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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1848.

Art. I.—THE SEAT OF GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

FALSE IMPRESSIONS PREVAILING IN RELATION TO THE CITY OF WASHINGTON—MR. SOUTHARD'S REMARK, AND ITS APPLICATION—SESSIONS OF CONGRESS, WHERE HELD PRIOR TO 1790—ARTICLE OF THE CONSTITUTION PROVIDING FOR A SEAT OF GOVERNMENT—DISCUSSIONS IN RELATION TO THE PLACE TO BE SELECTED—DISADVANTAGES OF A COMMERCIAL CITY—PROPRIETY OF LAYING OUT A CITY EXPRESSLY FOR THIS PURPOSE—POSITION—INFLUENCE OF THE PROPOSITION FOR FUNDING STATE DEBTS—THE GROWTH OF THE WEST ANTICIPATED WHEN THIS QUESTION WAS DECIDED—DR. PATERSON'S CALCULATION—RECENT REMARKS OF SENATORS CALHOUN AND ALLEN ON "A CENTRE OF TERRITORY," AND INFLUENCE OF COMMERCIAL CITIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the number who annually visit Washington on business or pleasure, there are few who rightly understand the relation in which that city stands to the general government, or appreciate its importance as the only spot where it is practically seen that, for national purposes, we are but one people. There are, it is true, forts, arsenals, and navy-yards scattered over the country, in which all are interested equally, and which awaken our pride, as citizens of the great republic; but each of these is limited to some one object, and a sight of one is a sight of all. It is only at Washington that one sees a whole district of country laid out expressly as a common centre of the nation, and a city planned solely with a view to the gratification of national pride, and for national convenience; the inhabitants of which are under the entire control of Congress, and deprived of the elective franchise, for the express purpose of removing them from the influence of party spirit, and enabling the government to perform its functions without embarrassment or restraint.

Everything that beautifies or adorns it, or in any manner affects its prosperity, should interest, to almost as great a degree, the citizen of the most distant State as the resident on the spot; for there are few who do not, in the course of their lives, expect to reside there for a longer or shorter period.

It is the fashion to speak of Washington as a place of extravagant pretensions, never to be realized; of magnificent distances, dusty streets, and poverty-stricken people, without reference to the circumstances under

which this particular spot was selected for the seat of government, the objects contemplated in laying out a Federal city, how far those objects have been accomplished, and to what extent any failure on this score is to be ascribed to the inefficient legislation of Congress. There are gross misstatements made every year by those who ought to know better, and the tendency of which is, not only to prejudice the interest of those who reside upon the spot, but, in our opinion, to foster a public sentiment which is calculated to work no small amount of injury to our institutions and country at large. It is that spirit which undervalues every place, however sacred its associations, if not accompanied with the bustle of commerce and manufactures; which confines itself to the present, or, if it looks into the future, only looks with business-like eyes; and which has, in a measure, broken up that feeling of patriotism and sentiment, which gathers around certain hallowed spots, and the cultivation of which, as in the case of popular songs and traditions, has, in every country, proved one of its greatest safeguards.

We believe that the history of our seat of government, when well known, is calculated to place the aspect of that city in a new light before the country. In one of his reports, the late Senator Southard spoke of it as the "only child of the nation;" and the thoughtful visiter who stands on the terrace of the capitol, and looks upon the scene around him, instead of dwelling with contempt upon the scattered piles of brick and mortar, will, if we mistake not, in view of the circumstances under which it was brought into being, the honored names connected with its foundation, and its identity of interest with the Union, on which it is dependent for support, recognize the full force of the expression, and feel a corresponding interest in its present and future position. The subject, too, is fraught with matter of grave reflection to the statesman and philosopher, as illustrative of the influence exerted by a political capital, the principles on which one should be selected, and the expediency of any future change in our own country.

It is, therefore, that we propose to present, as briefly as possible, an outline of the arguments which led to the act for establishing the present seat of government, a sketch of the site selected, and the plans adopted for carrying that act into effect, with a view of the present position and future prospects of the city, and the probability or expediency of any future removal.

The sessions of the old Congress were held, according as the exigencies of the war, or the convenience of members from different sections required, at Philadelphia, Baltimore, Lancaster, York, Princeton, Annapolis, Trenton, and New York. During this time, there appears to have been great anxiety and rivalry amongst the different States, for the honor of having this distinguished body in their midst. New York tendered the town of Kingston for the seat of government; Rhode Island, Newport; Maryland, Annapolis; Virginia, Williamsburgh.

On the 21st of October, 1783, Congress had been insulted at Philadelphia, by a band of mutineers, which the State authorities were not able to quell. On this occasion they adjourned to Princeton, where they held their sessions in the hall of the college; and it was probably owing to the recent disturbance, that the subject of a permanent seat of government was now taken up, and continued to be, at intervals, the subject of discussion up to the formation of the constitution. We have no register of the

debates, but a large number of resolutions were offered, and votes taken. Two of the most prominent propositions will throw some light upon the views as to place and plan which were entertained at that time.

On the 7th October, 1783, on motion of Mr. Gerry, it was resolved that buildings for the use of Congress be erected on or near the banks of the Delaware, or of the Potomac, near Georgetown; *provided*, a suitable district can be procured on one of the rivers aforesaid for a Federal town, that the right of soil, and an exclusive or such other jurisdiction as Congress may direct, shall be vested in the United States.

This, afterwards, underwent various modifications, one of which was to have buildings erected both on the Potomac and Delaware, until, finally, it was repealed on the 26th April, 1784. On the 30th October following, Congress met at Trenton, and the subject was again taken up, and, after a long debate, resulted in the passage of an ordinance, appointing three commissioners with full power to lay out a district not exceeding three, nor less than two miles square, on the banks of either side of the Delaware, not more than eight miles above or below the falls thereof, for a Federal town. They were authorized to purchase soil, and enter into contracts for erecting and completing, in an elegant manner, a Federal house, President's house, and houses for the Secretaries of Foreign Affairs, War, Marine, and Treasury; that, in choosing the situation for the buildings, due regard be had to the accommodation of the States, with lots for houses for the use of their delegates respectively.

At the Congress which met at New York, January 13, 1785, great but unsuccessful efforts were made to substitute the Potomac for the Delaware. The three commissioners were here appointed, but never entered upon their duties; for various delays occurred, until, finally, the adoption of the constitution put an end to the whole business. But the reasons which led to these resolutions, no doubt, had their influence upon the minds of those who framed that part of section 8, art. 1, of the constitution of the United States, which declares that Congress shall have power to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to make all laws which may be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers.

By Elliott's Debates, it appears that the article was assented to in the convention, without debate. In the Virginia convention, some fears were expressed as to the influence to be exerted by a spot so exclusively under the control of government, under the apprehension that it would be in some measure out of the pale of law, and an asylum for political criminals or violators of State rights; but the clause was finally acceded to without much opposition. The question as to the place to be selected for the "ten miles square," came up for discussion in Congress during the years 1789-90, on the introduction of a resolution by Mr. Thomas Scott, of Pennsylvania, that it would be expedient to select a site which should be "as near as possible the centre of wealth, of population, and of territory." Mr. Lee afterwards moved that "a place as nearly central as a convenient communication with the Atlantic Ocean, and an easy access to the Western territory will permit, ought to be selected and established as the permanent seat of government of the United States."

On the 3d September, 1789, Mr. Goodhue, of Massachusetts, said, in

debate, that the Eastern and Northern members had made up their minds on the subject, and were of opinion that, on the eastern banks of the Susquehanna, Congress should fix its permanent residence. A bill passed one House in favor of some place to be selected on the Susquehanna, *provided* the States of Maryland and Delaware would connect the two bays by a canal. Subsequently, an act was introduced for establishing it at its present position, then more generally known as Connogocheague, from a river in Washington county, Maryland, a name which called forth many jokes in the papers of the day. The place where the seat of government should be fixed, was allowed by every member to be a matter of great importance. "The future tranquillity and well-being of the United States," said Mr. Scott, "depended as much on this, as on any question that ever had or could come before Congress." Mr. Fisher Ames remarked that "every principle of pride, and honor, and even of patriotism, were engaged."

The debates on the several resolutions and bills, elicited much warmth of feeling, and sectional jealousy. Almost all were agreed that New York was not a suitable place, as not being sufficiently central. There was much division of sentiment as to the relative advantages of Philadelphia and Germantown, in Pennsylvania; Havre de Grace, and a place called Wright's Ferry, on the Susquehanna; Baltimore, on the Patapsco; and Connogocheague, on the Potomac. The two last were about equally balanced for some time in the number of supporters. It was remarked, by one of the members of Maryland, that the people of that State were in the situation of Tantalus, uncertain which to prefer, the Susquehanna or the Potomac. Mr. Carroll strongly advocated the latter. Mr. Seney noticed sundry measures of the legislature of Maryland, which evinced, he said, their determination to support the pretensions of the Susquehanna. Mr. Smith set forth the advantages of Baltimore, and the fact that its citizens had subscribed \$40,000 for public buildings. The South Carolinians offered an apparently whimsical objection to Philadelphia, to wit: the number of Quakers; who, they said, were eternally dogging the southern members with their schemes of emancipation. Others ridiculed the idea of building palaces in the woods. Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, thought it highly unreasonable to fix the seat of government in such a position, as to have nine States out of the thirteen to the northward of the place, and adverted to the sacrifices the Northern States were ready to make, in being willing to go as far South as Baltimore. Mr. Page said New York was superior to any place he knew, for the orderly and decent behavior of its inhabitants. The motion to insert Baltimore instead of the Potomac, was negatived by a vote of 37 to 23.

We shall at present content ourselves with stating what we have gathered from these debates, from letters and documents, and from conversations with gentlemen who lived in that day, as to the principles laid down by General Washington, Mr. Madison, Mr. Lee, Mr. Carroll, and others, who favored the site that was selected.

First. It was not desirable that the political capital should be in a commercial metropolis.* The constitution declared that Congress should have

* See Mr. Madison's letter—Sparks' Washington, vol. 9, p. 551. Mr. Gerry's remarks—Mad. Papers, p. 1,219. Mr. Grayson's remarks—Elliott's Debates in Virg. Convention, p. 431.

power to exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over the seat of government. If it could be supported that this clause left it optional with Congress to exercise the power or not, there could be no doubt as to the expediency of exercising it. The provision was suggested by the history of all European capitals, as being essential to bestow dignity and independence on the government. "Without it, not only the public authority might be insulted, and its proceedings be interrupted with impunity, but a dependence of the members of the general government on the State comprehending the seat of government, for protection in the exercise of their duty, might bring on the national councils an imputation of awe or influence, equally dishonorable to the government, and dissatisfactory to the other members of the confederacy. The consideration has the more weight, as the gradual accumulation of public improvements at the stationary residence of government, would be too great a public pledge to be left in the hands of a single State, and would create so many obstacles to a removal of the government, as still further to abridge its necessary independence."*

A great obstacle to the exercise of the control in a large commercial community, would be found in the mixed character of the population, and the many elements of discord which existed there. It could readily be foreseen that, in the midst of a dense and excitable mercantile population, such disturbances would frequently recur in times of high party feeling; or during any period of stagnation in business, when the unemployed multitudes could easily be aroused, by real or imaginary grievances, to overcome all opposition, and stay the operations of government.

To check such influences, would impose upon the country the necessity of maintaining a strong military power at the capital, which it was desirable to avoid, it being no part of our policy to keep on foot a large standing army. Another reason for avoiding a seaport city, would be found in the greater variety and importance of the local objects for which Congress would be called upon to legislate, to the neglect of national affairs; and in the apprehension, then generally entertained, that the local expenditures and influence of the different departments, which, in themselves, could afford no reasonable ground of alarm, might, in connection with the wealth and power of such a city, operate greatly to the injury of other places. London and Westminster were mentioned as cases in point: though they, unitedly, sent but six members to Parliament, they had more influence in the measures of government, by their commercial importance, than the whole empire besides. It would become a favored city, and the government funds, largely disbursed there, would give it advantages, in point of capital, possessed by few others. A remark of Sir James McIntosh was extensively quoted, "that a great metropolis is to be considered as the heart of a political body—as the focus of its powers and talents—as the direction of public opinion, and, therefore, as a strong bulwark in the cause of freedom, or as a powerful engine in the hands of an oppressor;" and it had come to be considered that one of the surest ways to prevent our capital's becoming the latter, would be to deprive it of the elective franchise. There were obvious reasons why those who lived under the immediate shadow of the government might exert a greater influence over the country by their votes and opinions, than the same num-

* Federalist.

ber who lived elsewhere. Many, at a distance, might suppose that those so situated, would have a better opportunity to scan the conduct of their rulers; and the result of the election would, on this account, be, by the successful party, heralded from one end of the Union to the other, while, in reality, it would become the seat of all manner of rival factions, in which the officers of government would mingle, and be tempted and enabled to use the power in their hands for purposes of corruption with more facilities and less fear of detection, than if obliged to go abroad and operate in other places. The city should never be branded with the name of any one political party, but be regarded as neutral ground, where all parties might meet, and be received on equal terms by the residents.

There would be excitement enough attendant upon the ordinary business of legislation, without adding thereto the turmoil and strife of popular elections. Now, would any great commercial emporium be willing to give up this privilege, considered by Americans so invaluable, for the sake of having the government in their midst? Certainly not; nor would it be desirable that they should, since their voice in the public councils would be important. There would necessarily be, in all these places, branches of the government, such as custom-houses and naval stations, which were quite as much as it was desirable to concentrate in any one commercial community.

Again, in a mercantile population, the great disproportion in fortune, and the heavy demand for land, would render it almost impossible for the officers of government to live in a style of decent respectability, suitable to their stations, upon the moderate salaries which a regard for economy, and the simplicity of our republican institutions, would seem to require; whereas, in the absence of all other interests but those of persons connected with the government, the value of the property would adapt itself, in some measure, to the means of the inhabitants, and then our functionaries would be enabled to live in accessible and agreeable quarters, and to appear as well as those around them.

Secondly. It was thought highly expedient that a city should be laid out expressly for this purpose, so that there would be ample provision for all public edifices for centuries to come. It is true that abundance of ground for the public buildings could have been at that time obtained in or about Philadelphia and Baltimore, but they would have then been either all concentrated in one point, and somewhat circumscribed in respect to room, and choice of situation; or, if more scattered, there would be a difficulty in forming that appropriate connection between them which would be essential to unity, and beauty of design; and, after all, it would be a mere suburb to the city.* Besides, a thousand objects might, from time to time, call for the erection of new edifices, which could not at present be anticipated, without keeping vacant for years, at a great loss of interest to the government, and to the detriment of the city, large tracts of land in the best position, which, in the hands of individuals, would be built upon and improved. On the other hand, in a place that increased chiefly in proportion as the sphere of the executive departments was enlarged, the lots of ground would seldom be available to any individual before they were required for public purposes, and the cost to the government would be comparatively trifling, while there would be an opportuni-

* See Mr. Smith's remarks in debate, Gales & Seaton's Debates, O. S., vol. 2, p. 960.

ty to devise a plan expressly for the public accommodation, to which purpose every part of the city would be subservient. The whole should be, as it were, one great building, of which the streets would be the passages; the public edifices, the halls; and the private ones, the rooms.

It was, at one time, suggested as expedient to require a cession of soil, as well as of jurisdiction, under the idea that the State or States would find it an object to purchase the territory, and present it, for the sake of having the government in their midst; while, on the other hand, the income from the sales of lots, would furnish a fund for the erection of public edifices, and the improvement of the place; but this was pronounced out of the question with regard to places where any considerable population had already collected; to all of which, Mr. Carroll's remarks in regard to Baltimore would apply. "He believed, if Congress were disposed to fix on that town, it would be agreeable to the States; but he did not imagine they would agree to give government a property to the whole town and the surrounding country. The other parts of the State had never contemplated making Baltimore a compensation for such an immense property."

In selecting a place not previously occupied, the object of the government would be accomplished whether the States conveyed the soil or not, since the cost of the purchase would be comparatively small.

Thirdly. With respect to position, while a central point should be preferred, "it ought to be a centre uniting convenience with utility; the heart should be so placed as to propel the blood to the extremities, with the most equable and gentle motion."

There is no common centre. Territory has one centre, population another, and wealth a third. The centre of population is variable, and a decision on that point now, might establish a seat of government at a very inconvenient place for the next generation. The same remark may be made in this country with regard to territory. With the rapid increase of States, we should find it necessary to remove the capital every fifty years, unless we anticipated the future extent of our country by placing it where it would be, in the meantime, far beyond the centre of population and convenience. A centre of wealth is open to greater objections. The centre of a sea-coast line ought to be regarded because it is more conveniently accessible, has more wealth, and more people, than an equal area of inland country. Being more liable to invasion on that quarter, government should be near to protect it. It is also the interest of the back country to have the government near the sea, to inspect and encourage trade, by which their abundant produce will find an export. When the central line between the Northern and Southern extremities was fixed, no person in the Western territory had ever wished anything further than that Congress should establish their seat as far back on this line, as the convenience of maritime commerce would allow.

This centre of a sea-coast line falls between the rivers Potomac and Susquehanna; the place between the Potomac and Eastern Branch would admit of a navy-yard, and was yet so far inland as to be, in some measure, protected from sudden attack. The Potomac, Mill's Creek, and Young-hogany, could be connected by canal navigation, and, descending the latter, you come to the Monongahela, which meets the Alleghany, and forms the Ohio. Its immediate vicinity to two flourishing inland towns would give it some of the benefits of their prosperity, without the evils before

mentioned as incident to a large commercial emporium ; since the inland trade would bring into them a different class of population from that which throngs our seaport towns—one accustomed to the institutions of the country, and more disposed to the preservation of good order. This, too, it was thought, would be a security against the place becoming slavishly dependent upon Congress, giving it a healthy trade, but not one which would supersede entirely the advantages derived from the presence of government.

Such were some of the considerations which led to the passage, by a vote of 32 to 29, on the 16th day of July, 1790, of an act entitled "An act establishing the temporary and permanent seat of government of the United States." As we have only endeavored to set forth those reasons which were considered general and permanent in their application to the subject, we have not alluded to one topic, growing out of the politics of the day, which, it is well known, had an important effect in hastening a decision on the question. Under the then great object of funding the debt, the seat of government would concentrate the public paper ; hence, a situation was desirable from which all parts would be equally benefited by sending forth and circulating government funds, rather than building up local benefits. "It was supposed," says Mr. Gibbs, "materially to benefit the Northern States, in which was the active capital of the country, and a more Southern residence was considered a countervailing advantage." This question infused peculiar bitterness into the debate.

Another consideration which led to the decision, was the deference and regard which would thus be paid to the wishes of General Washington, who had, from the first, strongly advocated the site upon the Potomac, and who seems to have formed rather extravagant calculations in relation to the future growth of the city. Some of the opinions which he expresses in his letters, seem to conflict with the views we have given relative to the disadvantages of a commercial city ; but it is to be borne in mind that it was chiefly a seaport to which those views have reference ; and we have, in this respect, relied mainly on the statements of gentlemen who lived at that time.

In reviewing the debates on this subject, it is to be remarked that the growth of the Western country was anticipated, and depicted in glowing colors by some of the members of that day. "If," said Mr. Madison, "the calculation be just, that we double in twenty-five years, we shall speedily behold an astonishing mass of people on the Western waters. * * * We see the people moving from the more crowded to the less crowded parts. The swarm does not come from the Southern, but from the Northern and Eastern hives. This will continue to be the case until every part of America receives its due share of population. If there be any event upon which we may calculate with certainty, I take it that the centre of population will rapidly advance in a south-westerly direction. It must, then, travel from the Susquehanna, if it is now found there—it may even extend beyond the Potomac—but the time will be long first ; and, as the Potomac is the great highway of communication between the Atlantic and the Western country, attempts to remove the seat must be impossible." "I confess," said Mr. Vining, "to the House and to the world, that, viewing this subject in all its circumstances, I am in favor of the Potomac. I wish the seat of government to be fixed there, because I think the interest, the honor, and the greatness of the country, require it. I look on it as

the centre from which those streams are to flow, that are to animate and invigorate the body politic. From thence, it appears to me, that the rays of government will naturally diverge to the extremities of the Union. I declare that I look on the Western territory in awful and striking point of view. To that region the unpolished sons of earth are flowing from all quarters—men to whom the protection of the laws, and the controlling force of government, are equally necessary. From this consideration, I conclude that the banks of the Potomac is the proper situation.”

It is true that, at the time these remarks were made, the Union comprised but thirteen States; and, probably, no one anticipated that the number of States would double in fifty years, whatever might be the population. But, even at this time, we find that the East is to the West, in point of population, as the West is to the East in point of territory.

The following table, which has been calculated by Dr. Paterson, of the United States mint, in Philadelphia, singularly confirms Mr. Madison’s prophecy:—

CENTRE OF REPRESENTATIVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES AT EACH CENSUS.

Period.	PLACES.	DISTANCES, IN MILES, FROM WASHINGTON.		
		Distance North.	Distance E. or W.	Dist. on stra't line.
1790	In Baltimore county, Maryland, 13 miles S. of Pennsylvania line, and 17 miles N. of Baltimore.....	46	22 e.	51
1800	In Carroll county, Maryland, 7 miles S. of Pennsylvania line, and 9 miles N. E. of Westminster.....	52	9 e.	53
1810	In Adams county, Pennsylvania, 5 miles N. of State line, and 17 miles W. of Gettysburgh.....	64	30 w.	71
1820	In the western part of Morgan county, Virginia, 10 miles W. S. W. of Bath, 1 mile from Potomac, 12 miles S. of Pennsylvania line.....	47	71 w.	86
1830	In Hampshire county, Virginia, opposite Westernport, Maryland, and 20 miles N. W. of Romney, 16 miles S. of Pennsylvania line.....	43	108 w.	117
1840	In Marion county, Virginia, 23 miles S. of Pennsylvania line, 19 miles N. E. of Clarksburgh.....	36	160 w.	165
CENTRE OF TOTAL POPULATION IN 1840.				
1840	In Harrison county, Virginia, 33 miles S. of Pennsylvania line, 5 miles due S. of Clarksburgh.....	21	175 w.	177

Note.—The parallel of 40° N. divides the representative population of the United States into two equal parts very nearly, according to the census of 1840.

The average progress westward, during each ten years, has been about thirty-four miles. This average is slightly increasing; and, if we set it down at fifty miles, it will require a century to carry this centre five hundred miles west of Washington, or as far as the city of Nashville, Tennessee.

The comparatively small importance which was attached to “the centre of territory,” as a criterion by which to select a capital, will strike many with surprise; and it is worthy of observation, that Mr. Madison, in presenting the importance of such a centre in what he thought the most prominent point of view, remarked that, “if it were possible to promulgate our laws by some instantaneous operation, it would be of less consequence where the government might be placed”—a contingency which now seems to be supplied by the “magic wires” of Morse, which communicate intelligence “not merely with the swiftness of lightning,” but “by lightning itself.”

In the course of a recent debate in the United States Senate, Mr. Calhoun remarked that a moment's attention to the seat of government in the different countries of the world, would show that they very rarely occupied a central position. They were generally situated on the frontier that was most exposed; near to those places where the armies would be required to be encamped for the protection of the country against invasion. Look over Europe—where was London situated? Near the south-east frontier. Where was the capital of France? Far from central. Where was the capital of Russia? Upon the frontier; and the same locality will be found to prevail, and very properly so, in regard to capitals throughout the world. And, if it were true in general, it was eminently true in respect to our confederation.

Mr. Allen said that "the example of the monarchies of Europe was not to be followed by us, for the location of their capital was dependent on the location of their forts and fortifications, and not in convenience in other respects." This was certainly not the case with Russia or Prussia. The advantage of having the government near to protect the commerce of the country, is to be observed by circumstances of daily occurrence. It is probably on the coast that our principal fighting will be done, and it is certainly here that the most unexpected and sudden assaults will be made, requiring immediate action. It is from Europe that our enemies will be most likely to come in time of war, and it is with the States of Europe that, in time of peace, we are likely to have the most complex relations. It is of the highest importance that our legislators and executive officers should be so near the commercial sections of the country as to enter understandingly upon those discussions in which practical knowledge is of the utmost importance; and it is certain that there will be hundreds called into the public service, from time to time, whose first impressions of the merits of the navy, or the extent of the merchant service, will be formed by actual inspection at our commercial cities—and, while the Western agricultural interests are subserved by whatever contributes to enlarged and liberal commercial views, and the protection of the sea-coast, our Western frontier will be far more easily fortified by government when at a distance; the principal enemies we are ever likely to suffer from there, being the Indians, the power of which unfortunate race is daily dwindling away before the good or bad, but inevitable effects of Anglo-Saxon progress.

But, we were further told by Mr. Allen, that "the location of our seat of government in the vicinity of our great commercial cities, gave to those cities a preponderating influence in the proceedings of this government of, at least, a hundred to one over the influence excited by a corresponding number of people in the vast interior. There were no committees of farmers from the banks of the Missouri, the Mississippi, or even the Ohio, entering the lobbies of those halls, and endeavoring to influence the legislation of Congress. There were no combinations of individuals from the interior, delegated to the capital with a view of obtaining the passage of laws, the object of which was to administer to individual wants, instead of the wants of the mass of the nation. There were no such delegations here." Does the senator suppose that the lobbying committees from commercial cities, of which he hints, would not follow the government wherever it went? The interests of commerce enter too widely into all the ramifications of society for mere

time and space to prevent those interested in their advancement from laboring assiduously on their behalf, wherever the government may be. Mr. Allen's argument applies equally to the good and the bad projects. The only difference would be that, were the government placed in the interior, they would have legislators not so well informed, more blinded by sectional prejudices than they even now are, less capable of appreciating those enlarged plans which comprise the good, and more easily imposed upon by the advocates of more limited systems which are bad. It has been objected that the Eastern States secure to themselves greater benefits in the way of congressional and legislative patronage for office; but we apprehend that this source of jealousy has been greatly overrated. Is it not rather the section of country from which the Executive comes, that governs in this matter? But, admitting it to be an evil, it is one which must always exist, to a greater or less extent, to the injury of different parts of the Union, wherever the government may be; since, as was remarked in the Congress of 1790, the capital cannot remain, for any considerable length of time, at the actual centre of territory, that centre being as variable as the centre of population.

The necessity or propriety of disfranchising the seat of government, is not at first view quite apparent, and has been the subject of some discussion. If we consider the extent to which party feeling was carried in the canvass that immediately preceded Mr. Jefferson's election, when private social relations were, in some instances, almost entirely suspended between families of different political parties, we can feel the force of the reasoning given for this measure, and can realize what a serious evil such a state of things would be at the capital, should it again recur, and be fostered by continual local elections, accompanied with all the excitement and misrepresentation which we now see every four years in the principal cities of the Union, and in the midst of which, it is not too much to suppose that the position of public officers might subject them to annoyance and insult in a thousand ways, even without actual violence. And, from similar experience, it is obvious that the votes of those in the public employ might be directly or indirectly controlled by the government, so that there would be, in reality, little freedom of choice. Other positions assumed in these discussions will be adverted to in the course of our remarks on the progress of the city.

Maryland and Virginia had previously, by acts passed in 1788 and 1789, authorized their representatives to make the necessary cessions. The first section of this act is in these words:—"Be it enacted, &c., that a district of territory, not exceeding ten miles square, to be located, as hereafter directed, on the river Potomac, at some place between the mouth of the Eastern Branch and Connogocheague, be, and the same is hereby accepted for the permanent seat of government of the United States."

The word "temporary," in the title of the act, refers to Philadelphia, where the Congress were to hold their sessions until 1800; when, as Mr. Wolcott expressed it, they were "to go to the Indian place with the long name, on the Potomac."

It may be well to allude here to a discussion which has arisen under the article of the constitution and this act, in reference to the powers of Congress to remove the seat of government at any future time. Mr.

John Carroll Brent, of Washington city, in a pamphlet* relative to the interests of the District of Columbia, dedicated to the members of the National Institute, has summed up the principal arguments in opposition to any such claim of right. He contends:—1st. That the constitution gave Congress *limited* powers in the premises; and that body, as a mere agent, is bound by instructions and limitations, and can, under no circumstances, exercise more authority than is given to that effect by the constitution. 2d. That a change of the seat of government would be a violation of the implied contract between the Federal government and the States of Maryland and Virginia, which never would have made the necessary grants, had not *permanency* been guaranteed by the solemn act of Congress. 3d. That the right and reasonable expectations of the original proprietors, the purchasers, and inhabitants of this District, would be trifled with and destroyed by such a move towards transferring the metropolis elsewhere, on the part of those who falsely imagine themselves clothed with the necessary power and capacity.

The introduction of the word "*permanent*" in contradistinction to "*temporary*," in the title of the act, is regarded by him as significant of the views of Congress and the proprietors on the subject, viz: "that certain powers were given, certain acts required, and Congress, in the execution of this commission, was confined within fixed limits, was to accept a specified amount of *territory*; and by the acceptance, and the act establishing a *permanent* seat of government, in accordance with the requisitions of the constitution, bound itself to that instrument, to Maryland and Virginia, the owners, purchasers, and inhabitants of the district in question, and the people at large, by a positive engagement, to make the metropolis of the Union durable and unchangeable."

In the report of a committee of the House on the 25th February, 1846, on the petition for the retrocession of Alexandria, this objection is thus answered:—

"There is no more reason to believe that the power in this case, when once exercised and executed, is exhausted, than in any other of the long list of enumerated powers to which it belongs, and which it is provided that Congress 'shall have.' The phraseology of the grant is the same, and as much reason seems to exist for the continuance of the right to exercise this power, as in most of those contained in the list to which we have referred. If this construction be true, when Congress had once fixed the seat of government, it could no more be removed, although it should prove to be unsafe from foreign invasion, or so unhealthy as to endanger the lives of the members of the government, or so located as to be inconsistent with a due regard to the facilities of access to our whole population, or to their convenience; and yet it is manifest that some of these considerations might make the removal of the seat of government a matter of necessity. To have excluded the conclusion that the framers of the constitution had regarded considerations so manifest and reasonable, there must have been terms so precise and accurate as to have left no doubt of their intention to make the act irrevocable when the power was once exercised. As some proof that the framers of the constitution did

* Letters on the National Institute. Smithsonian Legacy. The Fine Arts, and other matters connected with the interests of the District of Columbia. Washington: J. & G. S. Gideon.

not overlook these considerations, we may advert to the fact that Mr. Madison moved to strike out the word 'permanent' from the act establishing the seat of government, because the constitution did not contain it. Nor is this the only difficulty involved by this construction—the same section gives a like power relative to forts and arsenals; and, contrary to reason and the usages of Congress, this power, when once exercised, would be thus considered as executed and exhausted.

"It might be replied that this word 'permanent' meant only an indefinite period; that it was designed merely to require the removal to be made by law, and not by resolution of the two Houses; or it might well be said that Congress could not, by contract, part with a power reposed in them by the constitution for wise purposes; but, in point of fact, the history of the transaction does not sustain this view of the contract. Neither Virginia nor Maryland, by their acts of cession, made the permanence of the seat of government a condition of the grant."

The view taken by the States and proprietors is, we think, well expressed in the language of the Supreme Court per Story, Judge.* They might, and, indeed, must have placed a just confidence in the government, that, in founding the city, it would do no act which would obstruct its prosperity, or interfere with its great fundamental objects or interests. It could never be supposed that Congress would seek to destroy what its own legislation had created and fostered into being. The city was designed to last in perpetuity, "*capitoli immobile saxum.*"

While the force of these remarks must be admitted, and while it is certain that justice to the proprietors, and good policy, forbid that any light or trivial considerations should break in upon the arrangements then made, the conclusions of Mr. Brent will, we fear, not receive a ready assent. The proprietors could hardly have been warranted in the conclusion that their interests would be consulted in opposition to those of the whole Union, if it should happen that the welfare of the nation imperatively required such a change, and it should be called for by a majority of the people.

The proprietors entered into their agreement subject to the risk of such a contingency's occurring; in which case, the most that they could claim, would be a right to compensation for the depreciation in the value of property which must ensue. This proposition seems to have been generally admitted in the discussions which took place in Congress on the question of removal after the war of 1812. What contingency would justify such a removal, will be considered in a subsequent chapter.

ART. II.—THE LIFE OF MAJOR SAMUEL SHAW,

THE FIRST AMERICAN CONSUL AT CANTON.†

(WITH A PORTRAIT.)

AMONG the discordant materials of which our army of the Revolution was composed, those men were not wanting who are commonly the early victims of great popular struggles;—men, moderate and firm in the council, prudent and fearless in the field; not selfish in their ambition, not ran-

* Van Ness and wife, *vs.* City of Washington and the United States, 4 Peters, p. 280.

