highest authority, and the contents of the work must be familiar to every well-read law student in the land. It becomes us, therefore, at this time, to speak only of the present edition, which, we have no hesitation in saying, is the best and most perfect that has yet been published. It comprises all that is valuable in the editions of Christian and Chitty, and the proprietors have rendered it the most perfect that has hitherto appeared; and, without injuring the integrity of a work which has taken a high and permanent place in our standard literature, to present, both to non-professional readers and to students, a complete and faithful guide to the principles of the laws of England as they are now administered. To this end, they have provided ample time for preparation, and have not thrown upon one editor the overwhelming labor and responsibility of reviewing critically the entire body of the law; a task to which, it may safely be said, the acquirements of no single lawyer of the present day would be adequate, to such extent and complexity has the system attained, and so universal is the custom of confining professional study and practice to some particular branch of the law. Each book has, therefore, been confided to a distinct editor, practically conversant with the subject to which it relates. The text of this classical work is preserved without mutilation or addition, and has been rendered as pure and correct as possible, by being collated with that of the edition published in 1783, which was prepared by Dr. Burn, from the copy containing the author's last corrections. The author's notes and references, also, have been carefully verified in every possible instance. The editors have, in their notes, endeavored, in the first place, to correct the few original oversights of the author; in the next place, to state the alterations in the law since the time of Blackstone, so far as they affect the text; and, lastly, to expand such passages as did not seem sufficiently full, and to explain such as did not seem sufficiently clear for an elementary work. To the above have been added notes, adapting the work to the American student, by showing the law as it exists in this country under our institutions, and as it has been changed by legislative enactments, particularly in the State of New York; and also pointing out the diversities in the common law, as held in England and in this country, in the few instances in which a difference prevails. These notes are by John L. Wendell, Esq., late State Reporter of New York, and editor of the last American edition of "Starkie on Slander."

- 2.—*Beauties of the Bible, Selected from the Old and New Testaments, with Various Remarks and Brief Dissertations. Designed for the Use of Schools and the Improvement of Youth.* By EZRA SAMPSON. 18mo., pp. 366. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We are not remarkably partial to "Beauties," selected for our admiration, especially those of the Bible; but, in our school-boy days, we read from this collection of scriptural extracts, and as it is more convenient, and contains so many interesting narratives, sublime and beautiful passages from "holy writ," we can see no objection to its introduction into our common and other schools. Several attempts have been made, since its first appearance, in 1800, to prepare similar works; but in our judgment this is the least exceptionable—indeed, it is the best compilation of the kind that has yet been made.

- 3.—*Louis the Fourteenth, and the Court of France in the Seventeenth Century.* By Miss PARDOE, author of "The City of the Sultan," etc. In 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 1,067. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The reign of Louis XIV., of France, is regarded by the writer of this work, and, we believe, very generally, politically, socially, and morally, as the most striking which that country has ever known. Miss Pardoe does not pretend to give a complete historical record of the century of Louis XIV., as the term would be understood by statesmen and politicians. She passes lightly over the campaigns, the battles, and the intrigues of the several European cabinets. Her aim was simply to display, more fully than had been done before, the *domestic* life of the "Great Monarch," and pass in review the wits, the beauties, and the poets of his court. For this purpose, she selects, from the stores of the many biographies of the time, all that may tend to perfect the portraiture. The materials for the work were ample, and she has grouped only such facts and anecdotes as were fully authenticated, either by one of the chroniclers of the time, or verified by some competent recent authority. The work will be more interesting to a larger class of readers, than the elaborated history, with all its tedious details. The volumes are well printed, and illustrated with handsome and appropriate engravings.