† The Journals of Major SAMUEL SHAW, the first American Consul at Canton. With a Life of the Author, by Josiah Quincy. Boston: Wm. Crosby and H. P. Nichols.

corous in their patriotism; in whom a pure conscience and a clear intellect rule with an equal and a harmonious supremacy. Such men, impatient of injustice and of corruption, are usually foremost in those acts of resistance in which every revolution begins; but, as the contest goes on, they are thought to move too slowly. Their virtues are not understood. If they are in the senate, their motives are suspected; if in the army, their courage is questioned. Fiercer and less scrupulous spirits, more nearly akin to the heightened passions of the people, press forward and take their place; and the old scene is again enacted, of a nation, risen in arms against its oppressors, only to be desolated by anarchy and bound anew in servitude.

It was the good fortune of America, or rather—if we may read, in the events of this world's history, the motives of its Ruler—it was the blessing of God on America, that, in her Revolution, such men as we have described maintained their control to the end. They were the leaders of the army, for it had been the plan of England to shut them out from the high offices of state. They were beloved by the army, for their peculiar virtues found daily exercise in the long train of disaster that makes up the story of the war. Washington was at their head; and the qualities that distinguished them shone forth, in him, with a still brighter lustre. They were the interpreters of his spirit to the people; and, doubtless, if ever his wonderful equanimity failed, and he became like other men, he gathered fresh courage and renewed strength from their intelligent sympathy.

Of these men, holding a rank in the army suited to his age and experience, Samuel Shaw was one. Like most men of his time, he acted various parts in the changing drama of life. In his youth, an active and gallant soldier; in his manhood, a sagacious and enterprising merchant; for a short period, filling an office of trust in the Department of War; for several years, representing his country, as consul, abroad; and at all times maintaining a lofty character for talents and integrity, it is not to be doubted that his early death alone prevented him from reaching a station more marked and eminent.

His memoir, before us, is written by one who, in early youth, enjoyed "the privilege of his acquaintance and correspondence;" and who, after the lapse of more than fifty years, passed in constant intercourse with mankind, says, that he has "never known an individual of a character more elevated and chivalric, acting according to a purer standard of morals, imbued with a higher sense of honor, and uniting, more intimately, the qualities of the gentleman, the soldier, the scholar, and the Christian." With the memoir are interwoven many letters, written by Major Shaw from the camp to his friends at home. These are so selected and arranged, as to indicate the character, as well as the passing emotions of the man. Apart from their personal interest, they form a valuable commentary upon those memorials of the times, which have been collected, with so much zeal and judgment, by the historian of Washington.

To the Memoir are appended the journals of Major Shaw's first two voyages to Canton. "These Journals of Major Shaw," says the Preface, "came, after his death, into the possession of his nephew and legal representative, Robert Gould Shaw, of Boston. Their publication has often been solicited, but has hitherto been withheld; the present proprietor doubting if a work not originally designed for the press could with propriety be given to the public. He has, however, now yielded to the urgency

of friends, and to the assurance of judicious merchants, long and intimately acquainted with the China trade, that their publication not only will be practically useful, but is due to the memory of their author, will redound to his honor, and will gratify a wise public curiosity concerning the early state and history of this branch of American commerce. Assuming all the expenses, Mr. Shaw has transferred the copyright of the book to the Boston Marine Society, in aid of whose funds he was of opinion its proceeds would be most appropriately applied; and to this object they are devoted."

We hope that a brief sketch of Major Shaw's life, and such extracts from his letters and journals as our limited space will allow, may not be uninteresting to our readers.

Shaw was a Boston boy and a North End boy. He was educated at the common schools and at the Latin school, then under the care of Master Lovell. Of course, his heart was full of patriotism, and his mind well grounded in good learning. His father, Francis Shaw, an eminent merchant, designed the lad for his own pursuits; and, at the opening of the war, Samuel had lately entered a counting-house. His mercantile success, in after years, shows that the occupation was not uncongenial to his tastes; but the quick spirits of youth perceived something of more interest than money columns in the stirring events of the time. A tradition, preserved in the family, proves how keenly, at this time, he felt for the honor of his country. Boston, being held as a garrison town by the British, the officers of the army were billeted upon the inhabitants. The house of Francis Shaw was assigned, for quarters, to Major Pitcairn and Lieutenant Wragg. At the table the latter, in the presence of Samuel Shaw, called the Americans "cowards and rebels." Shaw was indignant at the reproach, and immediately challenged the lieutenant. Before the arrangements for the duel were completed, however, Major Pitcairn interfered, and induced Lieutenant Wragg to offer an apology, which, being accepted, the affair was thus happily terminated.

On the 2d of October, 1775, Shaw came of age. With his father's approbation, he immediately prepared to join the army, which Washington was then organizing at Cambridge. On the 1st of January, 1776, he received the commission of lieutenant in the train of artillery; and, in this branch of the service, he remained during the whole of the war.

On joining the army, Lieutenant Shaw was stationed at Prospect Hill, a height overlooking Charlestown and opposite to Boston, which were both in the possession of the British. Nothing of interest occurred here, save, now and then, an irregular attack upon the outposts of the enemy. A characteristic anecdote of General Putnam is related, in connection with one of these skirmishes:—

"A successful attempt had been made on Charlestown, and ten houses were burnt. The expedition was carried on with great secrecy, hardly any person, besides those employed, knowing a syllable of the affair until they had the pleasure of seeing the blaze. Among the prisoners taken was a woman, who, being something fatigued, was, by General Putnam's order, carried between two men part of the way; but, this mode being found inconvenient, the General, with his usual affability, cried out:—'Here, hand her to me;' which being done, she put her hand round his waist, and made this pious ejaculation as they rode off:—'Jesus bless you, sweet General! May you live forever!'"

For some time Washington had been meditating a plan for dislodging

the enemy. Accordingly, on the night of the 4th of March, 1776, a portion of the army, in which was Shaw's company, took possession of Dorchester Heights, a range of hills commanding the harbor of Boston. The movement was successful. On the 17th of March, the British troops evacuated the city. From that time, the current of the war was turned in other directions.

Lieutenant Shaw went, with the main body of the army, to the westward. In August, 1776, he was entrusted with the command of Fort Washington, an important post on the Hudson. About this time Colonel Tupper, a partisan officer, with the galleys under his command, made an attack upon two of the enemy's ships, which, in the month of July, had succeeded in passing the American batteries, and ascending the river as far as Tappan Bay. Lieutenant Shaw volunteered on the occasion, and, in a letter to his father, he gives the following account of the affair:—

“It was a hazardous design, the force on our side being so much inferior. We had only six galleys, that could bring but eleven guns, in the whole, to bear against two ships, one of twenty, the other of forty-four guns, assisted by three tenders, with the advantage of spring cables, while we were obliged to work our little fleet entirely with oars. Notwithstanding which, we engaged them within reach of their grape-shot for near two hours, when, being much damaged, two men killed, and fourteen wounded, we were obliged to retire, which we did without their pursuing; though one of our galleys lay on the careen a whole tide in sight of them. Five of the wounded fell to the share of the Washington, where I was on board; which was hulled thirteen times, besides the grape-shot received in her sails and rigging. You will, perhaps, wonder what business I had on board, it being out of my sphere, which I readily acknowledge; but the desire I had to see an affair of that nature got the better of any other motive, and inclined me to volunteer. It was no small encouragement to me, when I saw two other gentlemen come on board in the same capacity; one of whom was a merchant in the city, and the other first aid-de-camp to General Washington. The commodore treated us very politely, and, when the action came on, gave me the command of the two bow-guns, which was sufficient employment for me, while my companions had nothing to do but to look on.”

In October, 1776, shortly before the battle of White Plains, Shaw left Fort Washington, the capture of which, in the following month, “formed,” says he, “a pretty subject for Howe to write upon. He would, otherwise, have had chagrin enough, since he has done so little towards subduing America.”

Between this time and August, 1779, Shaw was successively promoted to the ranks of adjutant and brigade major in the corps of artillery. By his gallantry in the various actions at Trenton, Princeton, the Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, he gained the confidence and affection of General Knox, who, in August, 1779, made him his aid-de-camp. In this station he remained till after the close of the war. The friendship thus formed between the young officer and his general continued, without interruption, until they were separated by death. In 1792, party spirit commenced its opposition to the administration of Washington by violent assaults upon the character of General Knox, and other members of the cabinet. We make a short extract from a letter written, at that time, by Major Shaw to his early friend, to express his indignation at these attacks. It relates an interesting incident of the war:—

“Happy must you feel—thrice happy am I—in the reflection, that, so long as the American name shall last, yours will be handed down with distinction in the

list of the 'valued file;' and the artillery, which, formed under your auspices, equalled every exigence of war, will be regarded as the child of your genius. Well do I remember the honorable testimony of the gallant Lafayette, amidst the thunder of our batteries on the lines at Yorktown. 'We* fire,' exclaimed he, with a charming enthusiasm, 'better than the French,' (and faith we did, too.) To this I made a suitable objection. His reply was, 'Upon honor, I speak the truth; and the progress of your artillery is regarded by everybody as one of the wonders of the Revolution.'

In a letter written in June, 1779, Major Shaw gives the following account of the pecuniary situation of an officer, at a time when the depreciation of the continental currency, in itself a sufficient evil, had made the army the prey of every mean vice that avarice breeds and fosters:—

"I wish, seriously, that the ensuing campaign may terminate the war. The people of America seem to have lost sight entirely of the noble principle which animated them at the commencement of it. That patriotic ardor which then inspired each breast—that glorious, I had almost said godlike, enthusiasm—has given place to avarice, and every rascally practice which tends to the gratification of that sordid and most disgraceful passion. I don't know as it would be too bold an assertion to say, that its depreciation is equal to that of the currency—*thirty for one*. You may, perhaps, charitably think that I strain the matter, but I do not. I speak *feelingly*. By the arts of monopolizers and extortioners, and the little, the very little, attention by authority to counteract them, our currency is reduced to a mere name. Pernicious soever as this is to the community at large, its baneful effect is more immediately experienced by the *poor* soldier. I am myself an instance of it. For my services I receive a nominal sum—dollars at *eight* shillings, in a country where they pass, at the utmost, for *fourpence* only. If it did not look too much like self-applause, I might say that I engaged in the cause of my country from the purest motives. However, be this as it may, my continuance in it has brought me to poverty and rags; and, had I a fortune of my own, I should glory in persevering, though it would occasion a sacrifice of the last penny. But, when I consider my situation—my pay inadequate to my support, though within the line of the strictest economy—no private purse of my own—and reflect that the best of parents, who, I am persuaded, have the tenderest affection for their son, and wish to support him in character, have not the means of doing it, and may, perhaps, be pressed themselves—when these considerations occur to my mind, as they frequently do, they make me serious; more so than my natural disposition would lead me to be. The loss of my horse, by any accident whatever, (unless he was actually killed in battle, and then I should be entitled only to about one-third of his value,) would plunge me in inextricable misfortune; two years' pay and subsistence would not replace him. Yet, the nature of my office renders it indispensable that I should keep a horse. These are some of the emoluments annexed to a military station."

In 1781, Major Shaw's younger brother, Nathaniel, decided to enter the army. In a letter, encouraging the plan, Shaw gives a list of the articles necessary for an outfit; which, in deference to its statistical character, we extract. The reader will notice in the advice, "superfine will be cheapest," a touch of the peculiar thrift of New England:—

Clothing, &c., necessary for a young campaigner:—

Beaver hat,.....	15
Coat, faced and lined with scarlet—white vest and breeches—plain yellow buttons—(superfine will be cheapest),.....	60
Three white linen vests and breeches,.....	25
Six ruffled shirts and stocks,.....	60
Four pairs white cotton or linen hose,.....	10

* Lafayette being in the service of the United States, always spoke as an American.

Boots,.....	10
Sword,.....	20
Total, silver dollars,.....	200

"If the above sum can be raised on my notes," adds he, "I can spare it without injury to myself, and as much as will bring Nat. on to the camp."

But we must close our extracts from these letters of Major Shaw. We turn, with reluctance, from the vivid story of "the battles, sieges, fortunes, he had passed;" from the glad tidings of victory at Trenton, and Princeton, and Monmouth; from the painful description of the mutiny of the Jersey and Pennsylvania lines; from the sad tale of Arnold's baseness and Andre's untimely fate; and, especially, from those pages in which he dwells so fondly upon Washington's demeanor in that most perilous hour, when, after their seven years' apprenticeship, in want, and danger, and neglect, officers and soldiers could bear up no longer against the broken faith of Congress and the injustice of their countrymen. We know how feebly we present the picture. We have but borrowed, here a tint and there a line, from the harmonious whole.

On the 19th of April, 1783, just eight years from the first shedding of blood at Lexington, the cessation of hostilities was proclaimed to the army. The disbanding of the troops was assigned to General Knox. As a member of his military family, Major Shaw remained with him during the year, sharing in this delicate and arduous duty.

In the events which accompanied the dissolution of the army, Major Shaw took an active interest. He was chosen secretary of the committee of officers who organized the Society of the Cincinnati, and the original draft of its constitution is said to have been from his hand. With General Knox, he accompanied Washington upon his entrance into the city of New York after its evacuation by the British; and he was present at that solemn and august scene, when the officers of the American army took their final leave of their great chief, and when manly cheeks paid tribute, in tears, to that affection, passing the love of woman, which his stern virtues commanded, in the hearts of those who had suffered and triumphed at his side.

Shaw's military life was now over. He was without occupation, and in debt; and his future fortunes were to be based upon the universal respect which his talents and his integrity had secured, and upon his characteristic energy. With these, and the winning manners which were natural to his generous disposition, and to which the training of the camp had given dignity and polish, he was not likely to fall short of success in any pursuit.

Without delay, he turned his attention to those occupations for which he had been destined in his youth. A company of capitalists had just been formed, in the city of New York, for the purpose of carrying on a trade with China. Daniel Parker, Esq., a friend of Major Shaw, and agent for those concerned, offered him the situation of supercargo. He accepted the offer, on condition that Captain Thomas Randall, with whom he had formed an intimate friendship during the war, and who, like himself, was "out of suits with fortune," should accompany him and share the profits of his agency. No one, except Shaw himself, was to sacrifice anything by this condition. It was readily agreed to; and, on the 22d of

February, 1784, the two friends sailed from New York, on the first voyage ever made by an American vessel between this country and China. The ship in which they sailed was the *Empress of China*, commanded by Captain John Green. Her burthen was 360 tons. She was loaded chiefly with ginseng, of which she carried about 440 piculs; the value of a picul ($133\frac{1}{3}$ pounds) in China being, at that time, from one hundred and thirty to two hundred dollars.

Having paid due honor to the Old Man of the Tropics, by abundant libations of sea-water and grog; and every green-horn having sworn faithfully to observe those great laws of morals and manners of which that deity has special cognizance, namely, that no man shall drink small beer when he can get strong, unless he likes the small better; nor kiss the maid when he can kiss the mistress, save under a similar and not less wise condition, the voyagers arrived at St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verde Islands. Here they stopped several days, to obtain fresh provisions and for repairs. A French brig, with a cargo of slaves from Senegal, was anchored in the harbor. It seems that not even the sanction of the law was able wholly to clear the escutcheons of persons engaged in this "abominable traffic." When the captain of the brig came on board of the *Empress*, Captain Green bade his people to beware of the French sailors. "These fellows are Saint Peter's children," says he; "every finger a fish-hook, and each hand a grapnel."

Shaw left St. Jago on the 27th of March, and on the 18th of July he arrived in the Straits of Sunda. Here he found a French man-of-war, the *Triton*, Captain d'Ordelin, bound to Canton. The gentlemen of the two ships, representing nations so closely united by good offices, met with great cordiality. Captain Green being, of course, unskilled in the passage, took advantage of the experience of Captain d'Ordelin, and sailed, in company with him, from Java. On the 25th of August the *Empress* arrived at Whampoa, having been at sea one hundred and seventy-four days since leaving New York.

It is pleasing to notice the courtesy with which the Americans were welcomed. On arriving at Whampoa, they were saluted by all the shipping in the harbor. An officer came from the French vessels, with boats, anchors, and cables, to assist them in getting a good berth. The Danish sent an officer, with compliments; the Dutch, a boat; and the English, an officer, "to welcome their flag to that part of the world." Then followed national dinners, and visits of congratulation. The French, surpassing the rest in their kindness, gave them the use of their factory and a part of their banksall, (a large building of bamboo, for the storage of water-casks, spars, sails, &c., and for the reception of the sick,) during their stay.

"The Chinese themselves," says Major Shaw, "were very indulgent towards us, though, ours being the first American ship that ever visited China, it was some time before they could fully comprehend the distinction between us and Englishmen. They styled us the *New People*; and when by the map we conveyed to them an idea of the extent of our country, with its present and increasing population, they were highly pleased at the prospect of so considerable a market for the productions of their own empire."

From Major Shaw's Journal, we take the following account of foreign ships visiting Canton in 1783 and 1784:—

Exclusive of the country ships returning to India, there sailed last year from Canton and Macao forty-five ships for Europe, sixteen of which were English. The present season the numbers were as follows (Dec. 27) :—

English, 9—French, 4—Dutch, 5—Danish, 3—Portuguese, 4.	25 for Europe.
American,	1 for America.
English country ships, 8,.....	} 9
Danish snow, 1,.....	
In all,	35

The amount of tea annually consumed by Great Britain and her dependencies at that time, is here stated to have been 14,000,000 pounds.

Major Shaw's stay was marked by the occurrence of what was called "the Canton war," and by the honorable part which he took upon the occasion. We quote his narration of the circumstances from a letter written by him, after his return, to John Jay, who was then Minister of the United States for Foreign Affairs :—

"On the 25th of November, an English ship, in saluting some company that had dined on board, killed a Chinese and wounded two others in the mandarin's boat alongside. It is a maxim of the Chinese law that blood must answer for blood, in pursuance of which, they demanded the unfortunate gunner. To give up this poor man was to consign him to certain death. Humanity pleaded powerfully against the measure. After repeated conferences between the English and the Chinese, the latter declared themselves satisfied, and the affair was supposed to be entirely settled. Notwithstanding this, on the morning after the last conference, (the 27th,) the supercargo of the ship was seized, while attending his business, thrown into a sedan-chair, hurried into the city, and committed to prison. Such an outrage upon personal liberty spread a general alarm, and the Europeans unanimously agreed to send for their boats with armed men from the shipping, for the security of themselves and their property, until the matter should be brought to a conclusion. The boats accordingly came, and ours among the number; one of which was fired on, and a man wounded. All trade was stopped, and the Chinese men-of-war were drawn up opposite the factories. The Europeans demanded the restoration of the supercargo, Mr. Smith, which the Chinese refused, until the gunner should be given up. In the meanwhile, the troops of the province were collecting in the neighborhood of Canton; the Chinese servants were ordered by the magistrates to leave the factories; the gates of the suburbs were shut—all intercourse was at an end—the naval force was increased—many troops were embarked in boats ready for landing, and everything wore the appearance of war. To what extremities matters might have been carried, had not a negotiation taken place, no one can say. The Chinese asked a conference with all the nations except the English. A deputation, in which I was included, for America, met the *Fuen*, who is the head magistrate of Canton, with the principal officers of the province. After setting forth, by an interpreter, the power of the emperor, and his own determination to support the laws, he demanded that the gunner should be given up within three days; declaring that he should have an impartial examination, before their tribunal, and if it appeared that the affair was accidental, he should be released unhurt. In the meantime, he gave permission for the trade, excepting that of the English, to go on as usual, and dismissed us with a present of two pieces of silk each, as a mark of his friendly disposition. The other nations, one after another, sent away their boats, under protection of a Chinese flag, and pursued their business as before. The English were obliged to submit, the gunner was given up, Mr. Smith was released, and the English, after being forced to ask pardon of the magistracy of Canton, in presence of the other nations, had their commerce restored. On this occasion, I am happy to remark that we were the last who sent off our boat, which was not disgraced with a Chinese flag; nor did she go till the English themselves thanked us for our concurrence with them, and advised to the sending of her

away. After peace was restored, the English chief and four other gentlemen visited the several nations, among whom we were included, and thanked them for their assistance during the troubles. The gunner remained with the Chinese, his fate undetermined."

The unfortunate gunner was executed by the Chinese a few months afterwards.

The bankrupt system of the Chinese is peculiar. All payments are required to be made before the close of their calendar year. If, on the last night of the old year, a debtor has left an account unsettled, he is visited at his house by his creditor, who seats himself, and, in unbroken silence, "watches the old year out and the new year in." When midnight is past the creditor rises, congratulates his debtor on the new year, and retires. The insolvent has then "lost his face." There is no credit for him afterwards.

On the 26th of December, 1784, the business of the voyage being completed, the *Empress of China* set sail for home. Captain Green deemed it prudent to profit by the sailing of a Dutch ship, and to keep her company through the Chinese seas. The Dutchman, being a dull sailer by right of nationality, this confidence was repaid by a delay of several days and the loss of an anchor. During the sixty years that have elapsed since these occurrences, our ships have learned to go alone.

The *Empress* stopped at North Island for wood. There Major Shaw met a young man who had left Europe with the intention of spending his days at Peking. On reaching Canton, however, the impossibility of ever returning, if he should once enter the capital, appalled him, and he refused to proceed. The mandarins were in trouble, for they had mentioned his intention in their despatches to the court. He gave, as his excuse, that his father had died during his absence from home, and that his mother had written to him conjuring him to return and provide for her support. The mandarins admitted the piety of this excuse; but, deeming it insufficient to satisfy the authorities, they ingeniously settled the matter by reporting him sick in their next despatches, and afterwards officially apprising the court of his death.

On the 10th of May, 1785, the *Empress of China* arrived in New York. Shortly after, Major Shaw addressed a letter to John Jay, relating the occurrences of the voyage. This letter was laid before Congress, who directed Jay to announce to Major Shaw, "that Congress feel a peculiar satisfaction in the successful issue of this first effort of the citizens of America to establish a direct trade with China, which does so much honor to its undertakers and conductors."

The profits of this voyage were \$30,000, upwards of 25 per cent on the capital employed. Major Shaw's share of this, however, after being divided with his friend Randall, proved to be but a poor remuneration for his time and services.

The period of Shaw's absence had been one of bereavement. His father, to whom he was devotedly attached, and whose declining years he had hoped to cheer with his presence and society, had died in 1784. A few months afterwards his eldest brother died; and Shaw felt it to be his duty to relinquish, for the present, the mercantile plans he had formed, and to remain in America, that he might attend to the settlement of his father's estate.

General Knox was eager to manifest his kindness. He offered Shaw

the post of first Secretary in the War Department, a station whose labors were not inconsistent with the performance of the duties he had assumed. Major Shaw accepted the office; and, shortly afterwards, accompanied General Knox on a tour, to inspect the magazines in the Southern States.

The success which had attended the voyage of the *Empress of China* had attracted the notice of merchants; and, towards the close of 1785, it was proposed to Major Shaw, by Isaac Sears, Esq., and other gentlemen in New York, that he should take part with them in another enterprise of the same kind, and, in conjunction with Mr. Sears, should superintend the business of the voyage. The offers were liberal, and Shaw was induced to leave his public station, and to return to a business which promised him much success. In February, 1786, he was honorably discharged from the War Department; and, about the same time, he was appointed by Congress Consul for the United States at Canton.

On the 4th of February, 1786, he sailed from New York in the ship *Hope*, Captain James Magee; his friend, Captain Randall, who, he had arranged, should be concerned with him in this undertaking also, and Mr. Sears, being his companions. In August they arrived at Canton, where Mr. Sears died. Shaw returned to New York in July, 1789, having, during his absence, passed several months in Bengal. Nothing, probably, in the life of Major Shaw, will be more pleasing to the reader than an incident which occurred after his return from this voyage:—

“His brother, Francis Shaw, had died in the year 1785, leaving, besides daughters, two sons, who were at this time about seven or eight years old. To the widow of this brother, then residing in Goldsborough, Major Shaw, immediately on his arrival in the United States, wrote: ‘I beg you to put your two sons under my care, that I may be to them instead of a father. If you consent, let them accompany, at once, their uncle William to Boston.’ The offer was gratefully accepted. They were sent, and from that time were regarded by Major Shaw as his children. One of them was Robert Gould Shaw, now one of the most eminent and prosperous merchants of Boston.”

At the time of the publication of the *Memoir*, this gentleman addressed to Mr. Quincy the following graceful letter:—

“I am, sir, the oldest of those fatherless boys, and I well remember how affectionately and kindly he received me. He told me, if I would be a good boy, that I should never want a friend. I will not undertake to describe the influence that his kindness had upon my mind. From that day to this, I have, as he promised, never wanted a friend in time of need, nor have I ever forgotten, I trust, those who in such times have been my friends; by whose aid, protected by kind Providence, I have been placed in a position to repay, in part, by kindness to others, the debt that is so justly due from me.”

And most amply has the debt been paid. That germ of human kindness, planted in the heart of the child, has borne rich and abundant fruit, in the large beneficence of the man.

During Major Shaw's absence on this voyage he had ordered a ship to be built, on his own account, at Germantown, in Quincy. This ship was launched in September, 1789, and was named the *Massachusetts*. She was of 820 tons burthen—larger than any merchant vessel previously built in the United States; and her model was pronounced, by naval commanders abroad, “as perfect as the then state of the art would permit.” In this ship, commanded by Captain Job Prince, Shaw sailed from Boston in March, 1790, on his third voyage to Canton. Before his departure,

his commission, as consul, was renewed by President Washington. On his outward passage he stopped at Batavia, to dispose of some merchandise which he had purchased for that market. He was there informed, that, on account of some supposed violations of the revenue laws by the Americans, all commerce with that people had been forbidden by the home government. Shaw immediately made a suitable representation, to the governor-general and council, of the injustice and the impolicy of the measure. What was the result of this step, we are not informed. It seems, however, that the prohibition was regarded with as little favor by the colonists as by the Americans.

Major Shaw returned to this country early in 1792. He immediately procured a ship of his own, and prepared for another voyage. While he remained at home, he paid his addresses to Hannah, the daughter of William Phillips, Esq., "of a family distinguished for its virtues and its prosperity." They were married on the 21st of August, 1792; but, auspicious as their union seemed, their happiness was doomed to be of short duration. In a few months they parted; the one, to be hurried to an early death; the other, to treasure up the memory of a few sunny hours through a long night of mourning—a night sad and lonely, yet not uncheered by the great rewards that active charity bestows upon the heart from which it springs, and by the glad contentment of a steadfast trust in God.

In February, 1793, Shaw sailed for Bombay and Canton. At Bombay he contracted a disease of the liver, incident to the climate. He pursued his voyage to Canton; but, obtaining no relief there, he sailed for home. On the 30th of May, 1794, he died at sea. The intelligence of his sickness and of his death came to Mrs. Shaw at the same moment.

Immediately after his marriage, Major Shaw had written this passage in his Bible:—

"Beneficent Parent of the universe! as in the years that are passed, so in those which are to come, may I rejoice in thy goodness, and, whether longer or shorter, may I be satisfied with life, and cheerfully submit myself to the dispensations of thy providence!"

In this temper and spirit he died. "Not long before his death," says his physician, "as I was standing by him, (we were alone,) he took hold of my hand and pressed it affectionately to his breast. He then sighed heavily, and, casting his eyes on the miniature of his wife, that hung at the foot of the berth, sighed again, and said, 'God's will be done.'"

It was the close of a useful and an honorable life. Washington, who seldom erred in his judgment of men, gave him this commendation:—

"From the testimony of the superior officers under whom Captain Shaw has served, as well as from my own observation, I am enabled to certify, that, throughout the whole of his service, he has greatly distinguished himself in everything which could entitle him to the character of an intelligent, active, and brave officer."

Those qualities of heart and mind which formed the intelligence, the activity, and the courage of the soldier, were not less conspicuous in the sagacity, the enterprise, and the integrity of the merchant. The esteem in which he had been held during his life, and the impression produced by his death, are well told in an obituary notice published in the Columbian Centinel of the 20th of August, 1794, from which we take the following:—

"His fine natural talents, elegant erudition, and social benevolence, gained him the esteem of a numerous acquaintance, and fitted him for extensive usefulness to society. As an officer in the army, in which he served during the whole of the late war, his merit was conspicuous. Though possessed of much romantic ardor, he supported a dignity and consistency of character; was equally prudent and brave, and ever attentive to the duties of his station.

"In his character of American consul for the port of Canton, he was called to act a part which required much discretion and firmness. On the occasion of 'the Canton war,' as it was called, Mr. Shaw represented the American interest in such a manner as to throw a lustre on his commission, and give him great credit among the European merchants and other eminent characters abroad. At his return, his conduct met the approbation of the representatives of the United States in Congress.

"He was considered as an ornament to his country, for his inflexible integrity, and a greatness of heart which he displayed on every occasion. The virtues which adorn the man, and which he manifested in his youth, became more splendid as he advanced in years, and engaged in public action. In the opinion of some persons, his spirit was too exalted to be successful in the common concerns of life. He did not love property for its own sake, but as the means of making his benevolence more extensive. He disdained many of those arts of traffic, which are daily practised, and deemed justifiable. His commercial dealings were regulated by the strictest honor, refined by the principles of philosophy and religion.

"The engagements of commercial, and even of military life, did not seduce him from a love of science. Though he had not the advantage of an academical education, yet his classical merit was so conspicuous, that, in 1790, he was presented with the honorary degree of Master of Arts by the university of Cambridge. This was done in his absence, and without his knowledge, at the solicitation of several gentlemen of eminence in literature. About the same time he was elected a Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

"Had he lived a few years longer, his country might have derived much benefit from his abilities, his information, and his virtues. His zeal to make others happy, would have endeared him still more to those who enjoyed his friendship, and made those hearts beat with new sensations of pleasure, which are now heavy with grief. The universal regret caused by his death is an evidence of the great esteem in which he was held. All who knew him lament him with expressions of sorrow equally lively and sincere."

Gladly, as we close this imperfect sketch, would we pay our tribute of respect to him, who has given the hours of his well-earned leisure to these grateful labors. But it becomes us to be silent. It is not for us to apportion the measure of praise that is due to one who has borne, with new honor, so illustrious a name. Most pleasing will it be to those, his contemporaries, who saw his great abilities and his untiring industry, in the years when he held a lofty place in the councils of the state; most pleasing to the thousands, still on the threshold of active life, who have learned to love him in that near relation in which he was ever a watchful guide and a zealous friend; to behold him thus filling up the full circle of duty, and, to the many labors, in which he has done good service to the living, adding this merited offering to the memory of the dead.

Art. III.—THE COMMERCIAL CITIES OF EUROPE.

NO. I.—HAVRE.

INTRODUCTION—LOCATION OF HAVRE—ITS GENERAL APPEARANCE—COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS OF HAVRE—CAUSES OF PROSPERITY—DESCRIPTION OF THE PORTS—ROADS—HARBOR—BASINS—NAVIGATION AND FOREIGN TRADE—ARTICLES OF EXPORT AND IMPORT—WHALE FISHERY—STEAMBOATS—OCEAN STEAMERS BETWEEN NEW YORK AND HAVRE—SHIP-BUILDING—FACILITIES FOR BUSINESS.

It is the fashion of the world to travel, and it is the fashion of travellers to write books. A few shillings, judiciously expended, will put it in the power of any man, endowed with Dogberry's natural gifts, to learn what companions one falls in with, in a diligence or a café; what strategy is requisite to enter a harem; at what hour, and in what mountain-pass one may count upon being met by banditti; what are the attractions, and what the inconveniences of life in the desert; into how many phonographic shapes the familiar word bashaw can be tortured; what describable emotions one feels in the crater of Vesuvius, as the earth bends, like thawing ice, beneath him; how surly John Bull is on the continent, and how sprightly Jean Crapaud is everywhere, and a thousand other facts, as useless as they are entertaining.

Seldom, however, do these amusing books furnish anything of value to us, commercial inquirers, beyond a few hints upon the retail trade of Constantinople, or an eloquent denunciation of the costly and unsavory messes of an Italian inn, suggestive to the economist of that important law, that, where profits come seldom, they must be large. A few travellers, and but a few, have thought it worth their while to learn and report what share various cities and countries are taking in that steady amelioration of man's physical condition; that still, but mighty revolution, in the relations of individuals and of nations; that making glad of "the wilderness and the solitary place" which the enterprise that commerce fosters, and the wealth that it bestows, are, day by day, accomplishing.

It is our business and duty, as well as we are able, to fill up this gap; and we have thought that a series of articles upon the Commercial Cities of Europe, made up from the most accurate sources within our reach, might do something towards this end. They will appear in successive numbers of the Magazine, and will resemble, in form and plan, those which we are now publishing upon the Commercial Cities of the United States. We commence with an article upon Havre, for the material of which, we are mainly indebted to a contribution of M. Edward Corbière, (a resident of that city,) to the *Dictionnaire du Commerce*.

Havre, formerly called Havre de Grace, the great Northern seaport of France, is situated in the department of the "Seine Inferieure," in latitude 49° 29' 14" North, and longitude 0° 6' 38" West from Greenwich. It lies at the extremity of the North bank of the Estuary of the Seine, 42 miles West from Rouen, and 109 miles West-north-west from Paris. Its fixed population in 1839, was about 28,000; its floating population, about 5,000.

The appearance of Havre is that of a modern commercial city. It is almost destitute of those marks of antiquity which give, to the cities of Europe, their chief interest for an American. It was founded towards the latter part of the sixteenth century, and is, therefore, but little older than New York. The only buildings which connect it with the past, are the

church of Notre Dame, the old Hotel de Ville, the Citadel, built by Richelieu, in 1564, and the tower of Francis I., a round edifice of freestone about seventy feet in height, and eighty-five in diameter, defending the entrance of the harbor, and built in the time of the monarch whose name it commemorates. Even in that section which is called the "Old City," commerce has overgrown antiquity. The repeated renovations which have been found necessary for the convenience of business, have obliterated almost every relic of the past.

Havre is built upon a long plateau, parallel with the course of the Seine. It is surrounded by a triple row of walls and ditches, about three and a half miles in circuit, through which the only entrances from the suburbs are five narrow gates. As the city is commanded by many lofty points in the neighborhood, these fortifications are utterly useless for its protection. Of course they seriously interfere with its traffic. The streets are tolerably regular, and the houses are arranged in good order. Numerous fountains adorn the city, which is supplied with water by pipes, leading from the vicinity. The principal business street is the "Rue de Paris," running North and South, from the Place de la Bourse to Ingouville gate.

Among the public establishments of Havre, are a Tribunal of Original Jurisdiction, a Chamber of Commerce, a Bureau for the Registry of Seamen, a Health Establishment for the visiting of ships, &c. Its manufacturing industry is but trifling, when compared with its commercial importance. A tobacco factory, a large sugar refinery, a saw-mill, a chain-cable factory, several foundries and shops for the construction of steam-engines, comprise its principal manufacturing establishments. It is only as a maritime city, that Havre deserves our attention.

The general causes of the advancing prosperity of Havre, are easily ascertained. They are the large and increasing business of the neighboring cities, Paris, Rouen, Elbœuf, and Louviers, in whose progress Havre, from its relative position, necessarily shares; the easy and cheap communication which the Seine affords with the great centre of business and travel; and, above all, the remarkable and singular advantage which the harbor possesses, in that the tide remains full there for several hours before falling. These causes are abundantly sufficient to make Havre the port of Paris, and the great maritime city of France. The past thirty years of peace have done much to realize the saying of Napoleon, that "Paris, Rouen, and Havre, form but a single city, of which the Seine is the principal street."

In order to make ourselves better understood in describing this interesting city, we shall speak of the various parts of the port, and of the different branches of industry, under separate heads.

ROADS. The roads of Havre are included between Cape de la Hève to the North, and to the South the plateau, upon which the city is built. Cape de la Hève is a highland, situated about two and a half miles to the North-west of Havre; its summit is about three hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea. Upon it are two light-houses, fifty feet in height, and about three hundred and twenty-five feet apart. In a clear night their lights may be seen at the distance of seven or eight leagues. This promontory, being well lighted, and its shore free from dangerous rocks, affords a safe and convenient landing-place to vessels bound into the port. A smaller and feebler light is placed on the sand-bank at the mouth of the channel, which leads into the harbor. This light marks the ex-

treme point of the roads to the South ; it is only useful to coasters, as they alone can venture to pass up the channel to the city during the night.

A chain of rocks called "Hecla," and the "Heights of the Roads," extends from North-east to South-west along the shore, from Cape de la Hève to the end of the sand-banks of the harbor. These rocks, which appear above the surface of the water at the ebb of the spring tides, offer little obstruction or danger to navigation. They separate what are called the Great Roads, (la Grande-Rade,) from the other channel, lying landward of the former, and called the Little Roads, (la Petite-Rade.) The depth of the Great Roads at ebb-tide is from six to seven and a half fathoms ; that of the Little Roads, from three to three and a half. Coasters, only, on account of their light draught of water, venture to anchor in the Little Roads.

In winter, even the Great Roads afford but a very unsafe anchorage, especially for large vessels, which are obliged to wait for a tide before entering the harbor. Ships bound in seldom anchor there, in the stormy seasons, but lie off and on, keeping at a safe distance from the shore, and waiting frequently a week or longer, either for a tide sufficiently high, or for a change of wind such as to permit them to enter the channel. The Great Roads are exposed, without protection, to winds from the West, South-west, and North-west. When the wind comes from the land, that is, from the North-east, East, or South-east, the anchorage is somewhat more safe ; though, in the stormy season, it is always hazardous. The stormy winds are generally from the West. The rise of the tide upon the coast is from twenty-two to twenty-seven feet.

HARBOR. The harbor is a *port de marée*, or tide-harbor ; that is, it is dry twice a day, at every fall of the tide. Its narrow entrance lies between two long banks of sand and gravel, extending from East to West. This, the only exit for vessels, is kept clear by frequent excavations, and by means of a sluice, which receives the tide-water, and, being opened at the ebb, sends a rapid current through the channel. The depth of the channel, at high water, varies constantly from ten feet, at the lowest neap-tides, to twenty feet, at the highest spring-tides.

This narrow entrance, which is scarcely wide enough for four ordinary vessels to pass abreast, leads to the inner harbor, the form of which is a trapezium, rounded at the angles. This inner harbor is small, and, like the channel at its entrance, dry at every fall of the tide. It serves as a refuge for a multitude of coasters, which can take the ground without damage. Large vessels, delicately built or deeply laden, only anchor there for a short time. They are placed in the basins during the same tide with which they have entered the harbor. The port is so much frequented, and the narrow and crooked channel so constantly crowded, that it is only by the greatest care, on the part of the captain, that a ship can be brought up to the city without accident.

A remarkable tidal phenomenon gives to Havre the important place it holds among the ports of the channel. The harbor is so situated, that the Seine sweeps directly across its entrance, and thus prevents the water within from issuing freely. The result of this is, that the tide remains full, in the harbor, for three hours together, after having attained its maximum height. On other parts of the coast it falls, as elsewhere, as soon as it ceases to rise. This delay of the tide, gives to ships entering or departing, sufficient time of deep water for all their purposes. Many

other ports of the channel appear to be situated as favorably for commercial purposes as Havre. This curious phenomenon, alone, gives it its marked pre-eminence. Without this advantage to atone for its many deficiencies, the port would be deserted.

BASINS. Havre has three floating basins, the Bassin de la Barre, commenced in 1800, and completed in 1818; the Bassin du Commerce, or d'Ingouville, also completed in 1818, and the Bassin du Roi, or the Old Basin, which was constructed more than a century ago, and has been repaired and reconstructed at various periods since.

Between the Old Basin (the smallest of the three) and the Bassin de la Barre, whose gates open towards the inner harbor, is the Bassin d'Ingouville, which divides the lower city into two parts.

These three basins are by no means sufficient for the necessities of the port; together, they are capable of containing nearly four hundred large vessels, lying in tiers, three or four abreast, at the quays, and made fast parallel with the sides of the basins. But, under ordinary circumstances, they do not contain more than one hundred and fifty or two hundred large vessels at once. This number is quite large enough to occasion great inconvenience and confusion.

M. Corbière complains that, at the time he writes, (in 1839,) the gates of these basins were too narrow to admit of the entrance of large steamboats; on account of this, steamboats lying in the inner harbor were obliged to ground at every fall of the tide. Thus, exposed to heavy westerly winds, they constantly suffered damage, which they would have entirely escaped could they have taken refuge in a floating basin. At that time efforts were being made to construct a dock, similar in plan to the London docks, with an entrance on the harbor. This, it was thought, would remedy the inconvenience, and would, also, avoid the necessity of landing goods upon the quays, as they are now landed, with no shelter but awnings. Great opposition was made to the plan by the notables, the city authorities, and even by the Chamber of Commerce. It was also intended, at that time, to excavate an old and neglected canal without the walls of the city, called the Canal Vauban, and to make of it a basin for the reception of small craft.

What was the result of these plans, or what changes have since been made in these respects, we do not know. We notice, however, in late French journals, that a new dock called "Florida," has recently been completed, for the use of the transatlantic steamers of Heroult and de Handel. It was opened on the 14th of October last, and, on that day, the "New York" entered it in safety. The "New York" is said to be the largest ship anchored at Havre since the wars of Napoleon, when the frigate "Grande Francois" was stationed there.

On the arrival of a ship, a place is allotted to her at the quay, at which to discharge. When she has reached her berth, her cargo is landed and placed under awnings, where it is weighed by the officers of the customs. After being weighed, the merchandise is transported upon carts to warehouses, which serve for a fictitious entrepôt, or to the real entrepôt of the customs, which is rented by the city, at a fixed tariff of prices, to merchants intending to re-export immediately, or to warehouse the goods of which they are the owners or consignees.

NAVIGATION. The foreign trade of the port of Havre furnishes employment to from three hundred and twenty to three hundred and thirty French

ships, besides about a hundred foreign ships of all nations. These vessels, carrying on the trade of Havre with the most distant parts of the globe, make, on an average, nearly two voyages a year; thus the foreign trade of the place requires more than six hundred voyages annually. We do not include, among vessels engaged in foreign trade, the steamboats of the regular lines, vessels sailing to distant French ports, nor even those trading with foreign European ports.

Taking the mean figures of the statistics of the commerce of this port to obtain an approximate result, we learn that it employs from 170,000 to 180,000 tons of shipping, and that the number of seamen engaged is not far from 8,000.

The principal articles of merchandise exported from Havre, are articles of French manufacture, such as silks, hardware, plate, crockery, fashions, glass, furniture, implements of labor and of art, paper-hangings, hempen and linen fabrics, eatables, wines, liquors, grain, salted provisions, bricks, tiles, &c. The value of these articles is, for the most part, very large in comparison with their bulk. Vessels transporting them, are seldom fully laden, and, therefore, obtain but a moderate, and, generally, an unprofitable freight. It is usually the case that ships sailing from Havre for foreign ports, are obliged to make up the burthen necessary for their safety by a large amount of stone ballast.

The return voyage is more productive to shipping, and, in some measure, compensates for the losses of the outward passage. The chief cumbersome articles of import, are cotton, of which Havre receives the larger part of that imported into France, sugar, coffee, rice, drugs, spices, indigo, tea, wood, and, in general, all the colonial products. The constant and active trade between Havre and the United States, the West Indies, Northern and Southern Europe, Brazil, Mexico, Peru, India and China, amounts annually to a value of not less than 500,000,000 francs. The duties upon these imports amount to 23,000,000 francs. The imports of Havre fall little short of those of Marseilles.

WHALE FISHERY. This branch of industry, which, in 1827, only employed five or six vessels, fitted by a foreign house, and manned by mixed crews, owes the prosperity to which it has since attained to the ordinance of 1829, upon bounties and French crews. To show the rapid progress made in this department of maritime enterprise, in consequence of that ordinance, it is sufficient to say, that, in 1839, there were belonging to the port of Havre fifty whale-ships, measuring from 400 to 600 tons each, manned by 1,500 chosen seamen, and importing annually 50,000 barrels of oil, and a proportional quantity of bone, and that the value of these products is more than 4,000,000 francs.

STEAMBOATS. Up to 1836, the whole steam navigation of Havre was effected by a few small boats employed in the Lower Seine, and two steam-packets running to Southampton. At present, however, it communicates with nearly every commercial point in its vicinity, by regular lines of steamboats.

The ocean steamers now running to New York, form a new bond of commercial and political union between France and this country. As yet, their voyages have been peculiarly unfortunate. The ships, however, seem to be well adapted to their purpose—their passages have been safely made, and their misfortunes have not been of such a character as to cast any imputation upon the skill of their navigators. Nothing is needed but

increased experience, to avoid the errors which have marred the promise of the undertaking. Doubtless, before long, these steamers will make their passages with speed and directness.*

A large number of steamboats are employed in the Seine, in towing barges and coasters. The barges are towed by the boats of the companies to which they belong. They are used in carrying merchandise from Havre to Paris, or from Havre to Rouen, from which place the goods are frequently conveyed to Paris by land. A great part of the merchandise sent to Paris, is destined to the interior of France, and to the markets of Italy. Most of these barges are of 300 or 400 tons burthen—a large capacity, when we consider the slight depth of water, and the difficult navigation of the Seine.

Four sailing packets leave Havre for New York every month; two for Bahia, and one for Vera Cruz and New Orleans.

SHIP-BUILDING. The four or five ship-yards which Havre possesses, are situated in the midst of the military establishment of the place, near the sea-shore, and open to the roads. There, among the huts of the suburbs, and at the extremity of the muddy roads that lead from the narrow gates of the city, are built the ships which have given Havre its high reputation as a port of naval construction.

The ships launched from the stocks at Havre are marked by their careful and delicate finish, and by their adaptation to the necessities of the voyage for which they are intended, and to the difficulties of the harbors which they are to navigate. Their models somewhat resemble the American type. In the building of steamboats, constant improvement, both in elegance and in nautical qualities, is manifest. Wages are high at Havre, and ship-building is, consequently, dearer there than elsewhere. The difference in price, however, is well paid for the peculiar intelligence and skill of the builders and laborers, and for the excellent quality of the materials used both in the building and the rigging of ships.

INSURANCE. There are ten Insurance Companies at Havre, which take risks on goods and vessels to the amount of from 30,000 to 80,000 francs on a single voyage. There are, also, about the same number of individual underwriters, who take similar risks. An agent of Lloyd's is stationed there.

We must not close without alluding to the promptness and facilities with which business is carried on at Havre, and to the rare occurrence of disputes between merchants. This is mainly owing to a system of rates, long since established by the Chamber of Commerce and the authorities of the city, under the name of "*Tares et usages de la place*," which determines all cases of doubt that are likely to arise from the multiplicity of business, and the conflict of opposing interests. Thanks to this system, to which time, and the experience of its excellence, has given the moral authority of a judgment, rendered beforehand, upon all points of difference which could be anticipated, legal contests have become rare at Havre, and business is properly and amicably conducted.

* For the regulations, &c., of the Ocean Steamers between Havre and New York, and the Contract of the Havre Company and French government, see Merchants' Magazine, Vol. XVI, for June, 1847, pages 617 to 619; also, for articles on the French Atlantic Steamers, see Merchants' Magazine for August, 1847.

Art. IV.—LIFE INSURANCE:

WITH REFERENCE TO PREMIUMS, ETC., OF LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

As there are not in the United States any vital statistics worthy of being made the basis of a calculation for premiums of a Life Insurance Company, the Carlisle Tables are usually adopted. These probably represent our mortality very nearly, and are much to be preferred to the Northampton Tables, which are generally employed in Great Britain by the societies for Life Insurance. They correspond so closely with the experience of the Equitable Society, after an existence of forty years, that the premiums calculated according to that experience, and according to the Carlisle Tables, differ only 1 per cent at the age of 20, $1\frac{1}{2}$ at 30, $2\frac{1}{2}$ at 40, and 2 at 50. At the higher ages, the difference is more considerable. It amounts to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent at 55, 14 at 60, and 16 at 65. The greater mortality, however, indicated by the Carlisle Tables, makes them more suited for our country; since it is believed that, at the advanced periods of life, our mortality is greater than in England. If we examine our census, and compare the number living at 60, and upwards, with those living between 20 and 30, the excess, even in the Carlisle Tables, will be very considerable. Supposing 100 to represent the number between 20 and 30, the comparison will be as follows:—

EXPERIENCE OF	Between 20 and 30.	Between 60 and 70.	Between 70 and 80.	80 and upwards.	60 and upwards.
Equitable Society.....	100	51	33	14	98
Carlisle Tables.....	100	33	14	5	52
New Hampshire.....	100	25	15	5	45
Vermont.....	100	24	14	4	42
Connecticut.....	100	22	13	4	39
New England.....	100	20	12	3	35
Middle States.....	100	14	6	2	22
Southern States.....	100	14	6	2	22
United States.....	100	13	6	2	21

The small comparative number appearing in our census at the higher ages, is caused in part by the immigration of a large number of persons at the earlier and middle stages of life, and in part by the increase in our population from year to year, which brings a larger number of young persons into the census than would take place if the population were stationary. These causes would possibly bring the durability of life up to that in the Carlisle Tables, but not up to the experience of the Equitable Society.

The whole mortality in Carlisle was 1 in 40; and for Philadelphia, for ten years, from 1830 to 1840, it was 1 in 43 for the white population, and 1 in 42 for the white and colored. In Boston and in Charleston, the reported mortality is less than in Philadelphia, but it is suspected that some omissions are made, in all these places, in the reports of the boards of health; and a few mistakes of this kind would bring the mortality up to the standard at Carlisle.

These, and other reasons that might be given, show that the Carlisle Tables are well chosen as the basis of the premiums required by our Life Insurance Societies. After the tables are selected, it is a mere question of mathematical calculation to determine the premiums for every different age, provided the rate of interest and the annual expenses of the society are known. These, however, are more or less uncertain. The expenses

are dependent, in part, upon the amount of business done, and the rate of interest varies from year to year. The usual rate is 6 per cent. Sometimes it is fully 7, even on long securities of the best character; and sometimes it is as low as 5, and even lower. Seven per cent State stocks, whose character has never been seriously doubted, have been below par occasionally, while 5 per cent stocks have at times been above par. This last has not, however, occurred, except when they were merchantable in Europe, where the rate of interest is lower than here. As 6 per cent United States stocks have usually been above par, the average rate has been below 6, but certainly not as low as 5 per cent. The insurance companies calculate their premiums at 4 per cent; but, when it is remembered that a separate allowance is made for the expenses of the company, and that much of their funds is loaned on mortgages, at the legal interest of 7 per cent, sometimes at 6, and scarcely ever as low as 5, it would seem wrong to use 4 per cent in their calculation of premiums. The rate of interest may indeed fall, in the long period these contracts have to run, but there is no reason to anticipate that the average will be below 5. In England, where the rate on *consols* is between 3 and 4, the companies use 3 per cent in their calculations; but it is generally acknowledged that this is too low, although it is nearer the usual rate there than 4 is in this country.

In the mutual companies, which are the principal ones in the United States, as all the profits are returned to the assured, it makes but little difference whether 4 or 5 per cent is used in the calculations—but still, it makes some difference. The rate of interest does not affect the premiums when the insurances are for a single year, and but slightly when the expectation of life is small; but for long periods, the effect is greater. A large portion of the receipts from the younger members is composed of the interest received on their successive payments, and the rate thus becomes of importance. If the company make 5 per cent, or more, on their accumulations, and charge for policies at 4 per cent interest, a part of the payments made by the younger members is transferred, in the division of profits, to the older members. This transfer is not large, but justice requires that the payments made by each should be, as near as possible, according to the real value of the risk. The excess paid by each ought to be returned when the profits are divided. No portion of the extra premium paid by one member should be put to the credit of another. Although we cannot tell with perfect accuracy what the return to each ought to be, we must approximate to it as nearly as we can.

Let us illustrate this by an example. If there were no expenses to be taken into the account, the premiums for the different ages mentioned below would be as follows:—

	AT THE AGE OF					
	20.	30.	40.	50.	60.	70.
Premium at 5 per cent...	\$1 21	\$1 64	\$2 24	\$3 21	\$5 43	\$9 09
" " " 4 " "	1 34	1 79	2 42	3 43	5 64	9 30
Difference per cent...	11	9	8	7	4	2

Now, if the company can make 5 per cent on the payments by the assured, the first set of premiums will meet the losses, according to the Carlisle Tables. The second rates being charged, the difference will be profits. If an equal number be insured at each age, and the gains all returned to the assured in proportion to each one's payments, the actual resulting cost to each one, and the per centage, too much and too little, paid by each, will be as follows:—

Actual premium..	\$1 28	\$1 71	\$2 31	\$3 27	\$5 38	\$8 87
Error per cent....	6+	4+	3+	2+	1-	2-

If the numbers assured at the several ages be different, the amount of error may vary; but, in every case, an excess will be charged to the younger members. Thus, if the ages of the assured should be about the same as in the Equitable Society, or—

3 at	12 at	300 at	400 at	200 at	100 at
20	30	40	50	60	70

then the actual cost to each, after the distribution of profits, and the error per cent in the charge to each, will be as follows:—

	AT THE AGE OF					
	20.	30.	40.	50.	60.	70.
Actual premium..	\$1 27	\$1 70	\$2 30	\$3 26	\$5 36	\$8 84
Error per cent....	5+	4+	3+	2+	1-	3-

None of these errors are large, but they all show that, by reckoning the rate of interest too low—lower than the actual amount received by the society from their investments—the younger members are made to pay too much, and the older members too little. We do not recommend 5 per cent because it makes the premiums smaller, for that is not necessarily the case. After the premiums have been calculated on the basis of 5 per cent, they may be increased in any ratio, even doubled, without working any inequality to the several members of the society. The objection to 4 per cent as the basis is, that the profits derived from each policy are not returned to the several members according to the actual gains derived from each. If the company shall make 6 per cent on their investments instead of 5, this inequality will be still more increased. If they should make less than 4, the burden and injury would fall on the older members instead of the younger. But as 5 approaches nearer than any other to the probable rate at which the investments of the company will increase, this ought to be made the basis of all calculations for premiums.

Besides the rate of interest, the expenses of the society have to be considered. These consist of office rent, salaries, books, advertising, compensation to agents, physicians' fees, exchange, postage, and some other incidental expenses. Some of these are proportioned to the number of the insured, and some to the amount of the payments. The far greater portion is of the latter kind, and it is not usual to make the assured pay anything more than a single dollar for his policy, however large may be the amount paid as premium. The age, and the sum insured, make no difference as to expenses. This is the rule in savings banks, in banks of deposit, when they charge for transfers, and in trust companies—and it seems founded in justice. A certain per centage is added to every payment, to meet the expenses of the company. The cost of conducting the business is borne by each, according to the amount paid into the treasury for premiums, just as, in a common co-partnership, the expenses are paid by each partner in proportion to his capital.

If this principle be correct, the proper mode of adjusting the premiums is to calculate them, first, as if there were no expenses; then increase them all, by a certain per centage. This may be 10 or 12 per cent, or more, according to the amount of business done, and the economy with which it is transacted. But as 5 per cent is usually allowed as a compensation to agents on all the premiums obtained at a distance, and as it is very important for every insurance society to scatter its business, and therefore to have these distant agents, 10 per cent is as small an amount

as can be expected. When the business is light, a larger per cent will be necessary ; but, as our mutual companies are already so well established that they are receiving \$200,000, or more, per annum, this 10 per cent will probably be sufficient. In the New York Mutual Insurance Company, the expenses of the first four years have been 11 per cent on their total receipts, which would make 13 or 14 on the first calculated premiums. As the business increases regularly, this per centage will be soon lessened.

Besides this addition to the calculated premiums for expenses, another should be made to meet the chance of the average mortality being higher than that in the Carlisle Tables. We are without any satisfactory statistics in this country. In the several States of Europe, there is not much difference in the laws of mortality. The ratio of the deaths to the whole population is pretty nearly the same in our cities as in those of Europe. But the greatest confidence cannot be placed in the accuracy of all these reports ; and, though we cannot say whether the expectation of life is lower or higher here than in Europe, prudence requires that our insurance companies should increase their premiums to guard against the contingency of an excessive mortality in this country. Although it might be suspected that the superior comforts of our population secure a greater durability of life here than abroad, this reason will not apply to the select persons who purchase an insurance. Many reasons might be given which make us suspect that the mortality of our middling and upper classes is higher than in Great Britain. Prudence requires, therefore, an advance in the calculated premiums, on this account. In the mutual companies, this advance will be returned, if there is no need for it ;—in the proprietary companies, it is necessary to secure the stockholders from the risk of loss ; and, if not wanted, will enure to their advantage.

Still another addition must be made to the calculated premiums in mutual companies, to meet the excessive mortality of particular seasons. Some of them divide their profits every year, and reserve nothing out of the gains of one year to meet the losses of another. One season may be healthy, and another sickly ; and all the losses of the companies by an excessive mortality, in any one year, must be met by the premiums of that year. There is no accumulated or proprietary fund to draw from, because their charters require that all the profits at the end of each year shall be divided among the assured. These profits may be reserved by the society, and only placed to the credit of the members on the books ; but still they are none the less appropriated, and put beyond any just claim of the directors, to meet extraordinary calls for the payment of policies. It is true, the laws of mortality are very regular—much more so than the risks at sea or from fire. In the city of Philadelphia, between the years 1830 and 1840, the deaths were in one year 33 per cent above the average. This was the year 1832, when the cholera prevailed. But, omitting that year, the deaths in 1835 were $15\frac{1}{2}$ per cent above the average, and in 1840 17 per cent below. By taking a wide range, and a large number of lives, these fluctuations may be lessened, but they cannot be destroyed ; and it is the duty of the societies to ask an addition to the calculated premiums to meet these variations. This is no actual loss to the assured in mutual companies. In sickly seasons, or when the mortality of the companies' lives is unusually great from accidental causes, the extra payments result in no profits ; while, in other years, the dividend will be large. In proprietary companies, this increase is so much gain to

the stockholders. In companies which make their dividends of profits every five years, or longer, the fluctuations will be less, and a smaller addition will be required.

We have thus three sources of additions to the calculated premiums—for expenses, for fluctuations in the losses by deaths, and for the contingency of an average mortality above the tables used in the calculation. All these additions should be proportionate to the premium. The one for variations from the average mortality should most evidently be so, for it is merely a fund to meet excessive losses; and, when not wanted, should be both collected and paid back according to the same rule—that is, according to the premiums for each policy. The addition to meet the contingency that the average mortality might exceed what is given by the Carlisle Tables, should be according to the same rule—for, as it cannot be seen beforehand at what ages this excess is likely to take place, no reason can be given why the addition should be greater at one age than another; and, therefore, it should be made according to the rule by which the profits are to be distributed—that is, in proportion to the premiums. The amount of these additions should be 25, or perhaps 30 per cent—10 for expenses, 5 for the contingency of excessive losses, and 10 or 15 for fluctuations from year to year.

On a subsequent page, will be found two tables of premiums, calculated according to the Carlisle table of mortality. The first column gives the premiums at 5 per cent interest, and the second at 4. These have been carefully computed, and will be found to agree with those obtained by Mr. Milne's values of annuities on a single life, calculated according to the usual formula, except in one particular—the amount insured is presumed to be paid by the company immediately on the death of the assured, instead of six months after, as is usually supposed. This makes these premiums greater than those usually obtained from the Carlisle Tables, by $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in the first set, and 2 in the second; or, more accurately, these premiums are to the common ones as $1+r$ to $1+\frac{1}{2}r$, denoting, by $1+r$, the amount of one dollar for one year, at the given rate of interest.

To these two sets of premiums I have added 30 per cent, and placed the results in the third and fourth columns—5 for possible deficiency in the Carlisle mortality, 15 for fluctuations from year to year, and 10 for expenses. The fifth column is made up by increasing the expenses for the younger policies. The far greater portion of the expenses is proportioned, indeed, to the premium paid, and not to the time the policy has to run; but some of them being annual, are greater for those who long remain in the society than for those who are members but a few years. The amount added to the premiums in the fifth column, in addition to the 30 per cent before mentioned, is 4 per cent at the age of 22, $3\frac{1}{2}$ at 29, 2 at 51, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ at 59; being one-tenth of the expectation of life at each age. This addition is arbitrary; but, as only a small portion of the expenses is dependent on the duration of the policy, it is evident that 14 per cent on the youngest, and about 11 for the oldest, will conform closely to the actual outlay; supposing, as is nearly the case with some of our companies, that the whole expenses are 12 or 13 per cent on the calculated premiums, or 10 per cent on the resulting premiums. In the seventh column are placed the premiums used by several of the New York societies, and in the ninth those used by the New England Mutual Company. In the sixth and eighth's places, are inserted the differences between each premium in the columns preceding them.

Life Insurance:

AGES.	Carlisle 5 per cent premiums on \$100.....	Carlisle 4 per cent premiums on \$100.....	Carlisle 5 per cent increased 30 per cent.....	Carlisle 4 per cent increased 30 per cent.....	Carlisle 5 per cent plus from 34 to 31 per cent.....	Differences.....	New York Mutual Company.....	Differences.....	New England Mutual Company.....
20.....	121	134	158	175	163	...	177	...	174
21.....	125	138	162	179	167	4	182	5	178
22.....	128	142	167	184	172	5	188	6	183
23.....	132	146	172	190	177	5	193	5	188
24.....	136	150	177	195	182	5	198	5	194
25.....	140	155	183	201	188	6	204	6	198
26.....	145	159	189	207	194	6	211	7	203
27.....	150	164	195	214	200	6	217	6	209
28.....	155	169	201	220	206	6	224	7	215
29.....	159	174	207	227	212	6	231	7	221
30.....	164	179	213	233	218	6	236	5	228
31.....	168	184	219	239	224	6	243	7	234
32.....	173	189	225	245	230	6	250	7	242
33.....	178	194	231	252	237	7	257	7	249
34.....	183	200	238	260	244	7	264	7	257
35.....	189	206	246	268	252	8	275	11	266
36.....	196	213	254	277	260	8	281	6	274
37.....	202	220	263	286	269	9	290	9	284
38.....	209	227	272	295	278	9	305	15	293
39.....	217	234	282	305	287	9	311	6	304
40.....	224	242	291	315	297	10	320	9	316
41.....	231	250	301	325	307	10	331	11	327
42.....	239	257	310	335	317	10	340	9	339
43.....	246	265	320	345	327	10	351	11	352
44.....	254	274	330	356	337	10	363	12	365
45.....	263	283	342	368	348	11	373	10	381
46.....	272	293	354	380	360	12	387	14	396
47.....	282	303	367	394	374	14	401	14	413
48.....	294	315	382	409	389	15	417	16	431
49.....	307	328	399	427	406	17	449	32	450
50.....	321	343	418	446	425	19	460	11	471
51.....	338	359	439	467	446	21	475	15	492
52.....	355	377	462	490	468	22	490	15	515
53.....	373	395	486	513	493	25	524	34	539
54.....	393	415	511	540	519	26	549	25	566
55.....	415	437	539	568	547	28	578	29	594
56.....	438	460	570	598	577	30	605	27	624
57.....	463	485	602	630	610	33	627	22	657
58.....	490	511	637	664	644	34	650	23	692
59.....	517	538	672	709	679	35	675	25	728
60.....	543	564	706	733	713	34	700	25	765
61.....	567	588	737	764	745	32	725	25	...
62.....	592	614	769	798	777	32	755	30	...
63.....	619	641	804	833	812	35	785	30	...
64.....	649	671	843	871	851	39	815	30	...
65.....	681	703	885	914	893	42	855	40	...
66.....	717	740	932	962	940	47	895	40	...
67.....	757	780	982	1014	990	50	945	50	...

In comparing either of the five calculated columns with those actually used by our companies, we cannot fail to be struck with the differences between them. The first increase with great regularity; while, in the New York Table, there are several places where the irregularity is striking. This is especially true at the ages of 38, 49, and 53. No one can observe this without being satisfied that these are grossly erroneous. It is utterly impossible that any law of mortality, or any rate of interest, can give these three premiums. They profess to be founded on the Carlisle Tables, using 4 per cent as the rate of interest; but they cannot be obtained from this source without the most arbitrary and unreasonable alterations. Other anomalies of the same kind, though not to the same extent, are to be found in this New York Table; and it is earnestly recommended to the companies that use it to revise it carefully, and make it more conformable to the demands of science and justice. Another remark may be safely hazarded, concerning this table. The premiums for the younger ages are too high, compared with those for the older. They are too high even if our mortality is the same as at Carlisle, and if 4 per cent is the actual rate at which the companies increase their funds. But, as there is some reason to suspect that the deaths at advanced ages are in a greater ratio in the United States than at Carlisle, and as the investments here bring more nearly 6 per cent than 5, this inequality is much greater.

To the New England Table, neither of these objections apply. The increments follow each other with great regularity. The premiums accord closely with the 5 per cent Carlisle Table, except that the advance is a little greater at the later periods of life. The following items of comparison between those two tables and those of Carlisle, will bring out the defects of the one, and the merits of the other, in several particulars:—

	New York premiums.	New England premiums.
Average advance over the 5 per cent table.....	40	42½
“ between the ages of 20 and 40.....	45	40
“ “ 40 and 60.....	36	43½
Greatest advance.....	46	46
Least advance.....	29	40
Age of the greatest advance.....	49	49
“ least.....	60	27
Average advance over the 4 per cent table.....	31½	33
“ between the ages of 20 and 40.....	32½	28½
“ “ 40 and 60.....	31	35
Greatest advance.....	37	37½
Least advance.....	24	27
Age of the greatest advance.....	49	60
“ least.....	60	29

The New England Table agrees well with the 5 per cent table, the greatest increase being at the higher ages. The New York Table agrees with neither, though better with the 4 per cent than the 5; but its greatest and least advance differ 13 per cent, and both these are at the higher ages. Variations in the per cent advanced on two ages immediately succeeding each other, amount, in several places, to 1, 2, and 3 per cent; and the advance is greatest in the earlier than in the later ages of the table.

As the mutual companies distribute their profits at stated periods, and then almost begin again as a new company, it is easy for them to alter their rates, especially if they reduce them. To those using the New York Table, it is suggested to substitute the premiums in the fifth column above,

if the Carlisle law of mortality is adhered to. Most of the premiums in it are lower than theirs, and those who have already taken out policies could thus be released from paying the old premium, and permitted to pay the new. This column will give the fairest and justest premiums, unless some tables of mortality better adapted to our country than those of Carlisle can be found; and, until then, it is recommended for general adoption.