- 4.—*Story of the Battle of Waterloo.* By the Rev. G. R. GLEIG, M. A. 12mo., pp. 310. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have no great sympathy for parsons who carry the Bible in one hand and the Sword in the other; or Rev. authors, who become the historians of war, and waste their energies and expend their genius in the glorification of military heroes. Such ministers of the "Prince of Peace" seem to us out of their element—they appear to be fulfilling a mission somewhat at variance with that divine one for which they were sent. But if the Rev. Mr. Gleig is as much at home in sermonizing, as in relating the story of the battle of Waterloo, he must be an eloquent and popular preacher, for he has really given us a very graphic and thrilling account of the events of that memorable battle. We have read enough of the work to satisfy us that it contains the most comprehensive and readable account of the campaign that has yet been published, and as such we commend it to those who have little time to throw away on more detailed descriptions.

- 5.—*Napoleon; His Army and His Generals; their Unexampled Military Career. With a Sketch of the French Revolution.* By an American. Illustrated with numerous elegant engravings. 12mo., pp. 422. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

The present volume is designed, no doubt, to gratify a taste in the public mind for military exploits, which the existing war with Mexico has created, or rather revived, in this country. Of the utility of such publications, in fostering a correct and Christian spirit in society, it is quite unnecessary for us to speak. The design of the work, so far as the compiler is concerned, is to give the reader a faithful narrative of those great military operations, which agitated Europe for a period of twenty years. In the prosecution of this object, he appears to have consulted previous works on the subject, and has presented a condensed, but comprehensive narrative of the events, and men who figured most conspicuously in those scenes of blood and murder. In drawing from Scott, Lockhart, Clark, and other English authors, comments upon the political character and acts of Napoleon, evidently partaking of the natural feelings of those writers, have judiciously been avoided; thus leaving the naked narrative for every one to study with an unbiassed mind.

- 6.—*Chambers' Miscellany of Useful and Entertaining Knowledge.* Edited by ROBERT CHAMBERS, author of the "Cyclopedia of English Literature." Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln. New York: Berford & Co.

We have received the first two numbers of this popular work, which is to be republished here in thirty numbers, uniform, in size and style, with the Edinburgh edition. Three numbers complete a volume of over 500 pages of useful and entertaining matter, suited to every class of readers. The thirty numbers, when completed, will form a series of ten volumes.

- 7.—*The Public Men of the Revolution. Including Events from the Peace of 1783 to the Peace of 1815. In a Series of Letters.* By the late Hon. WILLIAM SULLIVAN, LL.D. With a Biographical Sketch of the Author, and Additional Notes. By his son, JOHN T. S. SULLIVAN. 8vo., pp. 463. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Thirteen years have elapsed since this work was first published in the life-time of the author. At that period, it attracted a large share of the attention of the public mind, and was a fruitful topic of discussion in political and literary circles; and the impressions it made upon our mind, in regard to certain prominent men (particularly Mr. Jefferson) of the revolution, have often recurred to us with a freshness that time has not been able to efface. We heartily thank all concerned, for re-producing a work so well calculated to shed light upon the characters and motives of the men most conspicuous in the early political history of our institutions. Mr. Sullivan was a Federalist, and, of course, an apologist for that party, which has long since been merged in new organizations of republicanism. It is due to the worthy patriots and disinterested statesmen who composed the Federal party, that their motives should be known, and the principles they advocated understood; and we are, therefore, we repeat, glad that this work has been re-produced, at a time and in a form that will be likely to secure for it a permanent place in all our public libraries. We consider it a most valuable contribution to the political history of the country, and one which reflects a more faithful picture of the public characters of that epoch, than any yet made to our literature.

- 8.—*Tim's Fortnight Ramble, and other Poems.* By THOMAS MACKELLAR, author of "Droppings from the Heart." 12mo., pp. 216. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The leading poem, which occupies little more than one-half the volume, though somewhat desultory, is the most readable that we have met with for a long time. It is written in an agreeable vein, and embraces the descriptive, the humorous, and the pathetic, and the transition from one to the other is easy and natural. In the domestic and miscellaneous pieces, which occupy the remaining pages, pure and generous sentiments are expressed in chaste and simple words. Indeed, without great pretension, Mr. Mackellar is a poet that will "gather in" a class of readers that any poet might be proud to acknowledge as his admirers.