Art. V.—MR. BROOKE, OF SARAWACK, BORNEO.

UNTIL very recently, the Island of Borneo has occupied a small share of public attention. It was known to exist on the charts of Eastern Asia, and that was about all. True, the Dutch, for many years, had taken possession of a considerable portion of it; but the world was not the more enlightened on that account, for the Dutch are not over communicative about their colonies, and the difficulty of access into the interior of any of them places them much in the condition of a sealed book—the outside may be seen, but the eye of the vulgar is not allowed to pry inside.

How much longer Borneo would have remained a *terra incognita*, without the instrumentality of Mr. Brooke, it is impossible to say; but to him, a private English gentleman, the honor of devoting a superior mind, great intelligence, and large fortune, in the great work of civilization, is due.

Mr. James Brooke embraced a military life early, in India. His regiment being ordered to Birmah, during the late war, he was dangerously wounded in the breast, which compelled him to return to England, his native land, and ultimately to resign the service. He joined the Royal Yacht Club, and made several distant excursions in his vessel, the *Royalist*, a schooner of about 150 tons, for the benefit of his health, which was greatly undermined by his wound; and finally he determined to quit Europe, and all the elegances and refinements of a world which he was so eminently prepared to adorn, to devote himself to regenerate a people known but to few. Mr. Brooke, whilst serving in India, had visited China, and as Borneo lays near the usual ships' route, the deserted condition of that immense and fertile island, and more especially, the depressed, degraded, and wretched condition of the Dyacks, supposed to be its primitive inhabitants, gave rise to sympathies which, instead of becoming more faint, increased in intensity in more mature life; and it was to enter on this bold undertaking, that Mr. Brooke, in the *Royalist*, arrived at Singapore, in 1839.

The writer of this, a citizen of the United States, has known Mr. Brooke well, from that time; and it is to rebut certain uncharitable paragraphs, relating to his settlement of Sarawack, which have appeared in the United States, and to set him in his own proper light before the American public, that this notice is written.

Those who have attributed to Mr. Brooke the desire of monopolizing the products of Sarawack, and acquire riches, could know but little of him, the man of all others of the purest philanthropy, and not of mercantile speculation; and those who have pointed out Sarawack as a new jewel added to the colonial wreath, with which "the grasping ambition of England" encircles the globe, must have made a very different publishment had they themselves encountered the discouraging indifference with which

his applications to be admitted on the footing of a British colony, or placed under her protection, and allowed to display the national standard, were received in London. So far from complying with his prayers, or entering into views, exclusively philanthropic, only cold replies were returned, and he was left without a flag even to this day, and to sustain himself against land and sea pirates, until the commanders of the British forces on the China station became sensible of the impolicy of allowing so important an outwork in the very centre of the seas still infested by pirates: and then, and only then, was aid extended to his settlement. He has now embarked for England, and no one who knows him, or what are his designs, can but wish him every success. But whilst he is journeying to the West, let us return to Sarawack.

No sooner had Mr. Brooke made some necessary arrangements at Singapore, than he proceeded to the scene of his future actions. Borneo proper, on the charts, or *Bruni*, as called by the natives themselves, and Sarawack, also, are situated on the North-west coast of the island, and near the equator. Bruni is a floating town* of considerable extent, and there the sultan resides. Under the feudal system of the Malays, the rajah of Sarawack was his vassal, though an independent prince living in his own states. Sarawack has a sea-coast of about sixty miles, and its inland boundaries are remote and undefined. The settlement, or town, is seated on a large river, navigable for ships of a large size. The soil is generally rich, and the climate very healthy. For many years it had been a place noted for its exports of rich antimony ore, which abounds in the country.

As has already been said, Mr. Brooke's feelings were engaged in favor of the Dyacks; and it was to regenerate them that he entered into negotiations, which were pending for some time with the rajah, for the cession of his sovereign and proprietary rights over the country, for a consideration in money. The sultan, at Bruni, who was suspected of giving every aid to the pirates, opposed the negotiations to his utmost, and subsequently, when Mr. Brooke had obtained quiet possession of the government, he sent assassins to take away his life; but so popular had the new ruler become, that they dared not make any attempt.

The whole sea-coast of Borneo, as is indeed that of every part of the Malayan Archipelago, is governed by Mahommedans, composed of Arabs and Malays, who, by superior energy and intelligence, rule despotically over the Dyacks, whom they have subdued, and in subduing have destroyed all spirit of resistance, and reduced them to a condition of dependence and slavery. They are compelled to labor, but the fruit of it is taken by their hard masters, and they are reduced to resort mostly to wild plants and roots for their own daily sustenance; and so fallen are they that the last spark of human ambition has departed from them. A custom, which prevails in the native mountains, of cutting off human heads as tokens of prowess, and without the possession of a certain number of which the young Dyack cannot approach the chosen of his heart, tends to keep down the population of the central lands of that fertile country, watered everywhere by large and small rivers.

It was to free this people from the oppression of their Mahommedan masters—to rouse them from the state of stupor they had fallen into—to

* The houses are built on rafts.

put new life into them, and give them energy, that Mr. Brooke purchased the country. His first care was to establish a court, where justice was done to the poor as equitably as to the rich, and every one was made to understand that he could hold, without fear of having it taken away, that which was his own. He called on all the petty Dyack chiefs, and persons of note around him, and explained the change of condition which had come over them, and bid them to adopt industrious habits now that they had nothing to apprehend from the rapacity of their late masters. One by one he has cleared his territory of that greatest of all plagues, the petty Malay rajahs and chiefs, and, also, of that set of vagabonds, the Hadjees, or pilgrims, who have been to Mecca to be made holy, so as to return into the country from whence they came to pass the remainder of their lives in the practice of detestable crimes, in idleness, and in exacting from the industrious the fruit of their hard earnings. The country is now free of its former oppressors, and in about four years mark the change. A country which, under the former government, yielded scarcely rice enough for its scanty population, this year exports 1,000 tons. The gold mines, which were surrounded with danger, now are estimated to yield \$100,000, and birds' nests \$20,000, annually. Plantations of pepper, gambier, and spices, have been commenced, which will soon add to the exports; and when the Chinese, who now turn their attention wholly to the working of the gold mines, shall become agriculturists, the facilities of obtaining waste lands will bring out the resources of the country on a large scale.

But the establishment of Sarawack as a European colony, assumes immense importance, as an outpost in the very centre of the seas infested by those bold, daring, and merciless pirates, who prowl into every nook and corner of the Malayan Archipelago in quest of booty, be it in human flesh or merchandise. There is very good reason for believing, that the sultan of Bruni was one of their main supporters, as has already been said, which, by the perseverance of Mr. Brooke, he has renounced, by treaty with England, and which his presence at Sarawack enables him to see is honestly observed. Not only has he extended his influence over the ruler of Bruni, but over more distant ports, formerly noted as places for fitting out piratical prahus, or in close connection with them.

An instance of the benefits of that influence, of a recent date, will find an appropriate place here. The ship *Mary Ellen*, of Boston, Captain Dearborn, was unfortunately cast away a few months since, on her passage from China to New York, on the Island of Soobie South Natulas, a small island laying near the coast of Sarawack. The ship's company succeeded in reaching the shore, and presented themselves to the chief of the island in a perfectly helpless condition, being unarmed. Now it is notorious (by many well-known instances of similar disasters) that, up to the time of the settlement of Mr. Brooke on Borneo, the whole crew of the *Mary Ellen* would either have been murdered, or else sold as slaves. But what better fate awaited them now! The Oorang-Kayah, or head man of Soobie, in the first place, sent to a distance to purchase rice, of which he had no supply, to feed the strangers; then he sent over to Sarawack to notify Mr. Brooke of the event, and that the white men were under his protection; and finally, he fitted out one of his own prahus, and had all of them conveyed to Singapore!

Such are the results of the efforts of a single man, using his own resources, and his own resources only—and that man is James Brooke, one

of those extraordinary creatures entrusted with a high mission, by a bounteous Providence, to dispense light, civilization, and Christianity, among benighted men. And yet this man, who devotes life, acquirements, and fortune, to improve the condition of his fellow-men—that man, too, finds detractors, who, unable to comprehend the spirit of philanthropy that moves him, or his high calling, resort to vulgar abuse to bring him down to their own level. But misrepresentation of his motives will not discourage him, or lessen his energy. He will yet accomplish the task which he has set to himself—that of extirpating piracy from the Northern and Eastern coast of Borneo, and the adjacent islands. He has already entered into communication with some of the principal chiefs of the places from whence they sally out; and it is to be hoped that, on his return from England, the home government will put him in a condition to do by force, what he may not be able to do by treaty. To appreciate duly the extent of the ravages, even now committed by these daring marauders, it is only necessary to peruse the Singapore “*Straits Times*,” or the “*Free Press*,” of the end of June of the present year, where will be found the details of an engagement, which the little “*Nemesis*,” of China celebrity, had, with a fleet of eleven prahus; and in the “*Free Press*,” of July 1, may be read the depositions of several rescued captives brought to Singapore, showing with what perfect security they carry on their infamous trade from island to island. Even poor little Poolo Soobie, on which our shipwrecked countrymen were so humanely treated, has been made to feel the weight of their vengeance, created, no doubt, by their new connection with Mr. Brooke.

The time is not, perhaps, distant, when the Malay population of Sarawack will be suddenly and greatly increased. The freedom and security enjoyed at that settlement, contrasts so favorably with the oppression under which the natives groan all around, that a strong disposition is manifested by the inhabitants of the Anambas, Natulas, and other islands adjacent to that part of Borneo, to abandon their native soil, and seek a participation of the quiet of Sarawack.

The amount of misery which these islanders are made to suffer, by the cruelty and rapacity of their chiefs, is little dreamed of in the Western hemisphere. A recent occurrence will show the every-day excursions of pleasure of the young Malay nobles. An eye-witness, it is, who speaks:—

Some time in the early part of this year, three prahus, of considerable size, came to the Anambas from the Island of Linga, (under Dutch protectorate,) on board of which were brothers and connections of the young sultan of that island. They came, apparently, to have a sky-lark; and that they certainly had with the poor islanders, their vassals and subjects, as all the islands about acknowledge themselves dependent on the sultan of Linga. They helped themselves to all the young virgins, which they took in turn to their prahus, during their stay there, and carried off about twenty of them, besides all the oil, cocoa-nuts, rice, and other things there was room for in their boats, and returned to Linga with the booty.

Thus are these poor people exposed to the wholesale robberies of the professed pirates, who land, and carry away as many of the people, large and small, male and female, as they can lay a forcible hand on, as well as all that is otherwise valuable; and, on the other hand, their liege lords, whom they dare not oppose, rob them of that which is dear or precious.

Is it to be wondered at, that they should meditate to take refuge in a Christian settlement?

Before closing these remarks, a few words of Mr. Brooke's *personnel* may be interesting to those who have read them. He was born in 1803, and consequently is now about forty-four; somewhat above the ordinary European height; of a frank, open countenance, which bespeaks him what he really is, every man's man—be he high in station, or occupying an inferior position in life, still Mr. Brooke becomes, without effort, "his man." Joyous with the gay—grave with the serious—he is always natural. In an aquatic excursion, or at pic-nic, he will enter into the spirit of the thing with more spirit than any one else; and so in a refined assembly of ladies, he will be the object of their predilection. Seated in a library, no one will be better acquainted with the contents of the books composing it; and he is as ready to discuss matters of abstruse science, theology, history, &c., &c., as he is the merits of the last of D'Israeli's Jewish visions.

After dinner, at Sarawack, with his European household and friends assembled around him, his practice is, to invite them to propose a subject for general discussion and debate, and in this profitable manner a good part of the night is passed. On other nights, he receives certain persons of note among the natives, with whom, seated and smoking until the approach of morning, the time is passed in listening to their wild historical legends, or in instructing them in the ways of civilization. Highly endowed by nature—highly cultivated by study and intercourse with the world—gifted with a kindly and sweet disposition—he is universally beloved and respected by all classes of men.

J. B.

Singapore, July, 1847.

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

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, ETC.

SIR—Observing that you have given place in your columns to various remarks on the consular system of the United States, I would take the liberty to submit to your notice the subjoined outlines of a revision, by which I think that the main objections to the present system may be obviated, without injury or injustice to a class of public officers, second to none in the value and importance of their service.

The varied and important duties which devolve upon the consular agents of the government, are, unfortunately, not as generally known as they ought to be; hence arises the mistaken idea, that they can be performed by any and everybody, and that the compensation for those services is a useless charge upon the nation; but I am confident that if the people of the United States did but know how very advantageous to all the interests of the country a well-organized consular corps would be, they would not hesitate to urge upon the representatives in Congress the necessity of prompt and careful attention to it.

It would occupy, I fear, too large a space, to attempt a detail of the various duties assigned to consuls by law, and by the long established usages and customs of nations; suffice it to say, that they have to watch over the maritime, commercial and manufacturing interests of their coun-

try; to be the protectors, friends, and advisers of their countrymen abroad; to act as judges in some cases, and justices of the peace in others, and as notaries; to be the administrators of the intestate estates of their countrymen who may die within their consular districts, and of all property of such as may have no other legal representative; to endeavor to prevent frauds on the revenue; to notice the infraction of treaty stipulations affecting the trade of their country; to keep the government advised of all new laws and regulations within their districts. These, added to the special duty of preserving the discipline of the commercial marine of the country, and of guarding the seamen of the United States from oppression and ill-usage, and of aiding those of them who may become destitute, are duties sufficiently numerous and arduous, as to require, for their faithful performance, all the intelligence, honor and patriotism of the best citizens of the Republic; and I venture to say, that the United States has no class of public servants charged with so many duties as its consuls are; none, certainly, who receive less consideration.

Now, sir, if what I have said in relation to duties of consuls, be true, (and by reference to the "General Instructions of Consuls, etc.," to be found in the State Department, it will be found to be so.) it is obvious, that to render the class of officers referred to efficient, they should be chosen from the well-educated, respectable portions of society; they should be citizens owing allegiance and fidelity to the country; they should be disconnected from commercial pursuits; and they should, by a sufficient compensation, be rendered independent of improper influences, and capable of supporting the dignity and honor of the country which they represent.

With this view of the case, I must confess great surprise at the bill brought in by a special committee of last Congress; and I must say, that if it becomes a law, there is great likelihood that the consular office would not be filled by the kind of persons by whom alone its duties can be properly fulfilled. What man competent to perform them, would leave his country, bearing the expense and inconvenience of removal, in many instances incurring the risk of bad climates, assume all the responsibilities of such an office, for a salary of \$1,500 or \$2,000 a year? which, considering all the disadvantages suffered by strangers in foreign countries, and the expense of living in many, is not equal to a clerkship in New York of \$500 to \$800 per annum. Even the highest salary of \$4,000, provided for the consuls at Liverpool and London, is a mere pittance, considering the extent of their duties; and that they must necessarily employ clerks, whose salaries would be nearly equal to those proposed to be allowed to their employers.

But it is said that the services of consuls not being general in their effects, (which is certainly very erroneous,) the expense of their support should not be chargeable upon the whole country, but should be borne by the maritime and commercial interests, only; and out of this arises the difficulty of an appropriation competent for the proper support of this branch of the public service. In view of this objection, and fearing the impossibility of surmounting it, it has occurred to me that a law based upon the outlines referred to, might meet the difficulty; because, by the provisions therein contained, the expenses for the support of consuls will, for the most part, be paid by the shipping and commercial interests, as *they are now*; the position of consuls in commercial districts, would not

be made worse, and that of those in places of smaller importance, would be made much better; and, excepting in the case provided for in the fifth section, the consuls of the United States would be citizens of the United States, not engaged in mercantile pursuits.

In conclusion, sir, permit me to observe, that a very objectionable feature of the bill referred to is, that of making the consuls the collectors of fees for the benefit of the United States. If a tonnage duty shall be received as payment for the receiving and delivering of ships' papers, let it be done at home, and thereby save the consuls the annoyance and risk of collecting and keeping government funds.

Having had some experience in the service referred to, I must say that the United States, in her present position of growing greatness, above all other nations, requires, and should have, a well-arranged consular system, carried on by respectable independent citizens of her own; and with the hope that such may soon be the case,

I am, very respectfully,

* * * *

OUTLINES FOR THE REVISION OF THE CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

1st. Abolish the fees payable to consuls by masters of vessels for the deposit and delivery of ships' papers; and in lieu thereof, levy a duty of one or one and a half cents per ton, on every vessel clearing for a foreign port, from any port of the United States, payable at the custom-house of such port, previous to clearance.

2d. Let the sum produced by the said duty be appropriated to the salaries of consuls; and, should there be any deficiency, let such deficiency be supplied from the annual appropriation to the State Department for the maintenance of foreign relations.

3d. Graduate the salaries of consuls according to the number of American vessels arriving at the port to which they are respectfully appointed, at the rate of \$4 for each vessel; adopting as a basis the average of vessels so arriving for the last few years; but in cases where the numbers of vessels do not amount to 250, make the salary \$1,000 per annum.

4th. Make it obligatory on consuls, in consideration of their salaries, to take charge of the ships' papers, to assist the masters of vessels in making their entries and clearances, at the respective custom-houses; to protect seamen, and to perform all such other unpaid services as they are now required to do; but for all other services as are at present paid for by fees, allow the consuls to collect such fees for their own benefit.

5th. Make it requisite that the consuls shall be citizens of the United States, and not be engaged in mercantile pursuits; excepting in such ports where the salaries do not exceed \$1,000; then it shall be discretionary with the President, with consent of the Senate, to appoint such other person as he may deem proper.

6th. Let the appointments of consuls be for a fixed term, subject to dismissal for misconduct, and permit their re-appointment at the end of such term.

7th. Establish a Consular Bureau at Washington, from whence, under directions of the State Department, shall emanate all the necessary orders and regulations of the consular service; and which shall furnish the consulates with a copy or compendium of all the laws relating to their duties, powers, and responsibilities.

Art. VII.—STATE TOLLS UPON RAILWAYS.

UPON what principle does the State require tolls to be paid into the public treasury, for the transportation of property upon those railways which are constructed and maintained entirely by private capital? It will scarcely be justified as a bonus or compensation for the granting of a charter, or for the right to exercise the proper business of the association, under its act of incorporation. The day when such a reservation, alike inconsistent with the fair reputation of the State, and with the proper business of legislation, might have been tolerated, has long gone by. Individuals have the same right to construct a railroad, that they have to build and establish a line of steamboats or packets, or to erect factories, mills, or even to buy and improve farms. In the construction and maintenance of a railway, the proprietors derive little from the act of the legislature, except the convenient form of vesting the property, giving perpetuity, and preventing a partition, or sale and distribution, in the event of the death of the proprietors, or some of them. Even to this end, a charter would not be necessary, but for the restriction upon private right, which prevents the placing such property in trustees with a power of succession. It is a common opinion that the legislature grants the right to take private property for the use of the railway proprietors, and, therefore, such terms, by way of compensation, may be imposed for the grant, as the legislature may deem proper to require. We have, by our constitution, declared that "the people of this State, in their right of sovereignty, are deemed to possess the original and ultimate property in and to all lands within the jurisdiction of the State;" and that, when this right is asserted "for any public use," that compensation shall be made, therefore, to the individual whose property is thus taken. It is not, then, the legislature that grants, but "the public use" that demands the appropriation. If tolls are levied, it must, of course, be upon those who use the railways; that is, upon the public, for whose use it is made. The question readily occurs, how much is gained by this operation? The constituted authorities decide that the public use requires a railway upon a given route, and it is made by the voluntary contributions of the capital of those who rely upon the lowest rate of compensation for that public use, that will remunerate for the investment. If tolls are required to be paid into the treasury, it is a tax upon the public, for the public benefit. It would thus seem that the tolls which are required for the transportation of property upon the central line of railway through our State, can hardly be justified because of anything granted by the legislature to the persons who make the railways. It is not usual to require such tolls; though the States of New Jersey and Maryland have reserved a portion of the compensation derived from the transportation of passengers, because there the company is warranted against competition. In these States the matter is exciting attention, and, in the latter, there has been some modification of the rate heretofore required. The State tolls are practically a restriction upon the amount of business to be done on the central line, tending to impair the value, and to diminish the usefulness of the railways. It is quite inconsistent with enlarged and liberal views, to encourage the construction of a great public improvement, and then to restrict its usefulness.

It may be, that, in the first instance, it was not apprehended by the le-

gislature that these tolls would, to a considerable extent, be a tax upon the producers in the Western part of the State. In the recent published tariff of charges,* the several companies have now placed the tolls where the matter will be seen and appreciated. By a late law, these companies are not only required to pay tolls upon all property transported upon their railways, but the distance is to be computed according to the length of the canal. Thus, from Schenectady to Albany, by railway, is 17 miles, while the canal is 29 miles long between those places. So, from Syracuse to Utica, the canal is 61 miles long, while the railway is 53 miles. From Buffalo to Rochester, the canal is 95 miles long, while the railway is 74 miles. The tolls are to be computed upon the longest distances.

This is claiming a monopoly for the canal of all the transportation through the centre of our State. Those who have heretofore exhibited a commendable and earnest conviction that monopolies should be checked, will here see one, perhaps, deserving their attention. While this law remains in force, the charges for transportation upon the railways, so far as the tolls are concerned, cannot be reduced. The farmers at the West, and the consumers of their products at the East, have only to estimate the canal tolls on all property transported by railway, and they will have the amount they pay to sustain the State monopoly.

The New York and Erie Railroad is now in rapid progress toward completion. As yet, no tolls are required upon this line. It is said that the capitalists of Boston will soon have a continuous line of railway from that city to Ogdensburg, in our State. Here, also, no tolls are yet required. Both of these roads will, to some extent, compete with the canal and the central line of railways. Will tolls be required upon property transported upon them? The maintenance of the monopoly, and an equality of privilege, will, perhaps, require that they should be. It probably is not apprehended, by those engaged in either of these roads, that tolls will be imposed upon them. Should it result that they can successfully compete with the canal, as is very confidently believed by many, either there will be a general system of tolls on all transportation, or, in justice, all will be exempt. The latter will be far the most likely to ensue; and the State, as the *owner* of the canal, must so graduate its charges upon transportation, as to be able to compete with the *owners* of other lines. Then the public will be served in the best manner. The canal will be enlarged—the locks doubled—and transportation reduced to the lowest remunerating point. The railways will be improved, their expenses economized, and it will be ascertained which has the benefit of location. The legislature and public sentiment should aid to place them all upon an equal basis as to privilege and restriction, and leave to the enlightened proprietors the enjoyment of deserved patronage.

* For this tariff, see "Railroad, Canal, and Steamboat Statistics," in another part of the present number of the Merchants' Magazine.

Art. VIII.—LABOR AND OTHER CAPITAL :

THE RIGHTS OF EACH SECURED, AND THE WRONGS TO BOTH ERADICATED.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq.—Dear Sir : Although it is universally admitted that nearly all wealth is the product of labor, yet the laboring classes of all civilized nations have been, and are, as a body, poor. If the natural product of labor be wealth, the natural result of toil would be competence or wealth to those who performed the labor, unless something intervened to deprive them of their natural rights. Many philanthropic men have endeavored to ascertain the causes of the poverty of producers, and many reasons for it have been assigned, but not one of them is sufficient to account for it, and no practicable plan has been suggested for the removal of the evil.

I am about to publish a work entitled "Labor and Other Capital : the Rights of each Secured, and the Wrongs of both Eradicated ;" in which I expect to show the true and only means by which producers have been, and are, deprived of their just and natural reward, and to point out a practicable remedy for the removal of the evils. It will be my aim to exhibit those means so clearly that they will be understood not only by the statesman and man of science, but also by those who have hitherto bestowed little or no thought upon the subject, and who are now ignorant of the causes of their frequent suffering, and often scanty means of subsistence. When the causes are understood by which these evils are produced, it will be clearly seen that the remedy proposed for their removal is practicable, and entirely adequate to accomplish the purpose. Although the system is so simple that a school-boy may understand it, yet it is sufficiently powerful to secure the reward of labor throughout the world, and to direct the destiny of nations. The means necessary to put it into operation are as easy and simple as the system itself. The adoption of the system is so evidently the duty, and for the interest of the producing classes, not only of one, but of all political parties, that when its principles shall be once generally known, I doubt not that it will speedily be put into operation.

Public opinion on this subject must be changed, and it must, and will, undergo a complete revolution. It has been my aim in the forthcoming volume so to exhibit the principles and the practicability of the system which it advocates, that they shall be as evident as a mathematical demonstration, that *all* may see the bearings, and appreciate the importance of its adoption.

Although the system will secure to labor its reward, it will at the same time protect the capitalist in all his rights in property, and it will in nowise interfere with any disposal of his property that he may deem for his advantage. It will not diminish any right to form contracts, and it will make all contracts formed far more certain of fulfilment ; and, therefore, instead of encroaching upon the liberty of man, it will add greatly to his freedom and independence. It is, in fact, a system which is necessary to the perpetuation of a republican government, to the security of individual property, and of the general rights of man.

The insertion of this communication in your valuable periodical will much oblige
Your obedient servant,
GODEK GARDWELL.

New York, Dec. 13th, 1847.

VOL. XVIII.—NO. I.

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MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

FOREIGN ATTACHMENT—JOINT DEBTS—SECRET PARTNERSHIP—EVIDENCE OF FOREIGN LAWS—LAW MERCHANT, ETC.

IN Superior Court of the city of New York. Charles Oakley vs. Howland & Aspinwall.*

Where a person who contracted a debt in his own name, had confessed judgment in a joint suit against himself, and another sued as his partner, upon whom process had not been served, whereupon judgment had been entered against both, under the joint debtor act, and a foreign attachment had been taken out against both, which was dissolved upon the agents of the defendant not served giving a bond conditioned to pay the amount due by the defendants, jointly, in an action on such bond, it was held that the debtor, so confessing judgment, was not a competent witness for the plaintiff, on the ground of interest.

A witness who is himself liable for a debt, is not, in general, competent to prove another a co-contractor with him.

An account subscribed by the ostensible partner of a commercial house, and dated while the partnership existed, is not competent evidence to show to what the joint business extended; it not being proved that such account actually existed during the existence of the firm, except from its date.

An entry by a deceased witness, against his interest at the time it purports to have been made, is not admissible, without *other evidence* that it was actually made at the time of its date.

Where a commission was awarded to a foreign country, on behalf of the plaintiff, to obtain sworn copies of the record and proceedings of the failure of a commercial house, and of the accounts between the house and another, sought to be charged as a secret partner, and the plaintiff applied to a court in such foreign country, to enforce the execution of the commission, in pursuance of letters rogatory accompanying the same, it was held that the record of the proceeding on such application, was not admissible to show that such other person, who was the party in interest on the part of the defendant, appeared of record, opposed the application, and defeated the execution of the commission.

A co-partner, after dissolution, may give a confession of judgment in a suit against him and his partner, not served with process under the joint debtor act, which will make the judgment evidence of the amount of the debt, in the same manner as if he had liquidated an account, and let judgment go by default.

In taking out a foreign attachment for a debt founded upon a judgment recovered, without service of process upon some of the defendants, it is sufficient to state the debt to be founded on *the judgment*, without mentioning the original debt upon which the judgment was recovered; though that must be *proved*, to establish the demand against those not served.

By the law merchant, recognized by the commercial world, a participation in the uncertain profits of trade, as a return for capital advanced, constitutes such participator a partner in the concern in which the capital is invested, and makes him liable to third persons, though he is to receive back his whole capital and profits, without deduction for losses or liabilities of the concern.

Though it be proved that the law of the country where a contract was made, required all contracts of partnership to be reduced to public documents, and registered, still a secret partner of a firm who have not complied with such law, will be held liable to the creditors of the firm, though the contract of co-partnership be void, as between the partners.

Where the accounts current between a house and a person sought to be charged as a secret partner showed a division of "*profits of certain transactions*" annually, "*as per detailed accounts*" rendered with the accounts current, and the individual sought to be charged had *destroyed* the detailed accounts, it was held, that such destruction, and the failure to prove what the "*certain transactions*" were, afforded strong grounds to infer that such profits arose from the general business of the house.

Where a stipulation was entered into between the parties, agreeing that the defendants should waive a commission which they had obtained, with a stay of proceedings, and that the plaintiff should deduct a certain amount from his claim, for certain items, in respect to which, the defendants should give no evidence on the trial, that the stipulation was made to avoid expense and delay, and that it should not bind the plaintiff as to the deduction, if the defendants should further postpone the trial of the cause beyond the first week in March term, 1846, and the cause was tried in the first week of March term, 1846, and *after a new trial awarded*, the defendants again postponed the trial, it was held, that the plaintiff was not bound to make the deduction, though defendants were still precluded from attacking the items in question.

This was an action of debt on a bond given by the defendants as the agents of John W. Baker, of Trinidad de Cuba, to dissolve a foreign attachment taken out by the plaintiff in 1837, against said Baker, and John Young, upon which Baker's property in the city of New York had been seized.

The plaintiff's claim was originally for goods consigned in 1828 to the house of John Young, in Trinidad. That house failed in 1833, and in 1834 Young came to New York, and was sued jointly with Baker, the plaintiff claiming to hold Baker as a partner with Young. The process was not served on Baker, but Young gave a confession for \$22,498; upon which, judgment was entered

* This highly interesting and important case has been carefully prepared for publication in the Merchants' Magazine, by H. P. Hastings, Esq., one of the counsel in the case.

against both defendants, under 2 R. S., 299, in respect to proceedings against joint debtors, whereby the judgment in such case was declared to be good to authorize an execution against the joint property of all the defendants, and the individual property of those served with process, and conclusive evidence of the liability of those served with process; but only evidence of the extent of the demand after the liability should be established by other evidence, as against those not served. The debt claimed on taking out the attachment, was founded upon the judgment so recovered.

The bond in suit was conditioned to pay so much as Young & Baker were indebted to the plaintiff at the time he became an attaching creditor, on account of any debt claimed and sworn to by him as such attaching creditor.

The breach assigned, was, that Young & Baker were indebted on the judgment above mentioned, and the issues joined all depended upon the question of Baker's joint liability with Young, for the debt upon which the judgment was recovered.

The cause having been twice tried by jury, the first trial resulting in a verdict for the defendants, which was set aside for the errors of the judge, and the second in a disagreement of the jury, it was now tried before Mr. Justice Sandford, without a jury, by consent of parties.

Messrs. H. P. Hastings and J. A. Spencer, for the plaintiff, Messrs. F. B. Cutting and J. Prescott Hall, for the defendants.

The plaintiff gave evidence of the consignment of over \$45,000 worth of goods to Young, in 1828 and 1829, to sell on commission, and that, in 1831, he demanded an account and payment of the proceeds of the goods, which was refused—

The commencement of the suit and recovery of the judgment against Young & Baker as joint debtors, on service only upon Young—

The proceedings on the attachment and execution of the bond in suit by the defendants—

That previously to the first trial, he demanded a discovery from the defendants, under oath, of all letters and accounts passing between Young & Baker, from 1828 to 1833, inclusive, which had ever come into their possession; in answer to which, they gave an account current made by Young, between him and Baker, at the close of 1827, and another in May, 1828, made by Young as surviving partner of Young & Kennedy, on the decease of the latter; and two letters from Young to Baker, one dated September 2, 1833, sending to Baker \$7,700 borrowed, and another dated November 2, 1833, sending Baker more money, and asking a little time to sell his property extra-judicially, and urging Baker not to put him into bankruptcy—and swore they never had any others.

The plaintiff also gave in evidence, the accounts furnished by the defendants on an order for a further discovery, made after the first, and before the second trial, consisting of accounts current furnished by Young to Baker, every year, from 1828 to 1831, inclusive; and also accounts current, purporting to have been furnished by Baker to Young, and Young & Kennedy, from 1827 to 1833, inclusive, annually. The material entries in these will be fully understood from the opinion of the court.

Three letters of Baker to Young were also given in evidence, the contents of which are also sufficiently stated in the opinion of the court.

The intimacy of Baker with Young's affairs and business, and that Baker inspected the books of Young, and the latter appeared to act under the advice of the former, was also proved.

The plaintiff offered in evidence the deposition of Young, taken conditionally in the cause, he having died since the last trial, to prove that Baker participated in the profits of all his business. This evidence was objected to, on the ground that Young was interested.

The defendants' counsel insisted that the law in the State of New York was settled by the case of *Marquand vs. Webb*, 16 John. R., 89, and *Pearce vs. Kearney*, 5 Hill, 82; that a witness who confesses himself liable for the plaintiff's demand, is not competent to prove the defendant a contractor with him, having a direct interest to swear part of his debt on to another, and lessen the amount of his liability.

The plaintiff's counsel answered: First. That, admitting the general rule to be as contended by the defendants' counsel, it did not apply to this case, because Young having confessed the judgment in a suit against him and Baker jointly, was estopped from denying that Baker was his partner; and that, as the defendants gave the bond in suit as agents of Baker, if they paid the debt, they could recover the amount they paid against Young, including costs, etc., and hence Young's interest was against the plaintiff.

Second. That the accounts between Young & Baker showed that, though they were partners as to third persons in their joint operations, as between themselves, Young was to pay all the debts, and allow Baker for all his capital and profits; and consequently, if Baker should be obliged to pay this debt of the house, he could recover the whole amount, including costs, against Young's representatives.

The judge said if the question were open, he should find it difficult to reject this deposition; but, with the express authorities above cited before him, he must exclude it.

Annexed to this deposition, was a letter-press copy of an account, signed by Young, dated December 31, 1832, which contained an account of operations for 1832, including commission business, and credited Mr. Baker \$2,014 53, the exact sum charged Young by Baker, at the foot of his account current of same date. The plaintiff proved that Young gave this paper to his attorney at the time of confessing the judgment in October, 1834, and that the signature was genuine.

The account was then offered in evidence on the grounds—

First. That Young was the only ostensible partner in the joint operations confessedly carried on by Young & Baker; and his acts and entries while the relation subsisted between him and Baker, were equivalent to the acts of both, had both been ostensible partners.

Second. That it was admissible as an entry by a deceased person against his interest at the time.

Third. That as the other accounts showed that detailed accounts similar to this were rendered to Baker with the accounts current, and Baker had not produced the one which he did receive at the date in question, it was sufficient to authorize a jury to find that the original, from which this impression was taken, was actually sent to and received by Baker.

The judge held, that the date of the account was not evidence that it existed in 1832; that the coincidence in the amount between this account and the charge by Baker to Young was of little moment, and excluded the evidence.

The plaintiff also offered to prove, that in the fall of 1845, a commission was issued to three persons at Trinidad, one named by defendants, to examine several witnesses on the part of the plaintiff, and take sworn copies of the record of the failure of Young, and particularly of Baker's account against him, in the bankrupt court; and also of all accounts between Young & Baker in Young's books deposited in that court; that letters rogatory accompanied the commission, by which any court in Trinidad was prayed to aid in the execution of the commission; that the name of H. P. Hastings was subscribed to the paper as counsel for the plaintiff; that said Hastings went to Trinidad, and endeavored to execute the commission; that the commissioners all declined to act; that the public officers refused to allow the inspection of the books of Young, or record of his failure; that a proceeding was instituted before the proper court, having cognizance of the matter, to enforce the execution of the commission; that Baker appeared on the record by his attorney, and opposed the application on the ground, amongst others, that said Hastings was not duly authorized to appear for the plaintiff; that after a motion to set aside said Baker's appearance as a party litigant, which was denied, thereby creating an open litigation which might last for years, said Hastings took copies of said proceedings, official copies being refused; and to show this interference of Baker, the said copies were offered in evidence, on proof that they were true copies.

The plaintiff insisted that this was competent evidence, as showing Baker's design to conceal the truth from the plaintiff, and would authorize an unfavorable inference against him in weighing the other circumstantial evidence.

The defendants objected to this evidence, and it was excluded.

The plaintiff having rested, the defendants' counsel moved for a nonsuit, on the grounds—

First. That if the partnership existed, it was dissolved by Young's bankruptcy, and after dissolution, Young could not confess a judgment so as to give it *any effect*, as against Baker.

Second. That the judgment under the joint debtor act was of no effect whatever, as a judgment against Baker, who was not served with process; and therefore, such a judgment did not support the claim of the plaintiff as an attaching creditor, which was on the judgment, and not on the original demand, which must be proved before he can be charged.

The judge held that the statute extended to all joint debtors, and therefore the dissolution was immaterial; and that a joint debtor served with process could confess judgment with the same effect as if he had let judgment go by default; that the statute did not exclude any mode of recovering judgment—

That the case of *Merwin vs. Kumbel*, 22 Wend., settled the law that such a judgment was to be declared upon like any other, but must be supported by proof *aliunde* of the joint liability of the defendants not served with process, and consequently the plaintiff was right in proceeding upon the judgment; and on proof of a joint liability of Baker, the demand *on the judgment* would be established against both Young & Baker.

The motion for a nonsuit was overruled, and the defendants excepted.

The defendants went into their defence on the merits—i. e., on the question of partnership, but gave no evidence to show the account stated by Young on confessing judgment incorrect.

They gave in evidence a stipulation signed by the attorneys of the parties, dated Feb. 19th, 1846, reciting that, after the plaintiff had brought his cause on ready for trial in February term, 1846, the defendants had obtained a commission, with stay of proceedings, to examine a witness at Trinidad de Cuba; that by way of compromise, and to avoid expense and delay, the plaintiff had agreed to deduct from the judgment, as of the day of its rendition, the sum of \$9,687, and the defendants waived their commission, and agreed that no evidence should be given on the trial, as to the seizure, confiscation, or restoration of the plaintiff's ship *Marmion*, and her cargo, on her second voyage, in May, 1828; and it was agreed "that this stipulation as to deduction, shall not bind the plaintiff, if the defendants shall further postpone the trial of the cause beyond the first week of March term, 1846."

The cause was tried in the first week of March term, 1846, but the verdict for the defendants was set aside in February, 1847, and then at March term; and again, at April term, 1847, the defendants again postponed the trial for a witness from Trinidad; and after the second trial, in June term, they again postponed the trial from July to September term.

The amount depending upon the construction of this stipulation, was nearly \$19,000, including interest. The plaintiff refused to deduct, on the ground that the condition of the stipulation was broken by putting off the cause, as above stated. The defendants insisted that the condition applied only to the first trial in March term, 1846, and that as the defendants then went to trial, they complied with the condition, and there was an end of it; and so Oakley, J., held on the second trial.

The plaintiff's counsel now cited the following cases: *Elton vs. Larkin*, 1 Mo., and R., 196, and *Doe vs. Bird*, 7 Car., and *Payne* 6, showing that stipulations respecting the trial of the cause applied to every trial the court might order, and did not end with the first; and the court held that the plaintiff was not bound to make the deduction.

The cause was fully summed up by each of the counsel.

The defendants' counsel contended: First. That the plaintiff held the burthen of proof, and must make out his case clearly, as he gave credit to Young alone.

Second. That the entering into a partnership without a written and registered contract, would have subjected Baker to all the liabilities, and gave him none of the rights of a partner, according to the code of commerce; and besides, have subjected him to a large penalty; therefore, strong proof should be required to establish such illegal partnership.

Third. That the accounts of Baker, and letters of Young, given in evidence by the plaintiff, were evidence in Baker's favor, as well as against him; and that they showed Baker a creditor, and not a partner, and that the profit he charged Young, was on "certain transactions" not embracing the commission business, nor Young's business in general.

Mr. Hastings, in closing the case on the part of the plaintiff, laying out of view all the circumstantial evidence properly belonging to a jury, which had been fully presented by Mr. Spencer, submitted the following views of the case as matter of law:—

First. In establishing the co-partnership of defendants, the same strictness of proof is not required as in respect to the co-partnership of plaintiffs, for the reason that every member of a firm has the means of proving who his partners are, and what is the agreement between them; whereas, strangers are ignorant upon the subject, and must make proof by the acts and admissions of the persons sought to be charged. As against defendants, therefore, presumptive or *prima facie* evidence is sufficient to call upon them to show the real relation between themselves. *Whitney vs. Sterling*, 14 John. R., 215; 2d vol. Star. Ev., 804, 807; 22 Wend., 276; *Carey on Part.*, 136.

Second. In case of dormant partners, who studiously conceal their interest, less evidence is required, than as against those who make no effort to conceal; as evidence is to be weighed according to what it was in the power of one party to have proved, or the other to have explained. 2 Cow. and Hill, Phil., p. 293, 310, 311; 3d vol. Star. Ev., 7 American Ed., 937.

Third. Where it is obvious that the defendant sought to be charged, has *destroyed, or suppressed, or withheld evidence* which would have completely exonerated him, if not justly chargeable, the court and jury are bound to draw a strong presumption against him, in weighing the evidence which the plaintiff has been able to produce. *Id.*, and also 7 Wend., 31; *Owen vs. Fisk*; 2 Sim. and Stuart, 606.

Fourth. When *prima facie* evidence of co-partnership, sufficient to carry a cause to a jury, has been given, and the defendants fail to rebut it by evidence which they *might have produced*, if not liable, the *prima facie* evidence becomes *morally conclusive*.

Fifth. Where the defendants do attempt to explain, and *even give evidence of the original agreement between them*, to show them not co-partners, it is still competent for the jury to find a partnership from all the circumstances, contrary to the express agreement. 2 Hall, 351; *Pr. Oakley, Justice*.

Sixth. The facts of this case, with the application of the foregoing undeniable principles, entitle the plaintiff to recover, *beyond all controversy*.

The plaintiff does not claim that Baker held himself out as a partner, or that he ever gave credit to him. The case turns, then, upon proof of the actual relation between Young & Baker.

The plaintiff has given evidence of the most satisfactory character, as against Mr. Baker—i. e., his own accounts—that in May, 1828, when Young was poor, he put into his hands \$5,000 capital, and shortly after \$2,900 more, to be invested in business, *for profit, under Baker's advice, as to the business*; with a right, on his part, to inspect the books, and to be secured, *whenever Young's affairs were found in a bad state*—

That up to January, 1829, upwards of \$4,000 profits were made in the business carried on with this capital, on account of both, which was divided between them, share and share alike—

That a similar sum was made every year, and divided in the same manner, until 1832 inclusive, when Baker gave notice of his intention of withdrawing his capital, and closing the accounts at the end of 1833—

That in 1833, there was no general account of profits, but several particular adventures on joint account; and Young found his affairs in a bad state, and failed, indebted to Baker, including profits, in about \$18,000—

That during all this time, Young's house was engaged in *commission business*, and there is *no evidence of any other*.

These are the bold, undeniable facts; and what evidence has each party given, in respect to what the business *was* which produced the profits divided with Baker?

Mr. Baker has proved, by three witnesses, that *they* did not know *any* joint business between Young & Baker. This does not begin to prove anything for him on this point.

Mr. Baker is entitled, I concede, to the benefit of the entries in his own accounts, and the expressions in his own letters, (if any,) given in evidence in his own favor; *but what expressions are there in his favor, on this point?*

The facts stated in the note at the foot of the account of May, 1828, that \$5,000 is to be invested by Young, and that \$4,000 profits flowed from the investment, in eight months, and was divided between them, as stated in the next account, are not qualified at all by the statement in the former, that Baker should approve of the business, and that he should be secured promptly in case of difficulty, except to show that, *inter se*, Baker was to be a creditor, though they were partners, as to third persons. Nor do the qualifying words added to the charge of profits in the next account, tend to show anything inconsistent with partnership. If the charge had been only "to half profits," or "to half profits of business," there could be no doubt it would, of itself, prove partnership of Baker in Young's business. Would the substitution of "*transactions*" for business, have shown anything different? Not at all. Does the addition of the word "*certain*," make it any more evidence that *special* adventures, and not the ordinary business of Young's house, were intended? Not at all. That word "*certain*," is often used in a very *uncertain* and indefinite sense, as every lawyer knows. It is never used as synonymous with *special*, or *particular*. These words, therefore, prove nothing for Baker, except a disposition to mystify.

The whole expression is just as applicable to Young's business as a commission merchant, as to anything else; and, therefore, is no qualification of the plain admission of participation in the profits of Young's business.

The same may be said of all the similar debits in the accounts of Baker.

Baker has given not one word of evidence that the business in which he was interested, was not all the business of the house of John Young.

But what has the plaintiff shown? By Baker's own letters, after all these transactions, that these profits "corresponded" to Baker "for the transactions of that year;" that if anything appeared in Young's books in regard to the notes of these transactions at the foot of the accounts, and the creditors presented themselves, Baker could not be secured; that the accounts should be made without mention of "transactions," because the creditors would demand them; and finally, not only that Baker was interested in Young's transactions, (*not certain or special transactions*;) but it would probably appear in Young's books. Can any stronger proof than this be given, to show that these transactions were the business in general, and not particular operations, or adventures?

If there can, is it not found in the fact, that the accounts current constantly *specify* particular transactions?

What might Baker have proved, and what was he called upon to prove, to answer this charge?

First. The suit has been pending ten years, during all which time Baker has been at Trinidad, where were, and are, the books and papers of Young, and had full opportunity to find and procure, as well as to keep and preserve, all the evidence, to rebut the allegation of partnership.

Second. From 1828 to 1833, he was interested with Young, had access to, and actually often examined his books.

Third. At the end of each year, he received from Young detailed accounts of the transactions which gave him his profits, besides the amount of profits credited in general account current; and on the receipt of the last one containing a general credit—i. e., 31st December, 1832, he intended to wind up the business at the end of 1833, and therefore had every motive to preserve all evidence which would explain or answer the credits of profits, so as not to show his participation in Young's business generally.

Fourth. He destroyed the detailed accounts, and has refused to produce Young's

general accounts current for 1832-'33, and has failed to prove a single special adventure not contained in the accounts already produced, by any evidence; whereas, if any took place, the proof was easy, independent of the detailed accounts.

Fifth. Why destroy, and why not prove, except from the motive which the law presumes, that both accounts and proofs would be directly against him, if produced?

Sixth. Again, he has not proved that these same detailed accounts which he destroyed, are not in Young's letter-books, or amongst his papers; and the regular books would show the special adventures, if there be any, and the nett profits of each.

This proves the case in law stronger than the possession of stolen goods convicts the possessor, who fails to prove how he came by them, of larceny.

SANDFORD, J.—By the law of this State, and, as I understand it, by the law merchant recognized and acted upon throughout the commercial world, a participation in the uncertain profits of trade, renders one a co-partner, in respect of the liabilities of the concern to third persons. And when money is advanced to a merchant, and the premium or profit for its use is not fixed and certain, but is dependent upon the accidents of trade, the person making the advance, will be liable as a partner to such merchant's creditors; although he is not to risk any part of his advance, or share in the losses of the trade.

There are exceptions to this rule in many countries, but they are to be found in the enactments of statutes and codes. Such are the special or limited partnerships in this State, the partnership *en commandite* and anonymous, allowed by the Code de Commerce in France, and the similar special partnership *en la commandite* ——— and anonymous, for which provision is made in the *Codigo de Comercio* of Spain.

In respect of these limited partnerships, the laws of the countries authorizing these, require the observance of certain forms and acts of publication and registry, to make them complete. The Spanish code requires similar acts, in the formation of general partnerships. It does not, however, appear, by the testimony before me, that there was any law in force in Cuba, requiring the observance of these acts, when the partnership is alleged to have been entered into between Baker & Young; or until May, 1829, when the *Codigo de Comercio* was promulgated. The *Ordenanzas de Bilbao*, ordained in 1737, so far as the fact is proved, were local in their operations; and I have no historical information that they extended beyond the province of Biscay, and the adjacent regions of Old Castile and New Leon.

If it had been shown that the laws of Cuba in 1828 were the same as they appear to have been after May, 1829, it would not have affected the question in issue. A violation of the regulations prescribed, would have been visited upon the offending partners, and not upon merchants trading with them. Thus, by the 28th article of the *Codigo*, if the partners neglect to register the instrument of partnership, it shall be of no effect between the parties thereto to demand any rights under it; but it shall not thereby be rendered ineffectual in favor of third parties who may have contracted with the partnership. The same rule prevails in France. (Code de Commerce, Art. 39 to 44.) Such being the law, the liability of Mr. Baker does not depend upon proof of the formation of a registered partnership, or of any written instrument. If the plaintiff has shown by evidence, that Baker participated in the profits of the commission business conducted by Young, at the city and port of Trinidad de Cuba, and where Young received the plaintiff's consignment, the law merchant fixed upon him the liability of a partner, in respect of that consignment. The case is then narrowed to the simple question, whether Mr. Baker did, or did not, participate in those profits at the time designated. This, of course, must be determined by the evidence. It appears that prior to 1828, Young was transacting business as a commission merchant at Casilda, the port of Trinidad de Cuba, and also in the city of Trinidad; and he had had dealings of various kinds with Mr. Baker, by means of which, he was Baker's debtor in the sum of \$1,336 21 at the close of the year 1827. One of these transactions was a speculation in a cargo of boards, for which Baker advanced over \$3,000 to

Young, in April, 1827, and he was credited in December with \$492 50 for half the profits on the adventure. In January, 1828, Young became the partner of Hector Kennedy, in the same commercial business. Mr. Baker furnished \$5,000 to Kennedy, which was entered by him in his account as a loan to Kennedy, and constituting Kennedy's capital; the balance due from Young formed a part of this \$5,000. Kennedy died in April, or early in May, 1838; but in the meantime, Baker's account with Kennedy & Young had so far extended, that there was a balance due to him of \$12,384 03, including the loan of Kennedy's capital. With a trifling exception, the charges against the firm were for sugar and coffee furnished Baker.

Young continued the business in his own name from Kennedy's death, until his own failure, in the fall of 1838. The first consignment of the plaintiff was made in February, 1828, and nearly the whole cargo remained in Young's hands after the death of Kennedy. The second cargo was consigned to Young, in May, 1828; the third, at the close of the year, and the last in the spring of 1829.

Mr. Baker, after the death of Kennedy, continued to advance to Young large sums in money, and extensive invoices of property. He appears to have been a man of very extensive means, and enjoying a high pecuniary, as well as personal reputation. During the era of the plaintiff's shipments, he was in habits of close business intimacy with Young, visiting his counting-room, often examining his books, and advising about his business.

From the accounts produced by Baker, it appears that as often as once a year, Young rendered to him detailed accounts of the transactions between them. Those of Baker against Young, contained charges for the money advanced and property delivered by Baker to Young, sundry small items of debit, and for the gains on several adventures, which are designated; and in every instance, down to the close of 1832, there is, at the end of each periodical account, a charge slightly varying in its phraseology, in different years, but substantially as follows: "To half the profits coming to me from certain transactions in which Young interested me, the nett proceeds amounting to \$—," (the amount stated;) and referring, in several instances, to a liquidated or detailed account furnished to him by Young. The sums charged to Young for these profits, range from \$2,014 05½ to \$2,344 04, in the five periodical balances to which my observation applies. The corresponding accounts by Young against Baker, were produced under orders for discovery, except that of December 31st, 1832, which was withheld, and contained a corresponding credit for profits, as per detailed accounts rendered.

Here are entries made by Mr. Baker himself, showing a regular interest in the profits of certain transactions of Young, continuing for a period of five years. During all that time, Young's regular business was that of a commission merchant. There is no evidence that he was engaged in other transactions to any considerable extent, save those designated in the accounts produced. Indeed, I do not remember but one, (independent of his house in town, and his purchase of land from Mr. Baker at Casilda,) which is not specially entered, and the profits charged in Mr. Baker's accounts. During the whole period, Baker was advancing money and valuable plantation produce to Young, without any charge for interest, and he was advising him in business, a frequent inmate of his counting-room, and frequently inspecting his books of account. What were those "certain transactions" of Young from which Baker was deriving a constant profit, unless they were his mercantile transactions? If they were not, was it not incumbent on Baker to have proved the fact by the production of Young's detailed accounts furnished to him, or by the books of Young, containing all his business transactions? Baker was apprised as long ago as 1837, that the plaintiff was attempting to charge him as the secret partner of Young. His letters in 1833, to which I will presently refer, show that he understood perfectly well that the books and papers of Young would be resorted to as proof of his partnership; and this assurance was made doubly sure, by the plaintiff's application in this suit for a discovery of the accounts and correspondence in Baker's possession. Why, then, did he not produce Young's books and detailed accounts, to explain the hidden meaning of the entries of the profits in his own accounts? It is answered, that the detailed accounts were destroyed after Baker had established his demand in the

bankrupt court at Trinidad. The reason assigned is, that he no longer considered them of any consequence. The documents before me show that Mr. Baker is a man of business, of abundant intelligence, very exact and methodical in his transactions, and it is difficult to avoid an unfavorable inference from an act so unusual, as the destruction of the accounts rendered of extensive operations of a mercantile character, within a year after they are closed. (1 Greenleaf Ev., § 37.) But where are the books of Young? The testimony shows that on his failure, all his books and papers were seized, and remained thenceforth in the court of bankruptcy. They are at Mr. Baker's place of residence, and he might, by a commission or otherwise, have produced on the trial conclusive evidence from those books and papers, showing to what transactions Young's detailed accounts crediting him with these profits, actually referred.

It is said that a resort to those documents was equally open to the plaintiff; and his possession of some original letters of Baker to Young, shows that he might have produced more testimony of the same character, if it would have answered his purpose.

To this it may be answered, that the production of two or three papers is not any warrant for me to believe that the plaintiff could have abstracted from the files of the bankrupt court in Cuba, all the documents that he thought proper. Nor is it so clear that a resident of New York can obtain evidence from the records of a civil law tribunal under the Spanish government, to use against a Spanish resident at the place where they are kept, with the same facility that the latter might obtain it, if he thought proper. But it is sufficient to say, that the plaintiff, after proving the entries under consideration, had a right to rely on the inferences which result from them, and to call on the adverse party to rebut those inferences, if the facts would enable him to overcome their force. See *Whitney vs. Sterling*, 14 Johns. ; 1 Greenleaf Ev., ss. 78 to 80 ; *Thompson vs. Kalbach*, 12 Serg., and R., 238. Has Mr. Baker produced evidence which repels the inferences drawn from the entries in his accounts, or has he explained these entries satisfactorily? Instead of exhibiting to the court Young's books and papers, he has called three witnesses, residents of Trinidad, and two of them intimate with Young, who testify in effect that they knew nothing of any partnership between Young and Baker. This testimony, wholly negative in its character, is not such as the case demanded from Baker, and is of very little weight.

On the part of the plaintiff, there is other testimony strongly corroborating the inference which he claims from the charge made by Baker for half the profits of "certain transactions." Of this description is the entry in Mr. Baker's accounts at the foot of the balance-sheet of Kennedy & Young. Baker there says, he has agreed with Young to leave \$5,000 of the balance then due to him in Young's hands for two or three years, or as long as convenient, on condition that it should be invested only in transactions which Baker should approve; that Baker was to have access to his books whenever he pleased, and in the event of any embarrassment in Young's individual affairs, he should secure Baker in due season, for all the funds of his then in Young's hands, so that Baker should not suffer loss.

This entry contained every element of an agreement to furnish capital, with a participation in the profits, and without any risk of loss, except the expression of the division of profits; and this element was proved to have existed by the actual division of profits made every year in the form heretofore stated. Such is the argument of the plaintiff, and it is one to which, on the testimony in the case, I can find no satisfactory answer. The next entry of cash in Young's debit, of any magnitude, is \$2,970, on the 31st of November, 1829, "delivered to him to be invested in certain transactions which offered profit." This certainly looks like a further advance of capital on the terms and for the purposes stated in the entry, upon which I have just commented; with the addition of a direct avowal of the intended participation in the offered profits.

Further proof is furnished by Mr. Baker's letters. These reflect light upon the acts of the parties in 1828 and 1829, as well as subsequently; for the books show that there was no intervening charge. In one dated January 29, 1833, in which he comments upon Young's account rendered for 1832, he insists on being cred-

ited for the price of the lots in Casilda, which was not yet due, and requests Young to make a sequel of the account current, "with the introduction of the items omitted, as well as the amount which may correspond to me (him) for the transactions of the year." He adds, "he would prefer our closing all our accounts at the end of this year."

On the 2d of November, 1833, Young wrote to Baker respecting his difficulties, and urging an extension of time from his creditors. This letter undoubtedly treats Baker as a creditor, and all the accounts show he was such creditor to a large amount. But it is in perfect harmony with the conclusion that he had been interested in the profits of Young's house, though not liable for losses.

In his answer to this letter, or a similar one, in which Young proposed to give him some security, Baker, on the 30th of November, suspending his decision as to Young's proposal, made use of some remarkable expressions. He said, "Should anything appear in your books relative to a note at the foot of your account current, in case your creditors present themselves against you, any security in my favor would not, in my opinion, be valid: You can, however, should this not be the case, secure me on your house in town, and in any other manner you think best, the amount you may suppose from my observations to be due to me." The only note at the foot of Young's account to which this letter could have referred, is the one showing the terms upon which the \$5,000 was left with Young in May, 1828.

A note without date, but evidently following the one of 30th of November, is still plainer in its import. Mr. Baker says, "on reflection, would advise that our accounts be made out without any mention of transactions, as I am certain, in the event of your securing me, it will be demanded by the creditors;" and after his signature, he added, "your books may probably express my having had interest in your transactions."

It is scarcely possible to account for all this solicitude as to the contents of Young's books, the desire to avoid affording to Young's creditors any clue to a knowledge of those entries, on the supposition that Baker's interest in his affairs had been limited to a few occasional speculations in specific and distinct transactions. It is the natural language of a man who was conscious that he had incurred a serious legal liability by his implication in the affairs of a failing house, and who was attempting to forestall the means by which that liability might be established against him.

I have now brought together the leading circumstances and arguments bearing upon the great point of the case. I have considered them with the care and deliberation due to the importance of the cause, and with no little anxiety on account of the peculiar manner in which it has become my duty to decide upon the facts in issue. The absence of proof by Mr. Baker of the true meaning of the statedly recurring entries of the profits made by Young on transactions not designated, when it is so apparent such proof was in his power, has borne on my mind with great force; and, connecting those entries and the want of evidence in explanation of their meaning with the other sections upon which I have commented, the situation and conduct of the parties, and the letters from Baker to Young, I cannot resist the conclusion, that during the whole period, from the death of Kennedy, to the failure of Young, Mr. Baker participated in the profits of the house of Young. And while this rendered him liable as a partner to the commercial creditors of Young, I am equally clear, that, as between himself and Young, he was to have all his capital restored to him without any division by the losses of the concern.

The plaintiff having established the joint indebtedness of Baker & Young, for which the judgment was recovered in 1834, the statute fixes the amount of the liability. It is neither more nor less than the amount of the judgment. 2 R. S., 377; S. L., 23 Wend., 293.

The sum due on the judgment recovered in 1834, exceeds the penalty of the defendants' bond. My judgment will therefore be entered in the usual form, for the penalty, \$44,985 78.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE COMMERCIAL EMBARRASSMENT OF ENGLAND OWING TO THE UNSKILFULNESS OF HER SO-CALLED INSTITUTIONS—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1847—INFLUENCE OF EUROPEAN COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS ON THIS COUNTRY—COINAGE—CONDITION OF THE NEW YORK CITY BANKS IN AUGUST AND NOVEMBER, 1847—THE COUNTRY BANKS—DIVIDENDS OF NEW YORK BANKS FOR SEVERAL YEARS—LIST OF FAILURES IN EUROPE TO 19TH NOVEMBER—MODE OF TRANSACTING BUSINESS BETWEEN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES—RATES OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE, ETC., ETC.

The past has been an eventful era in the history of commerce, and the last six months will be memorable for the discredit into which England has fallen in regard to the rest of the world. The continued difficulties in England, growing out of causes to which we have before alluded, have produced their effect to a greater or less extent upon the United States; and, in the midst of unexampled prosperity, the commercial community were suddenly deprived of their usual facilities, and the solvency of many firms jeopardized, while some few gave way to the pressure. After a year of such unparalleled trade as has been enjoyed, the condition of merchants generally was sound, and there was no valid reason why they should so suddenly have been cut off from the resources on which, unfortunately, they commonly rely to meet their obligations. If the merchants, as a body, are dependent upon corporate institutions for facilities in their business, it is certainly the province of those institutions to understand the general operation and effect of commerce, and to exercise great foresight and circumspection in the conduct of their affairs. It does not appear, however, that there has in any degree been exercised that skilfulness in the management of money affairs that the public have a right to expect at this day; and to this want of skill, to a very great extent, is to be ascribed the distress which the dealers have undergone in the last ninety days. The business of the Union, as we have remarked, has been of great magnitude during the past year, and uncommonly healthy. This is manifest in the official tables of the imports and exports of the Union, which give results as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.			
IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Goods.....	\$122,424,349	Domestic goods.....	\$150,637,464
Specie.....	24,121,289	Foreign goods.....	6,166,039
		Specie.....	1,845,119
Total imports.....	\$146,545,638		
Duties.....	26,347,790	Total.....	\$158,648,622

This table gives the remarkable fact that the aggregate value of goods and specie imported was less than the exported value of domestic produce by four millions, and the aggregate exports exceeded the imports by the large sum of \$12,102,984; which, were the import and export values the actual amounts realized from, and paid for goods, would, in addition to the very large earnings of the ships for freight, suppose serious losses to the national commerce. These returns were made up, however, to the close of June, to which time the prices in England had been well sustained, and the exports yielded doubtless considerable sums in excess of the valuation here. It is probable, however, that a much larger quantity than usual went forward on foreign account; by reason of which, the export value would represent more nearly the actual amount realized to the coun-

try by the sale of the produce ; yet, it would seem that, after the close of the fiscal year, a large sum was due the country—a supposition sustained by the low rates at which exchanges ruled at the close of the year. The amount of bills running upon England was very considerable ; and, as the imports continued large, as the fall season progressed, the demand for them increased in a manner to raise their value as a remittance. Two circumstances, however, grew out of the revulsion in England, which tended to deprive the market of bills as a means of discharging the debts due England. These were the diminished prices and purchases of produce in England, and the discredit of the houses on which the bills were running. By these means, very considerable sums due the United States by England, ceased to be applicable to debts due England for goods. In the phrase of the stock market the “mutual contracts would not apply.” If England, from any cause, faltered in her payments, the United States continued theirs. When British credits were no longer a reliable remittance, importers fell back upon specie, and the banks became immediately endangered. Their danger consisted in the extent to which specie would be substituted for discredited bills, until the maturity and payment of the latter should return the precious metals to the bank vaults. During the year, the movement of specie had been immense. The imports were, as seen above, \$24,121,289 ; of this, \$22,276,170 had been retained in the country, and nearly all coined into American money. The federal government, during the eleven months ending with November, has for loans and dues received \$48,667,886 in specie, and disbursed it, making an amount of \$97,335,772 ; of this amount, \$23,000,000 was mostly in foreign coins, sent to the mint for coinage. While this immense movement of specie has taken place, the amount in the New York banks varied from \$7,798,186, August, 1846, to \$8,103,499, August, 1847 ; an increase of \$305,313 only, although their loans had swollen much beyond the movement of last year. The specie held by the banks was not American coin, but mostly those foreign coins best adapted to exportation. Hence, when the packet of the 4th of August brought news of the English failures, and each succeeding boat brought more disastrous news, it became very evident that, in default of bills for remittance, the specie in the banks would be resorted to, and they had not increased their store during a year of large imports, nor had they protected themselves against an export demand, by changing their foreign coin into American money. Hence, it became probable that a serious drain would result, and it was their duty to prepare for it by a gradual curtailment of their extended loans. In our October number, in speaking of the returns of the city banks for August, as compared with the previous November, we remarked :

“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 line of discounts in August was immense, as compared with former experience ; and, while the aspect of affairs was such as we have described it, it was the duty of far-seeing and sagacious bankers to have prepared for it by commencing a gradually stringent policy—simply by being less liberal than before. This appears not to have been attempted at all. The following is a table of the city bank returns, comparing the loans of each bank, August and November :—

LEADING FEATURE OF NEW YORK BANKS FOR NOVEMBER, 1847.