- 9.—*Passages from the History of Liberty.* 18mo., pp. 278. Boston: William D. Ticknor & Co.

We like the title of this book; and we like the subject, and the manner of treating it. A portion, the first, is devoted to the early Italian reformers, who labored for liberty, peace, and their country; another, John de Wycliffe; and another, to the reforms of Savonarola; and the closing part to the war of the communities of Castile. The author hardly deems it necessary to explain the connection between the passages, drawn all from one great stream of history, which are embraced in his little volume. The efforts of the first Italian reformers, he justly considers as illustrations of the isolation and trials of the dark ages; Wycliffe's work, as a work of natural principles, just beginning, in his time, to be acknowledged by his countrymen of England; Savonarola's reforms, as expressing the desires for peace and purification, which were in all true hearts, during a period of so much strife and so many stains, as that period of transition from the middle ages to our modern times; and finally, the Castilian war, as one among numerous histories concerning the same desires for juster principles and larger life. The author has brought to his work those rare qualities of mind and heart, which alone impart a value and give an interest to it. With no mean culture of the intellect, a comprehensive mind, and a heart strong in the love of history, the author groups, as it were, the ideas of history, rather than the incidents and details, and thus furnishes us with a book of suggestions for men of thought. Facts are useful in their place; but, without philosophic deduction, they are like the body without the soul—of little or no account.

- 10.—*Appleton's Railroad and Steamboat Companion; being a Travellers' Guide through New England and the Middle States, with Routes in the Southern and Western States, and also in Canada. Forming, likewise, a Complete Guide to the White Mountains, Catskill Mountains, etc., Niagara Falls, Trenton Falls, etc., Saratoga Springs, and other Watering-Places, etc., etc. Illustrated with numerous Maps and Engravings.* By W. WILLIAMS. 18mo., pp. 235. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In the preparation of this work, the compiler has wisely, we think, abandoned the old plan of filling the pages with tables of routes, which, from their complexity, it is so difficult to trace or understand; and, instead of a general map, the accompaniment of the old guides—which, from the smallness of the scale on which it is graduated, is of very little use in a railroad car, and which, from its size, and the necessity of its being opened and re-opened, folded and re-folded, is extremely inconvenient in a crowded conveyance—for this work, maps of the several routes are engraved; and where it is a long one, the route has been continued on another map, in such a way as to be easily understood. The whole arrangement of the information embodied in this book, is admirably adapted to the purposes for which it was intended; and the materials, which appear to have been gathered from the most authentic sources, and the result of actual observation, furnish information that is at once recent and reliable. It is, in our opinion, the best guide-book that has yet been published in this country.

- 11.—*The Principles of Nature, Her Divine Revelations, and a Voice to Mankind.* By and through ANDREW JACKSON DAVIS, the "Poughkeepsie Seer," and "Clairvoyant." In Three Parts. 8vo., pp. 782. New York: S. S. Lyon & Wm. Fishbough.

This is certainly an extraordinary work—the most, perhaps, that has appeared during the present century. It purports to "consist of the consecutive reasonings and revelations of a spirit freed, by a certain physical process, the philosophy of which is explained, from the obstructing influence of the material organization, and exalted to a position which gave access to a knowledge of the structure and laws of the whole material universe." Aside from this claim, it is a most remarkable production, and would be so considered, if it had been put forth without such pretensions, which we do not mean to say are not well-founded. For boldness of conception, and comprehensiveness of plan, so far as we know, it is without a parallel in the history of literature, philosophy, and religion. It discusses all these subjects with the most perfect freedom. We learn thus much by the casual reading of parts. It has, of course, received from reviewers all sorts of treatment. The religious sentiments it inculcates, have been denounced as infidel by the great body of orthodox theologians, and, of course, lauded by free-thinkers as the very essence of truth. It seems to take in the whole range of human knowledge, and, not content with our earth, the author visits other planets and other worlds, and discourses to us of their inhabitants and their peculiarities. But this is not the place, had we space, to give an idea of the contents of the volume, much less to express an opinion of its claims to credence as a revelation of nature, or its merits as a production of the human mind. We have no fear, however, of commending it to the curious, although that is scarcely necessary, as they, no doubt, are much in advance of us on this head. The friends of old and well-established truth, have nothing to fear from whatever errors Mr. Davis may have "revealed;" for we believe, with one of his axioms, "that any theory, hypothesis, philosophy, sect, creed, or institution, that fears investigation, openly manifests its own error."