BANKS.	AUGUST, 1847.		NOVEMBER, 1847.		
	Loans. Dollars.	Loans. Dollars.	Specie. Dollars.	Circulation. Dollars.	Deposits. Dollars.
American Exchange.....	3,598,791	2,777,201	785,164	262,642	1,858,663
Bank of America.....	3,773,440	3,515,386	700,006	243,097	1,427,192
“ Commerce.....	4,656,884	4,020,255	599,892	216,085	1,661,316
“ New York.....	2,380,913	2,124,156	634,473	493,855	1,898,588
“ State of New York	3,826,240	3,128,389	733,260	339,904	1,694,950
Bowery (new bank)		498,921	20,274	153,976	391,924
Butchers and Drovers'.....	1,233,822	1,164,717	115,366	290,475	625,668
Chemical.....	1,174,422	856,694	93,034	242,375	606,269
City.....	1,766,201	1,488,740	215,464	193,905	1,004,179
Fulton.....	1,644,952	1,386,498	171,024	236,413	856,598
Greenwich.....	477,568	457,564	33,760	154,165	205,298
Leather Manufacturers'.....	1,338,444	1,327,595	154,423	259,885	646,757
Manhattan.....	2,286,171	2,097,925	215,973	48,068	1,222,082
Mechanics'.....	3,204,605	3,029,299	673,263	565,457	1,748,220
Mechanics' Association.....	484,775	547,174	176,998	361,285	567,668
Mechanics and Traders'.....	530,500	534,854	58,526	160,084	342,065
Merchants'.....	3,680,057	3,572,230	793,284	333,373	2,227,046
Merchants' Exchange.....	1,870,625	1,708,481	112,614	292,669	738,158
National.....	1,523,501	1,512,747	169,337	209,713	912,571
Dry Dock.....	373,321	386,316	15,690	69,459	50,680
North River.....	1,318,215	1,262,784	177,749	443,445	954,759
Phenix.....	2,294,528	2,144,951	505,238	390,439	1,454,671
Seventh Ward.....	1,096,988	1,051,424	145,585	300,762	544,949
Tradesmen's.....	999,348	997,023	156,255	260,708	586,151
Union.....	2,496,678	2,211,687	546,842	484,346	1,530,639
Total.....	48,030,987				
“ November.....		43,733,010	8,103,499	7,606,581	25,757,061
“ August.....		48,030,987	10,769,732	6,838,475	27,892,482
“ November, 1846.....		38,533,810	7,113,070	6,192,514	22,812,755
“ August, “.....		40,390,248	7,798,186	5,926,881	21,166,623

The course of business, it appears, is generally for the city banks to curtail in the November quarter, and for the country banks to expand. The former are exposed to a prompt demand for specie, and the latter are without any guide. It appears that the city banks, for the November quarter, 1846, contracted their loans \$1,856,438. In the same quarter this year, with every reason for greater circumspection, they reduced the amount but \$4,297,977—that is to say, in November, 1847, after three months of anxiety and alarm, in which individual merchants were too prudent to trust sterling bills, and the banks in consequence had lost \$2,666,233 of their specie, their loans were \$5,199,200, and their circulation \$1,414,067 higher than on the same day of the previous year. The deposits were \$2,944,306 greater. The liabilities for deposits and circulation were \$4,358,373 higher than in November, 1846, and this was based on \$5,199,200 more, of loans due the banks. In this position they suddenly took an alarm at the amount of specie shipped between the 1st and 16th of November, and rigorously curtailed their movements, refusing the most undoubted paper. The specie, in some cases, had, indeed, been reduced alarmingly low; some that had reported over \$700,000, now were brought down to \$200,000. The specie in all the city banks was reduced to less than \$5,000,000 in the second week in December. The commercial public have, however, great reason to complain of this conduct; the more so, that the affairs of the banks for three months remain entirely concealed from each other, as well as from the public. The country banks of the State made returns for the same period as follows:—

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
1847—November.....	\$36,525,519	\$1,004,421	\$18,630,675	\$9,339,757
August.....	32,709,690	1,213,392	19,253,208	8,888,592
1846—November.....	33,416,381	1,925,314	16,076,008	7,816,441
August.....	28,262,238	875,123	11,958,675	7,943,932

It is observable that the movement of those institutions is the reverse of those in the city; and that they enhanced their loans \$3,815,826 in that quarter of anxiety. Now, the country banks and merchants take their cue to a great extent from the city institutions. If they loan liberally, as they did through the November quarter, the country banks do so likewise, and the merchants enter freely into obligations. The city banks are governed by the specie movement; and that, under the absurd system of secrecy, each institution only knows of itself, and what directors tell each other privately. When, as in the November quarter, they act erroneously, and lead the community into extended obligations, and then turn suddenly round, influenced by panic, and refuse to lend at all, the commercial community is ruthlessly sacrificed to a false system. Had the city bank returns been published weekly, as was desired of the legislature by leading houses, the constant drain of specie, as each successive packet admonished of, increasing cause of distrust, prudent merchants would have restrained their operations; and the banks of the State, instead of having a discount line of \$80,000,000, would not have reached \$70,000,000, November 1st. This would not have operated so well for bank profits, but it would have been cheaper and safer for the public. The packets of November 4th and 19th brought advices of some amelioration in the market of London, with some advance of breadstuffs and firmness in cotton, with such general advices as should have imparted more confidence in bills. Unfortunately, however, she brought news of the failure of a French house, the branch of which here had sold francs to some extent, taking notes in payment, which notes had been discounted by some of the banks; and this circumstance, added to their panic, making them still more rigorous in their movements, the best paper of the city was hawking about at 1½ a 1½ per cent per month interest; and, in some instances, even higher. In some cases, large amounts of good paper was offered for small sums at this rate. The dividends of the institutions for the past year have been as follows:—

DIVIDENDS OF THE NEW YORK BANKS FOR 1844-5-6-7.

BANKS.	1844.		1845.		1846.		1847.	
	Capital. Dollars.	Div. Amount. p. ct. Dollars.	Div. Amount. p. ct. Dollars.	Div. Amount. p. ct. Dollars.	Div. Amount. p. ct. Dollars.	Div. Amount. p. ct. Dollars.	Div. Amount. p. ct. Dollars.	
Bank of New York §	1,900,000	4 4	80,000	4 3	80,000	4 4	80,000	5 5
Merchants' †	1,490,000	3½ 3½	104,300	4 4	119,200	4 4	119,200	4 4
Mechanics* §	1,440,000	3½ 3½	100,800	3½ 4	108,000	4 4	115,200	4 4
Union*	1,000,000	4 4	80,000	4 4	80,000	4 4	80,000	5 5
Bank of America	2,001,200	3 3	120,072	3 3	120,072	3 3½	150,078	3½ 3½
City*	720,000	3½ 3½	50,400	3½ 4	54,000	4 4	57,600	4 4
Phoenix	1,200,000	3 3	72,000	3 3	72,000	3 3	72,000	3 3
North River	655,000	3½ 3½	45,850	3½ 3½	45,850	3½ 3½	45,850	3½ 4
Tradesmen's	400,000	5 5	40,000	5 5	40,000	5 5	40,000	5 10
Fulton*	600,000	5 5	60,000	5 5	60,000	5 5	60,000	5 5
Butch. and Drivers ‡	500,000	3½ 4	37,500	3½ 4	37,500	4 5	45,000	5 5
Mech. and Traders*	200,000	3½ 3½	14,000	3½ 3½	14,000	4 4	16,000	4½ 5
National §	750,000	3 3	45,000	3 3½	48,750	3½ 3½	52,500	3½ 4
Merch. Exchange	750,000	3½ 3½	52,500	3½ 3½	52,500	3½ 4	56,250	4 4
Leather Manufac. †	600,000	3½ 3½	42,000	3½ 3½	42,000	3½ 3½	42,000	3½ 3½
Seventh Ward	500,000	2½ 2½	25,000	3 3	30,000	3½ 3½	35,000	3½ 3½
State*	2,000,000	2½ 2½	100,000	3 3	120,000	3 3	120,000	3 3
Bank of Commerce	3,447,500	3 3	196,485	3 3	196,465	3 3	206,850	3 3½
Mech. Association †	632,000	3½ 3½	44,240	3½ 3½	44,240	4 4	50,560	.. 3½
Americ'n Exchange*	1,155,400	2½ 3	63,527	3 3	69,324	3 3	69,324	3½ 3
Manhattan Co. ‡	2,050,000	3 3	61,500
Total.....	23,084,100	6.13	1,373,600	6.31	1,433,907	7.09	1,554,912

* Dividend paid May and November. † Dividend paid June and December. ‡ Dividend paid February and August. § Dividend paid April and October. || Dividend paid January and July.

The Mechanics' Association was obliged to pass a dividend, as also the Manhattan, which works but slowly out of its difficulties.

The advices from England, down to the 19th of November, were of some relief in the market, produced mainly by the arrivals of specie from all quarters, which the fictitious operations in exchange had brought about. There were no signs, however, that the great causes of the late revulsion were permanently removed, or that it had yet spent its force. Although the failures were no longer of great magnitude, they still continued. In our last we gave the list down to the 4th—the following are the names to the 19th:—

Abbott, Nottingham, and Co., wareh'semen, London.	Johnson, Cole, and Co., E. I. merchants, London.
Ainsworth, David, manufacturer, Manchester.	Just, Z., manufacturer, Manchester.
Arkell, A., Stock Exchange, London.	Kaye, William Henry, merchant, Huddersfield.
Blake, G. and J., soapboilers, Liverpool.	Kershaw, Holland, and Co., manufact'rs, Manchester.
Brancker, J. B., and Son, brokers, Liverpool.	McKenzie, D., jun., East India merchant, Glasgow.
Breebaart, N., merchant, Amsterdam.	Marsland, Vellmann, and Co., Manc. and Stockport.
Carter and Baines, merchants, Liverpool.	Napier, David, ironfounder, Glasgow.
Campbell and Batly, yarn and goods ag'ts, Glasgow.	Ogilvie, Clark, and Co., comm. agents, Glasgow.
Clarke, J. P., merchant, Leicester.	Palengat and Co., corn merchants, Bayonne.
Cohen (Judah) and Sons, W. I. merchants, London.	Pattison and McGibbon, calico printers, Glasgow.
Coleman and Todd, sharebrokers, Liverpool.	Pendleton, J. T. Harvey, merchant, Manchester.
Cowsill, P., calico printer, Manchester.	Rothman and Co., bankers, Amsterdam.
Ewing, Anderson, and Aird, merchants, Manchester, Glasgow, and Calcutta.	Roothaan and Co., bankers, Antwerp.
Farrand, Robert, corn factor, London.	Rupe, J. H., and Son, sugar refiners, Amsterdam.
Figgis and Oldham, wholesale druggists, Dublin.	Ryder, Wienholt, and Co., E. I. merchants, London.
Flood and Lott, bankers, Honiton.	Thurburn and Co., East India and Egyptian mer- chants, London.
Gundry and Co., bankers, Bridport.	Trueman and Cook, brokers, London.
Hargreaves and Co., merchants, Liverpool.	Young, G. and C., calico printers, Glasgow.

It is to be remarked that the names given, come under the general head, "merchants and bankers." The failures in smaller operations are much more numerous; as thus, from the 6th to the 17th November, inclusive, there have been gazetted in England 116 bankrupts, and 62 insolvents; and in Scotland 30 bankrupts.

It is natural that the non-payment of a vast number of bills drawn on England and sent back to the colonies, as well as other countries, together with the failure of so many firms, greatly diminishing the demand for money, while the receipt of specie for debts due England was increasing the supply, should produce ease. In fact, England was collecting debts and paying nothing; hence an apparent ease in the market was produced. At the date of our last, we mentioned that the government had authorized the Bank of England so far to violate the charter act of 1844 as to issue notes in excess of the amount secured by the stock and bullion in the issue department. It appears, however, that the bank prudently abstained from using that provision prior to the meeting of Parliament, which was called for the 18th of November, and proceeded to business on the 23d. The French loan of 250,000,000 francs was also adjusted by the award to the house of Rothschild, who took it at 75.25 for a 3 per cent stock, payable in instalments of 12,500,000 francs each for November and December, and 10,000,000 francs per month thereafter until the whole should be closed. This would require twenty months to complete the payments, and the interest on the whole amount was to commence at once. The announcement of this loan, spread over a long time, and the favorable nature of its terms to the government, produced a better feeling, and made the markets of the continent easier; so much so, that a great deal of paper that would command money at 8 per cent per annum in London, was discounted in Amsterdam and other cities at a much less rate. All those circumstances only produced temporary relief. The facts that a great deal of food would

be wanted; that trade was paralyzed by want of money; that mills were idle only for the want of means; that deferred bills are not settled, still presented themselves in the back ground, ready to exercise an adverse influence as soon as recovered confidence should stimulate enterprise. The state of Ireland was such as to give rise to the liveliest fears, and corn had advanced considerably for that market; while cotton had become firm under a slightly renewed demand, but was checked by accounts of increasing supplies on this side.

There seems to be a radical error in the mode of transacting business between the two countries, which in some measure aids the revulsions brought about by bank panics. We allude to the total absence of counter-exchange. Specie is now, and has been freely shipped from the Atlantic ports; while bills have ruled as follows in New York:—

BILLS IN NEW YORK.

	Sterling.	Francs.	Amsterdam.	Antwerp.	Hamburgh.	Bremen.
November 1	8½ a 9	5.23½ a 5.22½	40½ a 40½	40 a 40½	35½ a 35½	78½ a 78½
“ 16	9 a 9¾	5.25 a 5.22½	40½ a 40½	40½ a 40½	35½ a 36	78½ a 78½
“ 24	9 a 10	5.25 a 5.22½	40½ a 40½	40½ a 40½	35½ a 36	78½ a 79
December 1	9 a 10½	5.25 a 5.22½	40 a 40½	40 a 40½	35½ a 36	78½ a 79
“ 4	9 a 10½	5.25 a 5.22½	40 a 40½	40 a 40½	35½ a 36	78½ a 79
“ 11	9 a 10½	5.25 a 5.22½	40 a 40½	40 a 40½	35½ a 36	78½ a 79
“ 16	9 a 10½	5.27 a 5.25	40 a 40½	40 a 40½	35½ a 36	78½ a 79

These rates are nearly nominal for undoubted bills, but a large supply is upon the markets, which will command no price. While bills are quoted here at 9 a 10½, they are dull in New Orleans at 4 a 6, with checks on New York 1 discount, which gives a price here of 5 a 7 per cent for bills, or 4 a 3½ per cent under the market rate. The last quotation for bills on Amsterdam, in London, was 12.03½; and the price here is 40½. This bill, remitted to London, is thought equal to a sixty day sterling bill at 4.86, say 109½. At the same date, Hamburgh sight bills were at 14.1; and, as the price here is 35½, it is equal, as a remittance to London, to a sterling bill at 5.00, say 112½; also, on Paris, the price in London, at short date, being 25.75, and the quotation here being 5.23, gives an equivalent of 4.88, for sterling sixty day bills. There is a very great discrepancy in all these modes of remittance, but the most expensive of all is at present adopted, to some extent, viz: by sending specie. The operations between the two countries are considerably cramped, for the want of a system of counter-exchange, such as exists between all other countries having commercial dealings with each other. This colonial system of always drawing upon Europe at sixty days' sight for produce sold there, requires change. Ordinarily, when sixty day bills can be readily discounted at a low rate of interest, the difference between sight and sixty days is not important, but the practice of always remitting for goods from this side, instead of the seller on that side drawing for the amount, as the seller on this side draws for produce, leads to great inconvenience and risk. At this moment, for instance, when means of remittance are so uncertain or expensive, the importer here should simply order the seller here to draw upon him, and sell his bill there. This cannot now be done; such a thing as drawing on the United States is scarcely known at all in any of the markets of Europe; but it is time that they began to entertain some notion of the importance and stability of American merchants. Were this the case, when the manufacturer offers his bill on the United States, the buyer of cotton or other produce would purchase the bill, and transmit here

with his order. Merchants would then have a broader field of action. Between all the cities of Europe, exchanges are reciprocal. A London merchant draws on Paris or Vienna, and reciprocally his correspondent draws on him with equal facility; or, rather, at all the places, bills or acceptances on any point, can be had for almost any sum. It is not the practice of bankers to draw when a bill is wanted, an operation nearly allied to kiting. By these means dealers can always have the advantage of the markets. If a merchant wishes to remit from Paris to Hamburg, he may buy a bill on that city in Paris; but it may be the case that a bill on himself can be sold to better advantage in Hamburg, than he can buy one in Paris on that city. Hence he directs his correspondent to draw on him, or remits his acceptance. The United States has no advantages of this character. Since the introduction of steam navigation, New York is near to Paris and London, as the latter city formerly was to Lisbon, and there is no reason why a counter-exchange should not be established.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

THE following tables of the exports, imports, &c., of the port of New York, prepared with much pains and expense, are derived from the "*Evening Post*." The present tariff law, enacted by the last session of Congress, went into operation on the 1st of December, 1846. One year of its existence, of course, expired on the 1st of December, 1847. On the 1st of January, 1847, the law for the deposit of merchandise in public warehouses took effect. Twelve months of its operation have passed, and being a part of the revenue system, this and the tariff act have exercised a joint influence upon each other. From the tables, it will be seen that the increase of commerce at New York is, in imports, \$26,979,296, and in exports, \$18,597,340; showing a total increase in the commerce of the port of \$45,576,640. The increase of revenue actually paid to the government exceeds \$3,000,000; and, adding to this sum the amount due upon merchandise in the warehouse at present, the increase of revenue is almost \$4,000,000.

The imports at the port of New York reach nearly one hundred millions, (\$96,447,104;) and although New York is not the great outlet for the country, the exports of domestic merchandise alone amounts to \$47,800,086, and the entire exports to \$53,421,986. The amount of the duties collected and due exceeds \$21,000,000. The imports for twelve months, commencing with the 1st of December, 1846, (upon the adoption of the tariff of 1846,) compared with the previous year, are as follows:—

IMPORTS.					
	1846-7.	1845-6.		1846-7.	1845-6.
December.....	\$4,878,655	\$4,076,672	July.....	\$9,106,399	\$6,195,709
January.....	6,068,999	5,263,010	August.....	13,574,041	8,457,124
February.....	7,409,637	4,749,091	September.....	9,122,500	5,883,816
March.....	8,177,141	9,812,494	October.....	5,166,992	3,800,235
April.....	13,723,526	6,440,815	November.....	4,647,221	3,426,790
May.....	7,933,713	5,488,397			
June.....	6,638,280	5,873,655	Total.....	\$96,447,104	\$69,467,808
Increase.....				26,979,296	

The imports were made up of dutiable goods, free goods, and specie, in the following proportions:—

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE AND SPECIE IMPORTED INTO NEW YORK IN EACH MONTH OF 1846-7 AND 1845-6.

	1846-7.	1845-6.	1846-7.	1845-6.	1846-7.	1845-6.
	DUTIABLE.		FREE.		SPECIE.	
December.....	\$4,279,813	\$3,439,991	\$537,496	\$558,185	\$61,346	\$78,499
January.....	5,499,682	4,842,884	478,443	376,905	90,874	43,221
February.....	5,889,387	4,177,952	285,128	474,360	1,235,122	96,779
March.....	6,060,746	8,657,793	786,937	1,092,476	1,329,458	62,225
April.....	8,339,429	4,105,393	1,987,033	2,228,878	3,397,064	106,544
May.....	5,868,261	4,160,360	738,755	1,300,751	1,326,697	27,286
June.....	5,689,109	4,605,527	401,358	1,239,006	547,813	29,122
July.....	7,950,602	5,411,595	861,578	729,235	294,219	54,879
August.....	12,974,196	7,585,427	404,290	826,815	195,555	44,882
September.....	8,111,845	5,272,923	916,109	690,849	94,546	10,044
October.....	4,753,836	2,738,977	312,383	991,449	100,773	69,809
November....	4,117,164	2,568,183	471,142	719,215	58,915	139,392
Total.....	\$79,534,070	\$57,567,005	\$8,180,652	\$11,138,124	\$8,732,382	\$762,679
Increase....	21,967,065					

TABLE OF EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1846-7 AND 1845-6.

	1846-7.	1845-6.	1846-7.	1845-6.
December.....	\$4,465,521	\$2,796,314	July.....	\$6,337,341
January.....	3,192,626	2,122,606	August.....	5,045,108
February.....	3,468,009	1,972,545	September....	3,216,752
March.....	4,146,896	1,909,598	October.....	4,064,360
April.....	3,933,674	2,828,889	November....	3,635,545
May.....	4,159,864	3,114,549	Total.....	\$53,421,986
June.....	7,256,290	4,062,249		\$34,824,646
Increase.....				18,597,340

The exports consisted of domestic merchandise, foreign merchandise, and specie; and were respectively as follows:—

	1846-7.	1845-6.	1846-7.	1845-6.
	SPECIE.		DOMESTIC MERCHANDISE.	
December.....		\$133,786	\$4,211,300	\$2,516,733
January.....	\$73,728	21,762	3,043,552	1,939,412
February.....	4,000	126,700	3,384,733	1,673,242
March.....	243,887	257,781	3,768,574	1,463,529
April.....	73,558	519,599	3,737,018	1,998,836
May.....	158,000	291,041	3,673,393	2,529,096
June.....	134,330		6,810,203	3,745,687
July.....	27,670	80,463	6,687,681	2,876,015
August.....	66,000	57,589	4,812,063	2,413,782
September....	350,925	2,255	2,672,452	2,238,401
October.....	674,548	70,350	3,151,238	3,354,142
November.....	1,455,946	7,681	1,907,879	3,510,269
Total.....	\$3,262,592	\$1,569,007	\$47,860,086	\$30,259,144

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE.

	1846-7.	1845-6.	1846-7.	1845-6.
Dec.—Free.....	\$65,876	\$43,822	June—Dutiable...	\$123,358
Dutiable...	188,345	101,973	July—Free.....	42,735
Jan.—Free.....	29,273	36,857	Dutiable...	79,255
Dutiable...	49,073	124,575	Aug.—Free.....	52,357
Feb.—Free.....	15,579	52,248	Dutiable...	114,688
Dutiable...	63,695	120,355	Sept.—Free.....	46,843
Mar.—Free.....	51,355	66,216	Dutiable...	146,532
Dutiable...	83,082	122,072	Oct.—Free.....	81,722
Apl.—Free.....	45,713	114,927	Dutiable...	156,852
Dutiable...	77,385	195,518	Nov.—Free.....	54,558
May—Free.....	97,711	85,850	Dutiable...	217,162
Dutiable...	230,760	208,562	Total.....	\$2,299,308
June—Free.....	188,399	93,058		\$2,996,505

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE REMAINING IN WAREHOUSE AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK ON THE 1ST OF DECEMBER, 1847, AND ACCRUING DUTIES THEREON.

Amount.	Duties.	Amount.	Duties.
\$202,826 at 100 per cent,	\$202,826 00	\$35,590 at 15 per cent,	\$5,338 50
192,150 " 40 "	76,860 00	16,993 " 10 "	1,699 30
758,044 " 30 "	227,413 20	287 " 5 "	14 35
673,749 " 25 "	168,437 25		
379,787 " 20 "	75,957 40	\$2,259,426	\$758,546 00

AGGREGATE IMPORTS FOR TWELVE MONTHS.

1846-7.		1845-6.	
Dutiable goods.....	\$79,534,070	Dutiable goods.....	\$57,567,005
Free goods.....	8,180,652	Free goods.....	11,138,124
Total merchandise.....	\$87,714,722	Total merchandise.....	\$68,705,129
Specie.....	8,732,382	Specie.....	762,679
Total.....	\$96,447,104	Total.....	\$69,467,808
Merchandise warehoused....	2,259,426		
Total.....	\$98,706,530		
Duties received.....		\$20,532,025	
Increase of dutiable goods in 1846-7.....		24,226,491	
Decrease of free goods.....		2,957,472	
Increase of specie.....		7,969,703	
Increase of duties received.....		3,155,918	
Duties received and due.....		21,290,571	
Increase in duties received and due.....		3,918,464	

AGGREGATE EXPORTS FOR TWELVE MONTHS.

1846-7.		1845-6.	
Domestic merchandise.....	\$47,860,086	Domestic merchandise.....	\$30,259,144
Foreign merchandise, free... " dutia.	769,121 1,530,187	Foreign merchandise, free... " dutia.	789,741 2,206,764
Total merchandise.....	\$50,159,394	Total merchandise.....	33,255,649
Specie.....	3,262,592	Specie.....	1,569,007
Total.....	\$53,421,986	Total.....	\$34,824,646
Increase in domestic merchandise exported.....		\$17,600,942	
Decrease in foreign free " dutiable "		20,620 676,577	
Increase in specie exported.....		1,693,585	

EXPORT AND CONSUMPTION OF CHAMPAGNE WINE.

An official report, made by the directors of the indirect taxes for the department of the Marne, furnishes the following information as to the trade in champagne between the 1st of April, 1846, and the 1st of April, 1847. The produce is divided between the arrondissements of Chalons, Epernay, and Rheims. On the 1st of April last there were, in the cellars of the wholesale dealers, 18,815,367 bottles of this wine, viz: Chalons, 4,604,237 bottles; at Epernay, 5,710,753; and at Rheims, 8,500,377. The number of bottles sold and delivered between the 1st of April, 1846, and the 1st of April, 1847, were, at Chalons, 2,497,355; at Epernay, 2,187,553; at Rheims, 4,090,577; making a total of 8,775,485 bottles. These quantities were thus distributed:—

From—	To go abroad. Bottles.	To other depart'mts. Bottles.	Within the department. Bottles.
Chalons.....	1,074,214	753,175	669,066
Epernay.....	806,663	386,425	994,465
Rheims.....	2,831,038	1,215,766	43,773
Total.....	4,711,915	2,355,366	1,707,304

Thus twice as much champagne wine is sent abroad as is consumed in France.

PROGRESS OF THE AMERICAN CHEESE TRADE.

The "Detroit Free Press," the State paper of Michigan, furnishes the following statement of this new and rather important branch of trade:—

The cheese trade is rapidly augmenting in this country. The foreign exports of it have become a prominent article of supply for distant climes. Up to 1840, there was but a small quantity shipped, and that principally on foreign account. That year, Messrs. Goodrich & Co., of New York, and the Messrs. Green, of Boston, made the experiment of large consignments to England. Of course, they met with the usual prejudices, the market before having been furnished with foreign cheese from Ireland and Holland. By perseverance, the American article gradually came into favor, until it has now reached a heavy consumption. It fills part of the cargo of almost every vessel that leaves our seaports for Liverpool. The statistics of export, as will be seen by the following, betoken a still further extension, which is worthy the attention of the farmers of this State:—

1840.....lbs.	723,713	1844.....lbs.	7,433,145
1841.....	1,748,781	1845.....	7,941,187
1842.....	2,456,677	1846.....	8,675,390
1843.....	3,440,144		

This foreign export trade has now reached over a million of dollars annually. It goes to fifty-two countries. Our heaviest customers, in 1846, were:—

England.....lbs.	6,744,699	Hayti.....lbs.	150,046
West Indies.....	807,040	British Guiana.....	162,420
Cuba.....	227,276	Scotland.....	88,041
Canadas.....	185,915	Venezuela.....	40,812

Until within five years, cheese has usually been kept on sale in our Eastern cities by grocers and produce-dealers, with a general assortment of other products. A total revolution in this respect has taken place. In New York and Boston, extensive houses, exclusively for cheese, are doing a large business. Several commission houses are now solely engaged in it.

The farmers of our State seem to have neglected this important branch of the dairy. Every other saleable product is produced here in abundance; why not add this to our list of exports? We certainly possess the grazing land. Still we do not make 20 per cent of the cheese consumed in the State. Daily it is shipped here from Buffalo, and goes into the interior of this State. Ohio also sends her hundreds of tons to our markets. Neither Western New York nor Ohio possesses more advantages for its manufacture than our own farmers. We are told that, at the prices it has borne for the last five years, it is much more profitable than butter. In fact, for three months in the year, butter does not sell at any higher price. All dairy-women agree that two pounds of cheese are made easier than one pound of butter. Yet it is neglected.

In several towns near Buffalo, (Hamburgh and Collins,) it is the principal business of the farmers, and all who have embarked in it have greatly added to their wealth. Chautauque County farmers have increased their cows for cheese-making; Herkimer County, N. Y., produced 8,000,000 lbs. in 1845, according to the State census; St. Lawrence, 9,000,000 lbs. In Alleghany County, heretofore, lumber was the principal production; nearly every farmer now turns out his five to twenty casks of cheese in the fall. All the Southern tier of counties in that State are largely embarking into it. The census of 1835 gives the quantity made in the State at 36,000,000 lbs. Ohio has doubled her exports of it within five years. Indiana cheese is now becoming known in the market.

As a sample of its increase, we give the following statistics of the amount that arrived at tide-water on the Hudson River, from the canal collector's books:—

Year.	Lbs.	Exported.	Year.	Lbs.	Exported.
1834.....	6,340,000	1841.....	14,170,000	1,748,781
1835.....	9,586,000	1842.....	19,004,000	2,456,677
1836.....	14,060,000	1843.....	24,334,000	3,440,144
1837.....	15,560,000	1844.....	26,672,500	7,433,145
1838.....	13,810,000	1845.....	29,371,000	7,941,187
1839.....	14,530,000	1846.....	34,812,513	8,675,390
1840.....	18,820,000	723,713			

Here is a large quantity, but a ready market is found. The increase of foreign exports is large. Up to last fall, the duty on it in England was \$2 42 per 100 lbs. Sir Robert Peel's new tariff reduced it to \$1 per 100, which will cheapen it to British consumers.

The prices range in Liverpool, according to quality, from \$10 to \$15 per 112 lbs., and for three years past, the London market has never been overstocked but three or four times, which has lasted but two to five weeks. It is getting introduced into all circles, and driving the Dutch article out of market. Mr. Coleman, in his Agricultural Tour in Europe, says he found it gracing the tables of the lords and nobles, where, five years ago, it had never found its way. He dined with a marquis, who treated him to American cheese, American apples, American cranberries, and American cider in bottles.

It is now exported to the East Indies in boxes, found in Calcutta, and goes, with other notions, to the celestials of China. None but the real skim-milk grindstones, however, can stand a hot climate.

PENNSYLVANIA CANAL COMMERCE.

The following tables show the comparative quantity of the leading articles which arrived at, and were cleared from Pittsburgh, by the Pennsylvania Canal, during the fiscal years 1846 and 1847, commencing December 1st and ending November 30th. We have prepared the tables from statements made in the Pittsburgh Gazette.

ARTICLES.		1847.	1846.	ARTICLES.		1847.	1846.
Ale, &c.....	bbls.	18,478	14	Iron, pig.....	lbs.	21,979,353	} 15,410,966
Anvils.....	lbs.	297,773	418,498	Castings....		124,662	
Ashes.....		230,300		Bar & sheet		4,397,268	2,833,879
Chinaware.....		5,046,218	4,957,454	Nails, &c..		15,886,711	575,402
Coffee.....		9,927,605	10,920,993	Leather.....		312,229	386,225
Clay, German...		853,920	1,100,291	Oats.....	bush.	21,360	19,080
Drugs.....		789,207	514,941	Paints.....	lbs.	382,293	107,352
Dry goods.....		23,201,074	12,651,818	Salt.....	bush.	137,240	165,415
Fish.....		5,977,891	bbls.19,600	Span. whit'g, lbs.		522,901	559,532
Groceries.....		7,833,925	6,933,856	Steel.....		169,501	197,171
Hats and shoes..		2,690,881	2,049,540	Tobacco, leaf...		1,613,876	784,172
Hardware.....		14,501,693	10,522,463	Tin.....		1,087,880	1,029,814
Iron, blooms....		14,942,390	13,890,707				
EXPORTS.							
Bacon.....	lbs.	12,713,427	21,661,236	Hemp.....	lbs.	3,311,618	1,287,886
Beef and pork....		41,225	19,620	Iron, Pig.....		65,537	} 2,675,341
Buffalo robes....		478,862		Castings ..		250,910	
Butter.....		747,645	800,265	Blooms... ..		13,836	333,702
Cotton.....		1,056,138	1,000,971	Nails.....		50,760	82,735
Dry goods.....		410,735	228,692	Steel.....		549,416	319,732
Earthenware.....		69,484	50,952	Lead.....		188,078	325,985
Flour.....	bbls.	297,940	156,402	Lard and lard oil		5,319,378	2,929,286
Glassware.....	lbs.	229,227	270,797	Tallow.....		62,946	291,313
Groceries.....		1,978,822	1,779,889	Tobacco, leaf..		14,777,059	24,696,742
Hardware.....		246,887	239,353				

THE OHIO HOG TRADE.

The Chief Clerk of the Auditor's Department furnishes the Cincinnati Atlas with a complete list of the number of hogs assessed in the several counties of the State of Ohio in the year 1846, their value according to the assessment, and the number and value assessed in eleven counties (all from which returns have been made) in 1847. It will be borne in mind that the assessment is made on all which are six months old on the 1st of June, and necessarily embraces nearly all which would be fattened the following fall and winter.

In 1846 the whole number in the State was..... 1,405,094
 Value of same..... \$2,238,876

We note the eleven counties from which returns have been made this season, comparing the number and assessed value with those of the preceding year:—

1846.			1847.		
COUNTIES.	No. of Hogs.	Value.	COUNTIES.	No. of Hogs.	Value.
Allen.....	11,744	\$9,112	Allen.....	13,646	\$13,328
Clark.....	19,492	43,778	Clark.....	24,211	53,498
Clinton.....	26,188	52,248	Clinton.....	39,592	105,474
Columbiana.....	17,096	29,091	Columbiana.....	17,871	28,936
Guernsey.....	22,442	23,863	Guernsey.....	27,741	35,710
Hamilton.....	31,494	64,005	Hamilton.....	38,275	97,446
Harrison.....	14,877	19,967	Harrison.....	13,874	33,899
Highland.....	28,444	55,332	Highland.....	44,794	88,018
Huron.....	12,729	18,602	Huron.....	14,838	24,420
Meigs.....	7,990	9,825	Meigs.....	8,207	11,680
Summit.....	11,112	17,074	Summit.....	13,974	23,479
Total.....	293,608	\$333,997	Total.....	261,026	\$513,886

It will be seen that, in all the counties named, which are scattered in different parts of the State, there is considerable increase this season over the previous year. The aggregate increase in these eleven counties is 57,418 hogs, or about 22 per cent. This percentage, added to the number estimated to have been packed in Cincinnati the past year, would swell the number the coming season to about the same that was packed there in 1845-6.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS FOR THE TRADE AND HARBOR OF MACASSAR.

ART. 1. Vessels entering or leaving these roads are bound to show their colors.

For square-rigged vessels, the Dutch flag, in return, will be hoisted on shore.

The harbor-master will send the following report in blank to the vessels, to be filled up by the master:—

The master of the vessel arrived is requested to fill in answers to the following questions:

The nation to which the ship belongs? Her name? The name of the commander? Number of the crew? How many guns? From where arrived? The date of departure? The ports touched at during the voyage? Where bound? Specification of cargo? Names of the passengers, their country, profession, age, and last abode? If any dangerous disease on board? If any important news?

Art. 2. The master of the vessel, or other person in charge, is to deliver in, within twenty-four hours after his arrival, personally, or through his agent, at the harbor-master's office, the passport and other papers belonging to the vessel, which documents will remain with the said harbor-master until the vessel's departure. All mails, packets, letters, etc., are to be delivered to the harbor-master immediately on the vessel's arrival.

Seamen permitted to land from merchant ships or vessels, on liberty, are to be furnished with tickets of leave, from the master or person in charge of the vessel to which such seamen may belong; but this regulation is not to be considered applicable to men who may come on shore for a short time on duty or business.

Art. 3. The master attendant is entitled, as often as he may deem it expedient, to go on board any vessel lying in the roads, and to muster her crew. This regulation is especially applicable to country ships and native craft, in the event of being suspected of acts of piracy, or meddling with slave trade, and the said harbor-master will then extend his search as far as he may think proper. Of all important circumstances he will give information to the governor.

Art. 4. Repealing the government notification published in the Staatsblad of 1838, No. 21, the limits of the road have been fixed upon as follows:

To the north, from the sandy bank in front of Boni, in a straight direction as far as the coast; and to the southward, from the southern point of the sandy bank called "Groot Lely," (bearing a sea-mark,) in a straight direction to the eastward as far as the coast.

Art. 5. Vessels are to take their berth within the limits of the road, as before described, and generally to follow such directions as the harbor-master may deem expedient.

Art. 6. Vessels loaded with gunpowder or ammunition, are to anchor to the eastward of, and close to the sandy bank called the "Groot Lely," and not to proceed further, until the said gunpowder has been transported to the government stores selected for that purpose.

The master or other person in charge of such vessel, is to give a declaration of the gunpowder and ammunition he has on board to the harbor-master, within twenty-four hours after his arrival. In case of breach of this rule, the gunpowder, etc., will be confiscated, and the captain further liable for any accident which may arise from his neglect.

The master of the vessel being desirous to bring the gunpowder and ammunition to the government store, a permit will be given to him or his agent, free of expense. The said articles will be kept at his disposal in any quantity. Government, however, will not be responsible for the risk of transport, or in the magazines.

Permits for the delivery of gunpowder and ammunition from the government magazines, will be obtainable (*gratis*) at the harbor-master's office, daily, (Sundays and holidays excepted,) from 8 o'clock in the morning, till 2 o'clock in the afternoon.

The store-keeper will also be on duty from 8 in the morning, till 2 in the afternoon, at the said magazines, for the reception of the articles, as above mentioned.

Any such gunpowder or ammunition, however, is not to be imported within the limits of the town, without special permission of the governor; but with necessary precaution, it may be exported beyond the limits of the roads, provided the boat or vessel on which it has been loaded does not pass through the space in the roads allotted to merchant vessels not having the said articles on board.

Vessels preferring to keep their gunpowder, etc., on board, and to anchor close to the "Lely bank," are nevertheless to follow such directions as the governor may from time to time deem expedient.

Art. 7. Masters, or other persons in charge of vessels, boats, etc., are warned not to throw over any stone or other ballast, under a fine of $f10$ per last (equal to two tons) on the size of the vessel per register.

It is likewise forbidden to take sand from the banks called "Groote en Kleine Lely," Boni, Gossong, Ponjo, and from the banks situated to the northward of the same, under a fine of from $f25$ to $f100$, at the discretion of the magistrate.

Art. 8. The harbor-master is bound to use his endeavors to recover the anchors which may be lost in the roads; the owner in event of recovery paying the expenses incurred, and a salvage of one-third of the value.

Art. 9. Anchors which may not be reclaimed, after having been advertised three times in the Java Courant, will be sold by public auction to the highest bidder. The sale, however, will not take place until the anchors have been exposed publicly at Macassar, during a period of one year. After deduction of what is due to the harbor-master, the nett proceeds will be made over to the public treasury.

Art. 10. No vessel is allowed to sail, before the harbor-master shall have attested and retained her papers, and also furnished her with the necessary port-clearance, or certificate of being allowed to proceed on the intended voyage.

To native craft, and vessels belonging to the Dutch possessions, who are furnished with passports from native princes, or with annual passports from the Netherlands Indian government, no separate port-clearance will be given, but the authorization for leave will be notified on the same document.

Art. 11. The harbor-master will not deliver the said documents, unless the intended departure will have been duly notified to him 24 hours previously—the following documents exhibited: First, a certificate from the magistrate, certifying that the local laws and regulations have been adhered to. Second, the muster roll.

All such certificates, and also the port-clearance, will be given *gratis*, and free for any charge of stamps.

Native craft and small vessels will announce their intended departure two hours before they start, by hoisting a blue Peter.

Art. 12. Vessels starting without port-clearance, will be stopped and fined with $f10$ per last, or $f5$ per ton register.

In case of any such vessel succeeding in making her escape, due notice will be given to all public officers throughout Netherlands India, in order to enable them to levy the above fine whenever the master of such vessel may return to Netherlands India, in the same, or in any other vessel.

Art. 13. A written statement shall be delivered at the harbor-master's office, by the master, supercargo, or agents of square-rigged vessels, as to the goods they wish to have landed, to load or tranship, mentioning the port whence the goods have been shipped, and the port the merchandise taken on board is destined for.

For native and other Asiatic traders, a verbal declaration, to be delivered at the harbor-master's office, will be sufficient.

Art. 14. Of all imports and exports of opium within the limits stipulated with the opium farmer, a written declaration to the magistrate, and also the farmer, shall be delivered

by the owner or consignee of the opium. This rule will be strictly enforced, in order to maintain the said farmer in his rights.

Art. 15. The importation and exportation of broken chests of opium will be permitted, but only under such rules and conditions as the governor of Celebes may think proper to establish, and the broken chest sealed by the public officers appointed by him for the purpose.

The importation of prepared opium is strictly forbidden. In the event of any breach of the regulations specified in this and the preceding article, the opium will be forfeited, and a fine levied of from *f*500 to *f*5,000, at the discretion of the judge.

Art. 16. Goods imported from Macassar into the other ports of Netherlands India, will be considered as imported from a foreign country, and consequently be liable to the duties levied on goods actually so imported. But this regulation will not be applicable to articles being the produce of the Eastern Archipelago. On goods exported from Macassar from the other ports of Netherlands India, the same duties will be levied as if they were exported for a foreign country.

Art. 17. The second paragraph of the government notification of 31st December, 1826, Staatsblad 48, being hereby repealed, it will be lawful for any Dutch or foreign vessel to export goods from Macassar to all such ports in Netherlands India where they can be legally admitted, and also to export from those ports goods for Macassar.

PORT CHARGES AND TARIFF OF PORTO RICO.

PORT CHARGES ON FOREIGN VESSELS IN PORTO RICO.

American vessels, \$1 Macoquino per ton; British, French, Danish, Dutch, and other nations, 68 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton; anchorage, \$2; ballast, entry on a sloop, schooner, or brig, \$12; do. do. do. bark, or ship, \$8; balanza duty on the above charges, 1 per cent. The one-fourth part of said charges payable in Spanish gold, with premium, which is regulated to the value of the doubloon. The above charges are made by all the custom-houses in the island.

LOCAL CHARGES ON FOREIGN VESSELS AT PONCE.

Harbor-master's fees, including pilotage in and out, \$24 50; health visit, \$4 50; if the vessel is in observation or quarantine, extra visits are made, (each) \$4 50; interpreter's fee, \$8; American vessels pay consul's fee for register, \$4—Spanish gold, \$4 50; stamp-paper, to enter and clear with cargo, \$8 75; fort-pass, \$1 50. Lighterage loading is 31 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per hhd. or puncheon; discharging is by the load, and equal to 5-100 per barrel. Stone ballast taken from on board without charge; do. put on board at \$1 per ton.

LOCAL CHARGES ON A FOREIGN VESSEL IN ST. JOHN'S.

Harbor-master's fees, including pilotage in and out, \$25; for each time the vessel changes her position in port, \$2; health visit, \$4 50; interpreter's fee, \$8; light-house dues, 3-100 per ton on all vessels up to 150 tons, and over 150 tons, 1-100 per ton for such excess. Blanks, for permit, 50 cts.; custom-house clearance, without cargo, \$1 25; do. do. do., with cargo, \$9 25; fort-pass, \$2; boat for pilot, 25 cts.; wharfage, for first three days, \$4; do., every succeeding day, is \$1 per day. American vessels pay consul's fee, \$4—Spanish gold, \$4 50; port regulations, 25 cts.

LOCAL CHARGES ON A FOREIGN VESSEL IN MAYAGUEZ.

Harbor-master's fees, including pilotage in and out, \$25 50; for each time the vessel changes her position in port, \$2; health visit, \$4 50; interpreter's fee, \$8; fort-pass, \$2 25; American consul's fee for deposit of register, \$4—Spanish gold, \$4 50; custom-house clearance, and stamp-paper, \$9 75; light-house dues, 3-100 per ton on all vessels up to 150 tons, and over 150 tons, 1-100 per ton for such excess. Lighterage, per hhd. or puncheon, 25-100 from shore to the vessel. No charge for lighterage, when produce goes direct from the estates to the vessel.

Note.—Sugar and molasses pay \$1 per hhd. or puncheon, from the estate to the wharf, or to the vessel, which is charged in the invoice.

LOCAL CHARGES ON A FOREIGN VESSEL IN GUAYAMA.

Harbor-master's fees, including pilotage in and out, \$19 50; health visit, \$4 50; interpreter's fee, \$8; fort-pass, \$1 50; custom-house clearance, \$8 75; lighterage, 51-100 per hhd. or puncheon. American consul's fee for deposit of register, \$4, Spanish gold.

Note.—Coast lighterage averages about \$1 per hhd., but, when produce is brought near the port, no charge is made.

IMPORT DUTIES ON THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF TRADE AT PONCE, PORTO RICO.

Flour, wheat.....bbl.	\$5 59	Lard,.....100 lbs.	\$3 81
“ rye.....	1 21	Butter.....	3 81
Corn meal.....pnn.	4 84	Cheese, Am.....	3 06
“ “.....bbl.	1 21	Candles—sperm.....	7 72
Rice.....100 lbs.	1 39	“ tallow.....	3 04
Bread—pilot or navy.....	1 92	Whale oil.....gall.	7
Crackers of all classes.....	2 31	Soap.....100 lbs.	4 09
Potatoes.....bbl.	54	Tobacco—manufactured.....	4 09
Apples.....	72	“ leaf.....	3 28
Onions.....100 lbs.	63	Lumber—pitch-pine.....M.	4 80
Cod or scale-fish.....	88	“ white pine.....	4 80
Beef—mess or prime.....bbl.	1 92	Shingles of all classes.....	72
Pork, “.....	3 60	Staves.....	4 32
Mackerel.....	96	Shooks.....each	18
Herrings—dry, salted, or pickled..	84	Empty casks.....	37
Hams, Am.....100 lbs.	2 75	Wood hoops.....	6 01

EXPORT DUTIES.

Sugar, per 100 lbs., 13 2-5 cents; molasses, free; coffee, per 100 lbs., 28½ cents. The one-fourth part of import and export duties, is payable in Spanish gold. The duty on some articles varies, in different parts of the island, a trifle from per centages levied for local purposes. Sales of provisions are usually made at 60 to 90 days credit. Lumber and coopers' stock, 3 to 4 months credit, in crop, and 6 months out of crop.

THE TARIFF OF JAMAICA.

SCHEDULE OF DUTIES, WHICH CAME INTO OPERATION ON THE 20TH SEPTEMBER, 1847.

Ale, beer, cider, porter, or perry, per tun.....	87s.
Asses, per head.....	5s.
Beef and pork, salted or cured, and all cured meat, per bbl. of 200 lbs.....	20s.
Bread or biscuit, per cwt.....	4s.
Bricks, per M.....	4s.
Butter, per cwt.....	12s.
Candles, wax, spermaceti, or composition, per box of 56 lbs.....	5s.
“ tallow, per box of 56 lbs.....	2s.
Cattle, neat, per head.....	4s.
Cheese, per cwt.....	7s.
Cocoa, per cwt.....	10s.
Coffee, British, per cwt.....	20s.
Drugs.....	80s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .
Fish, dried or salted, per cwt.....	2s.
Mackerel, pickled, per barrel.....	4s.
Alewives and herrings, pickled, per bbl.....	2s.
Pickled fish, not otherwise described, per bbl.....	4s.
Salmon, wet or salted, per bbl.....	8s.
“ smoked, per cwt.....	10s.
Herrings, smoked, per box.....	6d.
Fish, smoked, not otherwise described, per cwt.....	4s.
Flour, wheat, per bbl.....	6s.
Grain, per bushel.....	3d.
Ginger.....	80s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .
Hams, bacon, dried beef, tongues, and sausages, per cwt.....	10s.
Horses, mares, and geldings, per head.....	20s.
Indigo, per lb.....	3d.
Lard, per cwt.....	7s.
Meal, or other flour, not wheat, per barrel.....	1s.
Molasses, per cwt.....	3s.
Mules, per head.....	10s.
Oil, blubber, fins, and skins, the produce of fish, and creatures living in the sea.....	100s.
per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	
Preserved meats, soups, vegetables, fish, and all other provisions, in tin cases or other packages.....	80s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .

Rice, per cwt.....	4s.
“ undressed, per bushel.....	1s.
Salt, per cwt.....	9d.
Sheep and goats, per head.....	2s.
Soap, per box of 56 lbs.....	2s.
Spirits—Brandy, rum, (except the produce of this island,) gin, whiskey, and all other spirits and cordials, per gallon.....	6s.
Sugar, refined, per lb.....	2d.
Swine, per head.....	2s.
Tea, per lb.....	1s.
Tobacco, manufactured.....	640s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , and 3d. per lb.
“ unmanufactured.....	480s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , and 3d. per lb.
Wines, in bulk or bottled, per tun, 290s. and 140s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , and 2s. 6d. per dozen for every dozen quart bottles wine.	
Wood—Per M. feet pitch pine, by superficial measure of one inch thick.....	12s.
“ white pine or other lumber, by sup. meas. of one inch thick.....	8s.
Shingles, cypress, longer than twelve inches, per M.....	8s.
Boston chips, and all shingles not otherwise enumerated or described, per M.....	4s.
Wood-hoops, per M.....	1s.
Staves, heading, red or white oak, or ash, per M.....	2s.
Glass and silk manufactures.....	40s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .
Cotton, linen, woollen, leather, paper manufactures, mock jewelry, hardware, clocks and watches, corks, cordage, and oakum.....	40s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .
All goods, wares, and merchandise, plantation supplies, clothing, and effects of every description not previously enumerated.....	40s. per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .

Except the following, which shall not be liable to any duty under this act:—

Coals, coke, coin, bullion, books and printed papers, diamonds, fresh fruit and vegetables, hay and straw, oil, meal or cakes, as food for cattle, mulberry and other plants, cotton, wool, ice, fresh fish, turtle, poultry, fresh meats, leeches, gums, resins, tortoise-shell, guano and other manures, singing birds, dogs, specimens of natural history, army clothing, slates, regimental necessaries, raw hides, hemp, flax, and tow, sarsaparilla, and dyewoods.

Molasses and unrefined sugar of foreign manufacture, are prohibited.

NEW DUTIES AT PORT SPAIN.

The following is a table of the new duties for this port, which will go into operation on January 1st, 1848:—

Flour, per bbl. of 196 lbs., 5s.; meal, or other flour not wheaten, per bbl., 1s.; do. do., per puncheon, 4s.; crackers, and other breadstuffs, per bbl., 7½d.; corn, per bush, 2½d.; black-eyed peas, do. do.; meat, salted or cured, per 100 lbs., 4s. 2d.; fish, dried or salted, do., 1s.; do., pickled, do., 2s. 6d.; lard, do. do.; cheese, do., 5s.; soap, do., 1s.; candles, tallow, do., 2s. 1d.; do., wax, sperm, composition, and all others, do., 6s.; sugar, refined or raw, do., 5s.; rice, do., 2s.; butter, per lb., ¾d.; tea, do., 2d.; oats, per bush, 2½d.; tobacco, leaf or manufactured, per lb., 3d.; malt-liquor, in wood, per 64 galls, 5s. 4d.; do., in bottles, per doz., qt. bottles, and in proportion, 6l.; spirits turpentine, per gall., 1d.; tar, per bbl., 6d.; pitch, do. do.; coal, per bhd., 1s.; building-lime, do. do.; bricks, per 1,000, 1s.; lumber, white, spruce, and pitch pine, per 1,000 feet, 6s. 3d.; shingles, per 1,000, 1s.; shooks, per bundle, 6d.; staves, per 1,000, 10s.; neat-cattle, each, 2s. 1d.; horses, mares, geldings, colts, and foals, each, £2; mules, 10s.; asses, 2s.; carriages, on springs, four-wheeled, £7; do. do., two-wheeled, £4; muskets, guns, and fowling-pieces, 5s.; gunpowder, loose, in kegs, per lb., 2d.; do., in canisters, 5d.; articles of silk manufacture, per £100, ad. val., £7 10s.; non-enumerated articles, per £100, ad. val., £3 10s.

EXEMPTIONS.—Coin, bullion and diamonds; printed books; guano, or other manure; steam-engines and appurtenances; sugar-pans, and apparatus used for the manufacture of sugar or other produce; temper-lime, and draining-tiles. All live stock, except horses, mares, geldings, colts, foals, mules, asses, and neat-cattle. Provisions and stores of every description, imported for the use of Her Majesty's land or sea forces.

Upon all sugar, molasses, rum, cocoa, coffee, cotton, indigo, and other produce exported from this colony, per £100 ad. val., £3 10s.

Upon all ships and vessels coming to and entering at this colony, the following duties

on tonnage, viz:—upon every ship or vessel of 50 ton and upwards—for every ton of the registered tonnage, 1s. 6d.

No duty of tonnage shall be payable on any vessel entering and clearing in ballast.

The following goods landed upon any public wharf or quay, in the town of Port Spain, the following rates of wharfrage to be paid by the importer:—On every thousand feet of lumber, staves, or staves in shook, thousand bricks, and thousand shingles, 1s.

TRINIDAD TARIFF AND TONNAGE DUES.

The following tariff has been passed by the Council of Government of Trinidad, in lieu of the Imperial duties; the abolition of the latter having been agreed upon in the passing of an ordinance to that effect:—

TABLES OF DUTIES ON IMPORTS—PASSED IN COUNCIL, OCTOBER 1, 1847.

TABLE I.

Upon all goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into this Colony, the following duties:—

	£	s.	d.
Flour, per barrel of 196 pounds.....	0	5	0
Meal, or other flour not wheaten, per barrel.....	1	1	0
“ “ per puncheon.....	0	4	0
Crackers and other breadstuffs, per barrel.....	0	0	7½
Corn, per bushel.....	0	0	2½
Black-eyed peas, per bushel.....	0	0	2½
Meat, salted or cured, per 100 pounds.....	0	4	2
Fish, dried or salted, per 100 pounds.....	0	1	0
Fish, pickled, per 100 pounds.....	0	2	6
Lard, per 100 pounds.....	0	2	6
Cheese, per 100 pounds.....	0	5	0
Soap, per 100 pounds.....	0	1	0
Candles, tallow, per 100 pounds.....	0	2	1
“ wax, sperm, composition, and all others, per 100 pounds.....	0	6	0
Sugar, refined or not, per 100 pounds.....	0	5	0
Cocoa, per 100 pounds.....	0	5	0
Coffee, per 100 pounds.....	0	5	0
Chocolate, per pound.....	0	0	1
Molasses, per gallon.....	0	0	6
Rice, per 100 pounds.....	0	2	0
Butter, per pound.....	0	0	0½
Tea, per pound.....	0	0	2
Olive oil, per dozen bottles.....	0	1	0
“ per dozen half bottles.....	0	0	6
“ per dozen flasks.....	0	0	4
Spirits and strong waters, per gallon.....	0	2	0
Oats, per bushel.....	0	0	2½
Tobacco, manufactured or unmanufactured, per pound.....	0	0	3
Spirits of turpentine, per gallon.....	0	0	1
Tar, per barrel.....	0	0	6
Pitch, per barrel.....	0	0	6
Coa's, per hogshhead.....	0	1	0
Building lime, per hogshhead.....	0	1	0
Bricks, per 1000.....	0	1	0
Pan tiles and other roofing tiles, per 1000.....	0	2	1
Paving tiles, per 100.....	0	1	0
Marble tiles, per 100.....	0	2	1
Lumber, white, spruce, and pitch pine, per 1000 feet.....	0	6	3
Shingles, per 1000.....	0	1	0
Shooks, the bundle.....	0	0	6
Staves, per 1000.....	0	10	0
Neat cattle, each.....	0	2	1
Horses, mares, geldings, colts, and foals, each.....	2	0	0
Mules, each.....	0	10	0
Asses, each.....	0	2	1
Carriages on springs, four-wheeled, each.....	7	0	0
“ two-wheeled, each.....	4	0	0

	£	s.	d.
Muskets, guns, and fowling pieces.....	0	5	0
Gunpowder, loose in kegs, per pound.....	0	0	2
In canister.....	0	0	5
Articles of silk manufacture, per £100 ad valorem.....	7	10	0
Non-enumerated articles, per £100 ad valorem.....	3	10	0

EXEMPTIONS.

Coin, bullion, and diamonds; printed books; guano, or other manure; steam-engines and appurtenances; sugar pans, and apparatus used for the manufacture of sugar, or other produce; temper lime and draining tiles. All live stock, except horses, mares, geldings, colts, foals, mules, asses, and neat cattle.

Provisions, and stores of every description, imported for the use of Her Majesty's land or sea forces.

TABLE II.

Upon all sugar, molasses, rum, cocoa, coffee, cotton, indigo, and other produce exported from this colony, per £100 ad valorem.....	£3	10	0
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TABLE III.

Upon all ships and vessels coming to, and entering at the colony, the following duties on tonnage:—

Upon every ship or vessel of 50 tons and upwards—for every ton of the registered tonnage of such ship or vessel.....	£0	1	6
Upon every ship or vessel of 25 tons and upwards, but under 50 tons—for every ton of the registered tonnage of such ship or vessel.....	£0	1	3
And upon every ship or vessel under 25 tons—for every ton of the registered tonnage of such ship or vessel.....	£0	0	3

Provided always that no such duty or tonnage shall be payable in respect of any vessel entering and clearing in ballast; and provided that where any ship or vessel, of which the registered tonnage shall be less than 50 tons, shall enter more than twice in one and the same year, the tonnage payable upon, or in respect of such vessel, for every entry after the second in the same year, shall be 3*l.* sterling per ton, and no more.

THE CONSULAR SYSTEM OF FRANCE.

In a former part of the present number of this Magazine, will be found some important suggestions for the re-modelling of our consular system. They come from a highly respectable gentleman abroad, whose long experience as a consular agent of the United States entitle his suggestions to the highest respect. Our national legislators would do well to examine the ordinance of the king of the French, in regard to the consular system of that kingdom, lately published in the "*Journal des Debats.*" It certainly furnishes some suggestions that would be of value in legislating in Congress on the subject. The Washington correspondent of the Baltimore Sun gives the substance of the French king's ordinance, as follows:—

"A regular system of instruction and advancement is introduced, well calculated to render consuls respectable even without large salaries. They are to be brought up like diplomates in a regular school, to which none are admitted who have not previously passed a regular examination in regard to their knowledge on law, science, and commerce. When they have passed this examination, they are to be admitted as consular pupils, (*eleves, consuls,*) and placed with some consular agent to acquire the practical duties and routine of the business of consuls. After a number of years, and a second examination, they are promoted from consular pupils to consular agents, and thence, as opportunities may occur, from that post to a consulate of the second rank, from which at last they become consuls of the first rank, and consuls-general."

The Paris correspondent truly says, "Such a system is admirably calculated to produce men who will command respect, and whose spelling, at least, need not be corrected in the State Department." He might have added, that it would promote purity among politicians, by removing the temptations at present offered to men to become merely partisans, in the shape of consulships; for it is well known our consuls are not appointed merely for their fitness, but mainly to reward their party services.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

LITTLE MIAMI (OHIO) RAILROAD.

This road, extending from Cincinnati to Springfield, a distance of 84 miles, was first opened in 1841. The capital stock of the company is divided into 20,000 shares; the par value of each share is \$50. The dividends are payable in June and December. The original cost of the road was \$1,262,000. The flat rail is used. We give below a table of distances, rates of fare, &c. :—

PLACES.	Miles.	Fares.	PLACES.	Miles.	Fares.
Cincinnati.....	Marion.....	37	\$0 90
Columbia.....	4½	\$0 10	Freeport.....	45	1 15
Clearfield.....	9	0 25	Corwin.....	51	1 25
Milford.....	14	0 35	Stony Valley.....	58	1 40
Loveland's.....	23	0 55	Xenia.....	65	1 50
Foster's Crossing.....	27	0 70	Yellow Spring.....	74	1 75
Deerfield.....	32	0 80	Springfield.....	84	2 00

Freight Rates.—Coal, iron, sugar, salt, butter, groceries, and dry goods, \$3 20 per ton, through; lumber, \$3 50 per M.; corn and grain, 7 cents per bushel; light and bulky merchandise, \$4 per ton, through; four-wheeled carriages, 4 cents per mile; horses, 4 cents per mile.

This road shows an increase in its receipts for the month of October, 1847, over the receipts of the same month in 1846, of \$2,820; of which increase \$2,775 is on receipts from passengers, and \$45 only on freight receipts.

MICHIGAN CENTRAL RAILROAD.

COST OF ROAD, ETC.—PLACES THROUGH WHICH IT PASSES—DISTANCES—RATES OF FARE AND FREIGHT—MERCHANDISE TRANSPORTED OVER THE ROAD IN 1847.

This road was built by the State of Michigan at a cost of about \$2,500,000, and was first opened February 1st, 1846. It cost the present company, having been disposed of to a corporation, principally of Eastern capitalists, \$2,000,000. The stock is divided into 22,000 shares, and the par value is \$100. Dividends are payable on the 1st of June and 1st of December in each year. The H rail is used, weighing 61 pounds per yard. The road extends from Detroit to Kalamazoo, a distance of 146 miles.

We give below a tabular statement of the distances, rates of fares in first-class cars, etc. :—

PLACES.	Rates.	Fares.	PLACES.	Rates.	Fares.
Detroit.....	Sandstone.....	83	\$2 50
Dearborn.....	10	\$0 35	Gedley's.....	88	2 65
Wayne.....	18	0 60	Concord.....	91	2 75
Ypsilanti.....	30	1 00	Bath Mills.....	93	2 80
Geddes' Mills.....	34	1 10	Newburgh Mills.....	95	2 85
Ann Arbor.....	38	1 25	Albion.....	97	2 90
Delhi.....	44	1 40	Marengo.....	104	3 15
Scio.....	46	1 50	Marshall.....	109	3 25
Dexter.....	49	1 50	Ceresco.....	115	3 45
Dawson's.....	58	1 75	Battle Creek.....	123	3 70
Francisco.....	64	2 00	Augusta.....	133	4 00
Gross Lake.....	67	2 00	Galesburgh.....	137	4 10
Leoni.....	70	2 10	Comstock.....	142	4 25
Michigan Centre.....	74	2 28	Kalamazoo.....	146	4 40
Jackson.....	77	2 30			

Freight Rates.—Coal, iron, and manures, 39 cents per 100 lbs.; lumber, 25 cents per 100 feet; shingles, 65 cents per M.; corn and grain, 39 cents per 100 lbs.; heavy mer-

chandise, such as salt, butter, sugar, beef, pork, and fish, \$1 per bbl.; groceries, 39 cents per 100 lbs.; dry goods, 55 cents per 100 lbs.; flour, per barrel, 66 cents; wheat, per hundred pounds, 33 cents; whiskey, beer, and cider, \$1 10 per barrel. For lesser distances than through, the above rates are charged *pro rata*. No parcel is taken on this road, from one station to another, for less than 12½ cents. Vehicles, 95 cents per 100 pounds; horses and cattle, \$1 35 each; hogs and calves, \$1 64 each; sheep, \$1 10 each.

Mr. J. W. Brooks, Superintendent of this road, furnishes the following statistical table, showing the business of the road for the year ending September 1, 1847:—

ACCOUNT OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, BY THE MICHIGAN CENTRAL RAILROAD, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1846, TO SEPTEMBER 1, 1847.

ARTICLES.	Imports.	Exports.	ARTICLES.	Imports.	Exports.
Merchandise.....lbs.	12,263,748	820,690	Potatoes.....	13,268
Agricult. productions.	181,844	184,424	Tallow.....	150
Ashes.....	470,964	Peas.....	225
Apples.....	355,895	19,131	Cattle.....	3,000
Leather.....	164,664	8,696	Coffee.....	150
Lime.....	126,062	7,987	Buckwheat.....	315
Plaster.....	130,178	5,250	Soap.....	388
Machinery.....	127,179	30,968	Corn meal.....	2,841
Shorts.....	223,585	50,005	Lard.....	4,118
Hides.....	5,837	125,841	Potash.....	47,270
Vehicles.....	78,394	14,948	Eggs.....	9,691
Furniture.....	390,692	113,669	Oil cake.....	5,760
Bark.....	7,000	Beeswax.....	322
Grass seed.....	3,873	6,038	Hogs.....	1,396
Coal.....	533,315	Linseed oil.....bbls.	6
Pig iron.....	433,135	24,120	Fish.....	1,106½	½
Butter.....	1,290	35,215	Beer.....	455½	180½
Sal aratus.....	275	3,387	Cider.....	581	12
Corn.....	560	15,471	Pork.....	73	825½
Wool.....	1,112	362,136	Whiskey.....	135½	1,831½
Empty barrels.....	73,960	Beef.....	19½
Barley.....	1,550	428,927	High wines.....	481
Cranberries.....	45,566	Flour.....	185	384,614
Beans.....	19,860	Salt.....	6,621½
Rags.....	16,294	Shingles.....M.	878	570
Mint oil.....	10,086	Wheat.....bush.	2,179	86,756
Tobacco.....	12,169	Lumber.....feet	380,931	42,936

For the earnings of this road since its purchase in September, 1846, to 1st of May, 1847, and other particulars, see Merchants' Magazine for November, 1847.

WESTERN AND ATLANTIC RAILROAD.

This road, built by the State of Georgia, extends from Atlanta to Dalton, a distance of 100 miles, and was opened in 1847. The flat bar rail is used 50 miles, the rest bridge and flange. The following table shows the distances, rates of fare, &c., from Atlanta to Dalton:—

PLACES.	Miles.	Fares.	PLACES.	Miles.	Fares.
Atlanta.....	Hamilton.....	55	\$2 75
Boltonville.....	8	\$0 50	Kingston.....	60	3 00
Marietta.....	20	1 00	Adairsville.....	70	3 50
Noonday.....	25	1 25	Oothcaloga.....	80	4 00
Acworth.....	35	1 75	Resaca.....	85	4 25
Allatoona.....	40	2 00	Dalton.....	100	5 00
Cartersville.....	50	2 50			

The following are the rates of freight, as adopted by the State of Georgia:—

Iron, 15 cents per 100 pounds, *through*; lumber, \$1 per M. for first ten miles, and 25

Railroad, Canal, and Steamboat Statistics.

cents for every additional ten miles; corn and grain, 8 cents per bushel; heavy merchandise, such as sugar, salt, and butter, 25 cents per 100 pounds; dry goods, 40 cents per 100 pounds; light and bulky merchandise, 8 cents per foot, *through*. No parcels are carried to any point on this road for less than 25 cents. Horses, through, \$5; two-wheeled carriages, \$3; four-wheeled carriages, \$6; special engine and one car, \$75.