- 12.—*The History, Manners, and Customs of the North American Indians.* 18mo., pp. 245. New York: Robert Carter.

This is a reprint from a work published by the "London Religious Tract Society," and appears to be compiled from the works of our countryman, Catlin. It abounds in pictorial illustrations of Indian life and scenery, more spirited in design than beautiful in execution. The English author has adopted the familiar form of the dialogue, and the American editor has omitted such parts of the work as seemed to him irrelevant, or not well authenticated.

- 13.—*Reminiscences of Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and Robert Southey.* By JOSEPH COTTLE. 12mo., pp. 378. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

These brief memorials of Mr. Coleridge and Mr. Southey, were written by Mr. Cottle, the same individual who, more than *half a century* before, contributed his efforts to assist and encourage them, in their first entrance on a literary life. The work is founded on letters and various memoranda, that, for the most part, had lain in a dormant state for many years, and which were preserved as mementos of past scenes personally interesting, but without, in the first instance, the least reference to ultimate publication. Such is the account we derive from the statements of Mr. Cottle. Those who delight to study the history of the human mind, in its moral and intellectual developments, will find in these pages a rich legacy of rare and varied instruction. The private letters of Coleridge and Southey, undoubtedly disclose a faithful portrait of the intellectual life of two of the most eminently gifted men to be found in the annals of English literature—of men, to quote from a letter of Southey to Cottle, who “write in sincerity, and with the desire of teaching others so to think and to feel, as may be best for themselves and the community, and laboring as much in their vocation as if they were composing sermons, or delivering them from the pulpit.”

- 14.—*Woman, Her Education and Influence.* By MRS. HUGO REID. With a General Introduction. By Mrs. C. M. KIRKLAND. “Can man be free, and woman be a slave?” With numerous illustrations. 18mo., pp. 100. New York: Fowler & Wells’ Phrenological Cabinet, 131 Nassau-street.

This is an excellent work, and one that cannot be too generally read and studied, not only by women of all ages and conditions, but by every intelligent friend of human progress, of either sex. The original work, we were not surprised to learn, had been translated into the principal languages of Europe, and deservedly gained for the author a substantial reputation. Following an introductory chapter from the pen of Mrs. Kirkland, Mrs. Reid’s essay is divided into eleven chapters, in which she treats of the imperfections of society; the power of female influence; woman’s sphere; domestic duties; woman’s claims to equal rights; injustice of laws relating to woman; education of woman, etc.; which she discusses with great force, clearness, and ability. Mrs. K.’s introduction, and the additions made to the present issue, render it the most desirable edition of the work that has yet been published.

- 15.—*The True Story of My Life: a Sketch.* By HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN. Translated by MARY HOWITT. 18mo., pp. 298. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

No literary labor, says Mrs. Howitt, is more delightful to me than translating the beautiful thoughts and fancies of Hans Christian Andersen. The true story of his life, she adds, will not be found the least interesting of his writings; for it furnishes the key, as it were, to all the rest; and the treasures that it unlocks will be found to be possessed of an additional value, when viewed through the medium of this introduction. The fact that Mrs. Howitt saw fit to translate the work, will be a sufficient inducement for many to read the volume; which, we confess, we have not yet found time to do; but one who has, and in whose judgment we place the most implicit confidence, assures us that it is one of the most interesting and instructive books of the day. The original author has a personal interest, not only in the London edition, but in the American reprint; so that every copy sold will add something to his coffers or comfort.

- 16.—*Solitude Sweetened; or, Miscellaneous Meditations on Various Religious Subjects, Written in Distant Parts of the World.* By JAMES MEIKLE, late Surgeon at Corneth. 12mo., pp. 286. New York: Robert Carter.

This work is highly recommended by a large number of the orthodox clergy, for “the warm spirit of living devotion which breathes through it,” and as exhibiting “a very happy talent in the author, in deducing from the phenomena of nature, and from the ordinary occurrences of life, much religious instruction, in an unostentatious and pleasing style.” It embraces one hundred and forty-seven meditations on various subjects.

- 17.—*The History of Sunday-Schools, and of Religious Education, from the Earliest Times.* By LEWIS G. PRAY. 12mo., pp. 262. Boston: William Crosby & H. P. Nichols.

The design of this little volume is to furnish a brief history of religious education, from the earliest times down to the establishment of Sunday-schools, and to trace their rise, progress, and influence. In the preparation of the work, accuracy and brevity, rather than fulness, completeness, or originality, seem to have been kept in view, and the author has brought out the most important facts prominently, and within a narrow compass. It will be interesting to the friends and patrons of Sunday-schools, who will doubtless find a confirmation of their faith in the benefits which are likely to arise from the countenance and extension of Sunday-schools, and religious education in general.

- 18.—*The Organization of Labor and Association.* By MATTHEW BRIANCOURT. Translated by FRANCIS GEO. SHAW. 18mo., pp. 102. New York: Wm. H. Graham.

The subject of association, on the plan of Charles Fourier, is ably discussed in this pamphlet. The miseries of the present condition of society are pointed out; and, in a few pages, the author displays "the very simple mechanism of the organization of labor," and finally attempts to demonstrate, that this organization is conformable to the views of the Creator. That some change is to take place in the condition of man, and in the prospects of society, and a higher, purer state attained on earth, we have no doubt; but we are not prepared to say, that this change is to be effected by the principles supported in the present volume, or through the instrumentality of Fourier's theory of association.

- 19.—*Relics from the Wreck of a Former World; or, Splinters Gathered on the Shores of a Turbulent Planet. Proving, to a Demonstration, the Vast Antiquity of the Earth, and the Existence of Animal Life of the most Fantastic Shapes, and the most Elegant Colors, Rivaling those of the Rainbow, Millions of Years before the Appearance of Man. With an Appendix on the Scenery in a Patch of Infinite Space. To which is added, Accounts of the most Wonderful Bodies and Substances that have Fallen from Heaven, in all Ages of the World, with an Analysis of Each. Illustrated with Engravings.* 8vo., pp. —. New York: W. H. Graham.

We have given the extraordinary title-page in full, and if it does not excite the mind of the curious, anything that we may add will not, surely. From the preface, which will be read (if for no other reason) because it is brief, even briefer than the title, we learn, that the work is intended to furnish a general view of the leading appearances of physical nature, the economy of the heavens and the earth, deduced from Milner's "Gallery of Nature," Mantell's "Medals of Creation," and other authentic sources. The realities of creation certainly surpass, in grandeur and sublimity, the most imposing fictions of romance.

- 20.—*Poems.* By GEORGE H. CALVERT. 12mo., pp. 125. Boston: W. D. Dickinson & Co.

Mr. Calvert, if not a great poet, gives utterance to "thoughts that breathe and words that burn." In other words, he writes, because he has something to say—and no man of that character leaves the purpose of his mission entirely unfulfilled. The smallest insect, and the minutest particle of the great globe, are parts of a whole, without each of which that whole would be incomplete. The same statement can be applied, with equal truth, to the world of mind. The pieces in this volume, although mostly fragmentary, embody thoughts and feelings that cannot fail of leaving their impress upon the mind that is prepared to receive them.

- 21.—*The Arabian Nights' Entertainments.* New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

We can only repeat, on receipt of the present part, our admiration of the admirable style in which this edition of a universally popular work has been re-produced by the American publishers. Two parts more will complete the series. The illustrations are well executed.