The annual report of the Western and Atlantic Railroad presents a very flattering exhibit of its affairs. The monthly receipts of this road for the past year have been as follows:—

	Freight.	Passengers.	Total.
1846—October.....	\$4,178 14	\$2,275 65	\$6,453 79
November.....	3,055 91	1,305 55	4,361 46
December.....	4,417 09	1,992 24	6,409 33
1847—January.....	3,695 92	1,561 52	5,257 44
February.....	4,630 50	1,648 64	6,279 14
March.....	7,201 91	2,167 18	9,369 09
April.....	7,208 43	1,966 50	9,174 93
May.....	4,103 97	1,854 82	5,958 79
June.....	2,994 43	2,270 86	5,265 29
July.....	3,792 03	3,306 55	7,098 58
August.....	2,401 98	5,562 84	7,964 82
September.....	5,475 88	3,558 18	9,034 06
Amounting to.....	\$53,156 19	\$29,470 53	\$82,626 72

The expenditures and nett income of the road for the past year were as annexed:—

Total receipts for the year ending September 30, 1847.....		\$82,626 72
Total current expenses.....	\$51,953 07	
Deduct amount due at the close of last year.....	6,500 00	
	\$45,453 07	
Amount paid for use of cars.....	6,228 73	
Profits.....	37,806 93	
	\$83,660 00	\$83,660 00

The aggregate cost of the Western and Atlantic road up to the 30th of September, 1847, was \$3,305,165 88, which was expended as follows:—

Amount expended to September 30, 1846.....	\$3,192,694 09
Expenditure during 4th quarter, 1846.....	51,384 36
“ 1st “ 1847.....	22,805 74
“ 2d “ “.....	7,179 32
“ 3d “ “.....	26,602 37
Scrip redeemed.....	4,500 00
Total.....	\$3,305,165 88

This road, running, as it does, through the interior of Georgia, and connecting the waters of the Atlantic with those of the Tennessee river, forms a very important link in the great chain of roads which will soon connect with the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

PHILADELPHIA AND READING RAILROAD.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE BUSINESS ON THE PHILADELPHIA AND READING RAILROAD,
FOR THE MONTHS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30TH,

	1845.	1846.	1847.
Travel.....	\$9,610 26	\$15,384 47	\$14,872 72
Freight on goods.....	4,636 84	10,948 54	11,481 12
“ coal.....	117,582 98	181,719 92	186,133 46
Miscellaneous receipts.....	25	117 73	223 05
Transportation United States mail....	783 34	783 33	783 33
Total.....	\$132,613 67	\$208,953 99	\$213,493 68
Coal transported.....	100,221 19	126,347 04	142,727 04

COMPARATIVE FARES OF RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

As the comparative rates of fare on railroads is a subject of some interest, we avail ourselves of the labors of Mr. Minor, the industrious editor of the American Railroad Journal, as exhibited in the following tabular statement of the principal railroads in the United States, giving their length, through fare, and rates per mile, from which it will be seen that the New York and Erie Railroad charges the lowest rate, namely, 1.72 cents per mile; the Harlem next, and then the Long Island Railroad. The New England roads all range below three cents, except the New Haven, Hartford, and Springfield, which is one-tenth over. And the next lowest, after the New England roads, is the Weldon and Wilmington, N. C., which is a fraction less than 2½ cents—quite too low for a country so thinly populated, though high enough for many of the more northern lines.

From this statement, it will be seen that the railroads in the State of New York, diverging from the city of New York, charge lower rates than any other roads in the country; and we presume the managers of those roads have been influenced by the belief that, where there is a dense, and, to a certain extent, confined population, the true plan is to put the rates of fare low, and thus induce the masses to use the road. This, we are fully convinced, is the true policy, and we believe it will ultimately prevail.

NAME, COMMENCEMENT, AND TERMINATION.	Length, Miles.	Thro' fare, \$ cts.	Cents, per mile.
Eastern Railroad—Boston to Portland.....	105	3 00	2.85
Boston and Maine—Boston to Portland.....	110	3 00	2.72
“ Lowell—Boston to Lowell.....	26	0 65	2.5
“ Worcester—Boston to Worcester.....	44	1 25	2.8
“ Providence—Boston to Providence.....	42	1 25	2.97
Fitchburgh—Boston to Baldwinsville.....	71	1 75	2.46
Fall River—Boston to Fall River.....	53	1 35	2.54
Old Colony—Boston to Plymouth.....	37½	1 00	2.66
Western—Worcester to Albany.....	156	3 75	2.27
Nashua and Lowell—Lowell and Nashua.....	15	0 40	2.66
Concord—Nashua to Concord.....	34	0 80	2.35
Norwich and Worcester.....	60	1 50	2.5
New Haven and Springfield.....	62	1 87	3.00
Bridgeport.....	98	2 00	2.04
New York and Harlem.....	53	1 00	1.88
New York and Erie.....	87	1 50	1.72
Long Island.....	95	2 00	2.1
Camden and Amboy—New York to Philadelphia.....	90	3 00	3.33
New York and New Brunswick.....	33	0 75	2.27
“ Philadelphia.....	88	4 00	4.54
Reading—Philadelphia and Pottsville.....	92	3 00	3.26
Philadelphia and Baltimore.....	97	3 00	3.01
Westchester and Columbia.....	32	0 75	2.34
Philadelphia, Lancaster, and Harrisburgh.....	107	4 00	3.73
“ Germantown, and Norristown.....	17	0 40	2.38
Harrisburgh and Chambersburgh.....	56	2 12	3.78
Baltimore and Ohio—Baltimore to Cumberland.....	179	7 00	3.91
“ Washington.....	40	1 60	4.00
“ Susquehanna.....	71	2 13	3.00
Washington and Richmond, (including portage).....	133	5 50	4.13
Louisa—Gordonsville.....	50	3 25	6.5
Richmond to Petersburg.....	22½	1 00	4.34
Winchester and Potomac.....	32	2 00	6.25
Petersburgh and Roanoke—Weldon.....	63	3 00	4.76
Weldon to Wilmington.....	161½	4 00	2.48
Wilmington to Charleston by steamboat.....	4 00
Gaston and Raleigh.....	87	4 00	4.6
South Carolina—Charleston to Augusta.....	136	6 75	4.96
Columbia—Branchville to Columbia.....	68	3 38	4.97
Georgia—Augusta to Atlanta.....	171	7 00	4.09

NAME, COMMENCEMENT, AND TERMINATION.	Length, Miles.	Thro'h fare.	
		\$	Cts. per mile.
Athens branch.....	39	1 95	5.00
Western and Atlantic—Dalton.....	100	5 00	5.00
Central—Savannah to Macon.....	191	7 00	3.65
Macon and Western—Atlanta.....	101	4 00	3.96
Montgomery and West Point.....	60	3 00	5.00
Vicksburgh and Jackson.....	47	3 00	6.38
Albany and Schenectady.....	17	0 50	2.94
Greenbush and Troy.....	6	0 20	3.33
Troy and Schenectady.....	20½	0 50	2.43
Utica and Schenectady.....	78	3 00	3.84
Utica and Syracuse.....	53	2 00	3.77
Syracuse and Auburn.....	26	1 00	3.84
Auburn and Rochester.....	77	3 00	3.89
Rochester and Attica.....	44	1 56	3.54
Attica and Buffalo.....	31½	0 94	2.98
Buffalo and Niagara Falls.....	22	0 75	3.4
Lockport and Niagara Falls.....	24	0 75	3.12
Michigan Central—Detroit to Kalamazoo.....	146	4 40	3.00
Detroit and Pontiac.....	25	1 00	4.00
Erie and Kalamazoo—Toledo to Adrian.....	33	1 00	3.00
Southern Michigan—Monroe to Hillsdale.....	70	2 00	2.85
Mad River—Sandusky to Bellefontaine.....	102	3 25	3.18
Little Miami—Cincinnati to Springfield.....	84	2 00	2.38
Lexington and Ohio.....	28	1 25	4.46
Mansfield and Sandusky.....	56	1 50	2.67
Madison and Indianapolis.....	86	3 00	3.48

It will be found that the railroad companies in the above list adopting the lowest rates of fares, pay the largest dividends. An unanswerable argument in favor of low fares.

THE RAILROAD SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER OF MILES COMPLETED IN EACH YEAR, AND CAPITAL INVESTED IN RAILROADS.

The "*Cincinnati Chronicle*" furnishes the following statement of the railroad movement in the United States from 1830 to 1847:—

Railroads have already become of such great utility, and the centre of so much capital, that their condition, profits, and progress, in the United States, have become a matter of general interest. There is another point of immense and, at present, incalculable importance. They are the chief means (in connection with steamboats) by which the whole commerce of the earth—its movement and its population—are to be connected together, and the ends of the world literally united. In this point of view, no man can over-estimate their value. A vast amount of the ignorance, the ill will, the jealousies, and the hostilities of mankind, in ages past, have been the result of a want of social intercourse. Steam steps in, under the influence of science, to break up this great source of evil, by bringing men and brethren together. The differences which divide mankind—so long and so greatly exaggerated by distance and imagination—become less, as men learn that they are made of the same flesh and blood, are subject to like infirmities, and are capable of the same great achievements. The powerful influence of an intelligent Christianity is made to have its just effect, in illuminating the darkness of ignorance, and stimulating the stupidity of indifference. In this aspect, steam, applied to locomotion, is a great moral instrument. If it lends some aid to evil, it lends more to good. In fine, its great social result is to bring the dissevered parts of humanity together, and, so far as intercourse can go, to make a brotherhood of the human race. So its effects on commerce are equally great. It diminishes the time and expense of carriage, and therefore renders the produce of distant climes more easy of access to the masses of people. Consumption is increased, and the merchant and the producer both find their interest in the result. Science, also, finds new problems to solve in the various experiments and wants occasioned by the demands of steam machinery. Such is the general effect of the introduction of steamboats and railroad locomotives, (both in principle the same thing,) one being used on water and the other on land.

The construction and increase of railroads in the United States during the last fifteen years, exceeds by far anything heretofore known in the world, as to public works or monuments. "Doggett's Railroad Guide" for September, 1847, has a table of railroads now in operation; and, by comparing those tables, we arrive at the following summary of the amount of railroad construction in each year, and the amount of capital invested:—

Years.	Miles completed.	Capital.	Years.	Miles completed.	Capital.
1830.....	155	\$2,510,000	1840.....	279½	\$4,350,000
1831.....	17	1,462,966	1841.....	183½	5,100,000
1832.....	29	500,000	1842.....	277½	6,613,654
1833.....	151	4,094,000	1843.....	509½	11,090,000
1834.....	86½	2,838,638	1845.....	410	19,094,294
1835.....	287	11,750,000	1846.....	484	9,186,000
1836.....	316½	7,587,114	1847.....	205	2,410,000
1837.....	237	6,682,578			
1838.....	571½	14,508,693	Total.....	5,740	\$122,525,937
1839.....	340½	12,736,000			

The amounts are set down to the year in which the railroad was opened for use. This does not show in what years the work was done. Thus, in the year 1844 there is no new road set down; but in that year a great deal of railroad work was done.

The grand result shows, that in seventeen years five thousand miles of railroad have been constructed in the United States, at an expense of one hundred and twenty millions of dollars. This is unprecedented in the history of civil constructions. It demonstrates, beyond any other fact, the gigantic growth, the unceasing industry, and cumulative power of capital, in this new and vigorous nation.

The present annual investment, in railroad constructions, is about fifteen millions of dollars. The actual saving, in the expenses of transportation, probably greatly exceeds this. In this way railroads on good routes (and in our new country nearly all are good) thus act as savings banks. They cannot explode, and they thus both save and accumulate property, with little danger of waste or diminution.

UNION CANAL, PENNSYLVANIA.

The Annual Report of the Union Canal Company, made at their annual meeting, November 15th, 1847, shows a favorable state of affairs. The assignment has ceased, and its affairs are again in the hands of the company.

The capital stock consists of 13,511 shares, at \$200 each.....	\$2,702,200 00
And a fraction of shares, amounting to.....	42,421 40
Making the entire capital.....	\$2,744,621 40

Extensive repairs have been made to the works during the past year. The canal continued open until December 5th, 1846, and opened on the 30th March, 1847. The trade on the canal has increased during the past year, as will be seen by the following table, showing the annual business since the completion of the canal:—

Years.	Tons.	Tolls received.	Years.	Tons.	Tolls received.
1828.....	18,124	\$15,512	1838.....	126,870	\$123,575
1829.....	20,622	16,676	1839.....	138,568	135,163
1830.....	41,094	35,133	1840.....	115,292	110,855
1831.....	59,970	59,137	1841.....	83,624	66,601
1832.....	47,645	59,061	1842.....	83,106	57,477
1833.....	85,876	103,462	1843.....	76,959	53,538
1834.....	84,536	119,870	1844.....	79,871	56,580
1835.....	118,978	135,254	1845.....	102,593	60,036
1836.....	117,136	133,025	1846.....	114,020	62,682
1837.....	110,032	107,590	1847.....	139,256	91,356

The Pine Grove coal trade is also slowly, but steadily increasing. The following is the yearly statement, in tons, commencing November 1st and ending October 31st:—

1833.....	3,500	1838.....	15,000	1843.....	22,000
1834.....	6,911	1839.....	20,885	1844.....	29,000
1835.....	14,000	1840.....	20,500	1845.....	35,000
1836.....	12,000	1841.....	19,500	1846.....	55,500
1837.....	17,000	1842.....	32,500	1847.....	60,499

STATEMENT OF THE TONNAGE WHICH PASSED THE UNION CANAL FROM NOVEMBER 1, 1846, TO NOVEMBER 1, 1847.

ARTICLES.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	ARTICLES.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.
Flour, 23,470 barrels.....	2,200	6	1	Lime, 43,056 bushels	1,537	14	1
Grain, 342,176 bushels...	8,707	2	3	Limestone.....	3,313	15	1
Iron.....	8,202	9	3	Seeds.....	58	2	0
Iron ore.....	9,512	18	2	Leather.....	66	6	0
Anthracite coal.....	62,549	8	0	Butter.....	57	12	2
Bituminous coal.....	2,702	7	0	Nails.....	13	8	0
Charcoal.....	258	15	1	Fish, 2,204 pounds....	299	13	0
Lumber, 25,010,994 feet.	25,233	16	0	Merchandise.....	550	1	0
Shingles, 6,869,193.....	3,066	12	0	Cordwood, 2,782 cords..	3,725	17	3
Whiskey, 337 barrels....	45	3	1	Sundries.....	4,197	18	2
Salt, 40,614 bushels.....	1,087	17	2				
Tobacco.....	76	7	0	Total.....	139,256	18	3
Plaster.....	1,793	7	1				

SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

This road, which extends from Charleston (S. C.) to Hamburg, was first opened in the year 1830. Its length is 136 miles. It cost the present company \$2,000,000, divided into 29,000 shares. Dividends are payable on the 1st of January and 1st of July. It is laid with the flange rail. The following table shows the places through which it runs, and the distances and fares, from Charleston to Hamburg:—

TOWNS.	Miles.	Fares.	TOWNS.	Miles.	Fares.
Charleston.....	Midway.....	72	\$3 50
Sineath's.....	13	\$0 63	Graham's.....	81	4 00
Ladson's.....	18	0 88	Blackwell.....	90	4 50
Summerville.....	22	1 06	Williston.....	100	5 00
31 mile turn-out.....	31	1 63	Aiken.....	120	6 00
George's.....	48	2 38	Marsh's.....	128	6 38
Branchville.....	63	3 00	Hamburg.....	136	6 75

The following statement of the number of passengers conveyed upon this railroad between Charleston, Hamburg, and Columbia, with the amount received for freight and passengers from the 1st of January to the 31st of December, 1846, is derived from the last annual report of the Directors:—

MONTHS.	Number of passengers.	Amount for passengers.	Amount for freight.	Total amount.
January.....	4,349	\$13,859 03	\$18,876 14	\$32,735 17
February.....	3,706	13,303 79	19,725 29	33,029 08
March.....	4,584	16,309 80	30,608 26	46,918 06
April.....	15,667	19,153 78	26,674 09	45,827 87
May.....	4,597	14,919 83	22,018 50	36,938 33
June.....	3,855	11,462 87	12,773 29	24,236 16
July.....	3,421	10,094 08	14,283 13	24,377 21
August.....	3,269	9,147 34	15,224 86	24,372 20
September.....	3,624	11,788 46	31,563 60	43,352 06
October.....	5,092	17,684 65	60,899 46	78,584 11
November.....	5,033	18,412 04	55,868 91	74,280 95
December.....	6,839	21,303 53	43,174 39	64,482 92
Total.....	64,136	\$177,444 20	\$351,689 92	\$529,134 12
Received for through tickets sold by Georgia Railroad Company the past year.....				12,200 67
Total freight and passage.....				\$531,334 79
Transportation of mails for the past year.....				39,746 76
Rents, storage, and other minor sources.....				7,999 97
Total receipts for the year.....				\$589,081 52

The number of bales of cotton received in Charleston by the railroad, from 1st January to 31st December, 1846, was..... 186,271

GENERAL STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES FOR THE YEAR 1846.

Gross receipts from all sources in first half year.....		\$251,741 36
Ordinary current expenses for same time.....		193,592 21
Nett profits for the first half year.....		\$58,149 15
Gross receipts from all sources second half year....	\$337,340 16	
Ordinary current expenses for same time.....	224,578 96	
Nett profits for second half year.....		112,761 20
Nett profits for the year 1846.....		\$170,910 35

The following is given by the Auditor as the property statement of the South Carolina Railroad Company, December 31, 1846:—

DR.

To stock—For \$35 per share on 34,800 shares.....	\$2,610,000 00
“ Instalments forfeited.....	312,417 65
To surplus income.....	40,708 52
To balance of indebtedness.....	2,765,090 74
Total.....	\$5,728,216 91

CR.

By purchase of Charleston and Hamburg Railroad, embracing road, machinery, &c.....	\$2,714,377 50
By purchase of land attached thereto.....	59,741 30
“ negroes.....	11,963 19
By construction of Columbia branch.....	
By lands purchased since January, 1844.....	\$5,083 83
By less to credit Aiken lands.....	35 35
	5,048 48
By negroes purchased since January, 1844.....	800 00
By suspense account.....	8,490 00
By rail iron purchased.....	15,773 97
By improvement of depots.....	8,680 29
“ property.....	30,437 49
By shares in the railroad.....	40 00
By amount due on pay-rolls and bills not charged, but forming part of the balance of indebtedness.....	9,210 60
Total.....	\$5,728,216 91

Freight Rates.—Iron, 25 cents per 100 pounds, through; lumber, \$1 50 per M. feet for first ten miles, and 25 cents every additional ten miles; corn and grain, 7 cents per bushel, through; heavy merchandise, such as sugar, salt, and butter, 25 cents per 100 pounds, through; light and bulky merchandise, 8 cents per foot, through; horses, \$8 each; two-wheeled carriages, \$6 each; four-wheeled, \$10 each. No parcels are taken on this road for less than 25 cents.

FREIGHT TARIFF, INCLUDING STATE TOLL,

ON THE LINE OF RAILROAD BETWEEN ALBANY, OR TROY AND BUFFALO, FOR THE WINTER OF 1847-8.

This tariff is made by the several companies between Albany, Troy, and Buffalo, with reference to the law of the Legislature, which requires the railroad companies to pay to the State canal tolls, distance being reckoned by the canal distances from place to place.

FROM ALBANY OR TROY, TO	Canal distances. Miles.	Railroad distances. Miles.	TOLLS PER 100 LBS.		RATES PER 100 LBS., TOLLS INCLUDED.		
			1st class. Cents.	2d class. Cents.	1st class. \$ cts.	2d class. \$ cts.	3d class. Cents.
Utica.....	110	95	10	5½	0 38	0 33	22
Rome.....	125	110	11	6½	0 44	0 38	25
Canastota.....	146	128	13	7	0 51	0 44	29
Chittenango.....	153	134	14	8	0 54	0 46	31
Syracuse.....	171	148	15	8½	0 60	0 51	34
Junction.....	*	165	*	*	0 66	0 57	38
Auburn.....	*	174	*	*	0 69	0 60	40
Seneca Falls.....	215	190	19	11	0 75	0 65	43
Waterloo.....	219	193	20	11	0 77	0 66	44
Geneva.....	226	200	21	12	0 79	0 68	45
Vienna.....	*	208	*	*	0 83	0 71	47
Canandaigua.....	*	222	*	*	0 87	0 75	50
Rochester.....	269	252	24	13½	0 94	0 81	54
Batavia.....	*	283	*	*	1 06	0 92	58
Attica.....	*	296	*	*	1 12	0 97	65
Buffalo.....	364	328	33	18	1 25	1 09	73

1st Class.—Merchandise generally, including the following articles, viz: Furs, sheep's pelts, butter, poultry, sheep and hogs, oysters in kegs, leather (loose), stoves,† hollow ware† and castings generally, boots, shoes, wool, glass ware,† sheet and hoop iron, cotton waste,† eggs,† lemons,† oranges,† medicines,† machinery,† wooden ware,† mineral and Congress water,† carboys,† and all unspecified articles.

2d Class.—Domestic manufactured articles, on account of the manufacturer, including cotton and woollen cloths, carpeting, warps, leather in boxes or rolls, paper,† paper hangings,† hides, cotton and wool pressed in bales, hemp, cheese,† lard, tallow, sumac, spirits turpentine, sugar, molasses, oils, nails, rags, camphine, hops, fresh fish,† dried fruit, oysters and clams in shells,† oakum, flax, clover and grass seed, spikes, bar and boiler iron and steel, domestic salt in bulk, crockery in casks or crates,† window glass, peas, beans, oil cake, tar, pitch, rosin, tobacco, unmanufactured.

3d Class.—Salted fish, pork and beef in barrels, fresh pork and beef,† domestic spirits,† live cattle, pot and pearl ashes, pressed hay, water lime, sand, pipe clay and plaster in barrels, marble,† grindstones, wheat, rye, corn, oats, flax seed, and barley in bags or casks.

SPECIAL RATES.—Piano fortes, each, 4 cents per mile; horses, in lots of six or more, 4 cents per mile each; in smaller lots, 6 cents per mile each; furniture, and all light and bulky articles, per 8 cubic feet, or 100 pounds, at option of the Company, ½ cent per mile; double carriages and sleighs, each, 6 cents per mile; single carriages and sleighs, 4 cents per mile each, which must be properly secured from damage by fire and weather, or will not be received by the Companies, except at the owner's risk of fire, weather, or chafing. Flour, green apples,† and potatoes,† per barrel as 100 pounds first class rates. Twenty-five cents will be charged for receiving and delivering any article without regard to weight, and each single article will be estimated to weigh not less than 100 pounds. Cattle, sheep, and hogs, for less than one eight-wheel car load, ½ cent per mile per 100 pounds.

MISSOURI RIVER—ITS TRIBUTARIES AND ITS STEAMBOATS.

The Missouri River rises within one mile of the head waters of the great river of the Oregon. It opens the "gates of the Rocky Mountains" at a point 411 miles above the head of its navigation. The following are some of its principal tributaries, each navigable from 100 to 800 miles:—

Yellowstone River.....	800 yards wide at its mouth.
Chienne.....	400 " "
White.....	300 " "
Big Sioux.....	110 " "
Platte.....	600 " "
Kansas.....	233 " "
Grand.....	190 " "
La Mine.....	70 " "
Osage.....	397 " "
Gasconade..... " "

* Undetermined. † At owner's risk, as to damage from fire, weather, breakage, chafing, decay, or other circumstances, from which the articles are liable to receive injury.

The length of the Missouri, from its source to its mouth, is 3,096 miles, and no substantial obstruction impedes its navigation from its mouth to the falls, 2,000 miles. Considering the Missouri as one river from its sources to the Gulf of Mexico, it is the longest in the world. Its average rapidity is nearly twice that of the Mississippi, as the average level of its valley is nearly twice more elevated than that of the Mississippi. The first year a steamboat navigated the Missouri, was 1819. The following is an exhibit of the number of steamboats engaged in the trade of that river from 1838 to 1846:—

Year.	No. of Boats.	No. of Trips.
1838.....	17	96
1839.....	35	141
1840.....	28	147
1841.....	32	162
1842.....	29	88
1843.....	26	205
1845 Arrivals at St. Louis from the Missouri....	...	249
1846 " " " " "	256

The Santa Fe trade, and the fur and Indian trade, as well as the domestic commerce of that river, are very important and extensive; and there are those who anticipate the period when that stream will be made a great artery of the trade between the United States and China, and the East Indies. The trade between St. Louis and Santa Fe is estimated at \$500,000 per annum. The fur trade of St. Louis is valued at \$300,000 per annum.

BOSTON AND PROVIDENCE RAILROAD.

The Boston and Providence Railroad Company was incorporated in 1831, and the road opened for travel in 1835. It is 43 miles in length, and originally cost \$2,109,500. The annexed table exhibits the receipts, expenses, nett income, and dividends, in each of the past six years, or from 1841 to 1846, inclusive:—

RECEIPTS, EXPENSES, NETT INCOME, AND DIVIDENDS OF THE BOSTON AND PROVIDENCE RAILROAD, FOR SIX YEARS.

Year.	Receipts.	Expenses.	Nett income.	Dividends.
1841.....	\$230,821	\$122,000	\$108,821	6 per cent.
1842.....	236,468	112,824	123,644	6 "
1843.....	233,388	125,375	108,013	6 "
1844.....	283,701	113,835	169,866	6½ "
1845.....	350,629	152,802	197,827	7 "
1846.....	360,875	169,679	191,196	8 "
	<u>\$1,645,882</u>	<u>\$796,515</u>	<u>\$899,367</u>	<u>39½ "</u>

WILMINGTON AND RALEIGH RAILROAD.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE ANNUAL RECEIPTS, EXPENDITURES, AND PROFITS OF THE WILMINGTON AND RALEIGH (N. C.) RAILROAD COMPANY, TOGETHER WITH A STATEMENT OF THE RATES OF FARE.

Years.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	Profits.	Rates of Fare.
1841.....	\$297,228 39	\$241,945 34	\$52,283 05	\$20 00
1842.....	211,977 48	180,892 65	31,084 83	13 00
1843.....	226,172 99	148,166 17	78,006 82	13 00
1844.....	289,533 75	203,633 24	85,900 51	13 00
1845.....	288,493 45	212,091 20	76,402 25	12 00
1846.....	317,822 49	289,682 45	28,140 04	12 00
1847.....	331,480 20	259,912 60	71,567 60	10 00

We commend this table to the attention of the President and Directors of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, as an argument in favor of low rates of fare, seeing that Mr. McLane is in favor of increasing the fare between this city and Baltimore. It is a table of instructive results.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NORTHERN APPROACHES TO THE PORT OF LIVERPOOL.

CHANGES IN THE BUOYING, LIGHTING, AND BEACONING OF THE APPROACHES TO THE PORT OF LIVERPOOL.

THE Trustees of the Liverpool Docks and Harbors do hereby give notice, that the following changes in the lighting, beaconing, and buoying of the northern approaches to this port, will take place on and after the night of Tuesday, the 2d November, 1847:—

CROSBY LIGHT-HOUSE.

A new light tower has been erected nearly half a mile N. E. by N. of the present Crosby Light-house. The light therefrom will be exhibited, for the first time, on the evening of the above date, and be continued every night from sunset to sunrise.

The light on this tower will be stationary, of a red color, elevated 96 feet above the sea at half-tide level, and will be visible between the bearings of S. S. E. and N. E. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., which limits will indicate respectively when a vessel is Westward of Mad Wharf, and when she is abreast of the Crosby Light Vessel, and ought to shape her fairway course up the Crosby Channel.

The Formby Light Vessel will be moved 170 fathoms N. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. of her present position, into 35 feet at low water. When brought in a line with the new Crosby Shore Light, she will lead in from seaward through the Victoria Channel, on a course of S. E. by E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E.; and, when brought in a line with the Crosby Light Vessel, she will lead in through the half-tide Swashway, on the bearing of S. S. E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E.

CROSBY BEACON.

The Crosby Shore Beacon will be moved nearly half a mile N. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. of its present position, on a line with the Crosby Shore Light and Formby Light Vessel.

The Bell Beacon will be moved about 170 fathoms S. W. of its present position into 25 feet at low water, with the Formby Light Vessel and Crosby Shore Light in one, and bearing from the N. W. Light Ship N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. four miles.

V. 4. Red (Can) Buoy, with perch, will be moved nearly a quarter of a mile N. W. by N. of its present position, into 21 feet at low water, Formby Light Vessel bearing N. E. by E. about one-sixth of a mile; C. I. Red, (Can.) S. S. E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E. nearly one and a half miles.

Formby Northwest Sea Mark will be moved one and one-eighth of a mile N. N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. of its present position, and a new Beacon will be erected on the Mad Wharf. These Beacons, when brought into one, on the bearing of S. E. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., will lead from Formby N. W. Buoy up the fairway of the entrance of the Old Formby Channel.

BUOYS ON THE POTOMAC RIVER.

A CORRECT LIST OF THE BUOYS PLACED ON THE POTOMAC RIVER, UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF LIGHTS.

1. Craney Island Buoy is put down in 21 feet water, Southeast point of the shoal, and West side of the channel.
2. Maryland Point Buoy, 19 feet water, South side of the channel.
3. Matompkin Buoy, on the extreme point of the shoal, South side of the channel, in 18 feet water.
4. Dade's Shoal Buoy, in 21 feet water, South side of the channel.
5. Port Tobacco Buoy, in 16 feet water, North side of the channel.
6. Lower Cedar Point Buoy, on the extreme end of the shoal, in 20 feet water, East side of the channel.
7. Broad Kettle Bottom Buoy, on the East side of the channel, in 30 feet water.
- *8. Buoy of Swan Point is in 30 feet water, in the channel.
- *9. Centre Buoy is below Swan Point, in 26 feet water, in the channel.
- *10th Buoy found already placed.
11. Ragged Point Buoy is in 30 feet water, on the extreme end of the shoal, South side of the channel.

* The widest part of the channel from Swan Point to Cobb's Point, lies to the North of the Buoys, the course being North-west by West, from the lower Buoy to the upper, in $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 fathoms water.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

A LAW RELATING TO BANKING IN NEW YORK.

THE following "Act to amend an act entitled 'an act to abolish the office of Bank Commissioner, and for other purposes, passed April 18th, 1843,'" passed the legislature of New York December 4th, 1847:—

The people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

§ 1. The third section of the act entitled "An act to abolish the office of Bank Commissioner, and for other purposes," passed April 18th, 1843, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

It shall be the duty of the Comptroller, Secretary of State, and Treasurer, on or before the first Tuesday of January, April, July and October in each year, to fix upon and determine some Saturday in the quarter of the year then ended, in respect to which every incorporated bank, banking association, and individual banker in the State, shall make a report of the character hereinafter specified. Immediately after each determination of such Saturday, the officers hereinbefore named, shall cause notice thereof to be published daily for six successive days in such newspaper published in the city of Albany as shall for the time being have the publication of legal notices under the act entitled "An act to provide for the public printing," passed March 5th, 1846, or shall serve a copy of such notice upon each incorporated bank, banking association, or individual banker in the State, by delivering the same to some officer or clerk thereof, at their respective places of business, or by depositing the same in the post-office, directed to each of such banks, banking associations and individual bankers, or some officer thereof, at their places of business respectively.

It shall be the duty of every incorporated bank, banking association, or individual banker in the State, on or before the first day of February, May, August, and November, of each year, to make and transmit to the Comptroller a quarterly report, which report shall be made on the oath of the president and cashier, and shall contain a true statement of the condition of the bank, banking association, or individual banker making such report, before the transaction of any business on the morning of the day specified in the notice of the Comptroller, Secretary of State, and Treasurer, next preceding the date of such report, in respect to the following items and particulars, to wit:

Loans and discounts, overdrafts, due from banks, due from directors of the banks or banking associations making the report; due from brokers, real estate, specie, cash items, stocks and promissory notes, bills of solvent banks, bills of suspended banks, loss and suspense account, capital, circulation, (distinguishing that received from the Comptroller from the old outstanding bills,) profits, amount due to banks, amount due to individuals and corporations other than banks, amount due to the Treasurer of the State, amount due to the commissioners of canal fund, amount due to depositors on demand, amount due not included under either of the above heads. And it shall be the duty of the Comptroller to publish such reports together in the newspaper printed in the city of Albany, in this section before named, accompanied with a summary of the items of capital, circulation and deposits, specie and cash items, public securities and private securities; and the separate report of each bank, banking association and individual banker, shall be published in a newspaper published in the county; if a newspaper is published in the city or town in which any bank is situated, such publication shall be had in such papers in which such bank or banking association, or banking-house of such individual banker shall be situated, at the expense of such bank, banking association, or individual banker.

§ 2. Section four of the act in the first section of this act referred to, is hereby amended so as to read as follows, to wit:

The Comptroller shall publish the reports and summary required by the third section of this act, together in one paper, on or before the twenty-fifth day of August, November, February, and May, in each year; and the expense of such publication shall be defrayed by a per centage assessed upon the capital stock of all the banks and banking associations, and individual bankers doing business under the "Act to authorize the business of banking," passed April 18th, 1838, or of any act amending the same in the State; and if any such bank, banking association, or individual banker shall fail to furnish to the Comptroller its quarterly report in time for such publication, it shall forfeit and pay to the Comptroller the sum of one hundred dollars, to be applied by him to the

expense of publishing the quarterly reports. And if any bank, banking association, or individual banker, shall neglect or refuse to make the quarterly report required by the third section of this act, for two successive quarters, it shall forfeit its charter, (if an incorporated bank,) and its privileges as a banking association or individual banker, if organized or doing business under the act of April 18th, 1838, in this section before referred to; and every such bank, banking association, and individual banker may be proceeded against, and its affairs closed in any manner now required by law in case of an insolvent bank or banking association.

§ 3. Whenever, in the opinion of the Comptroller, there shall be good cause to report that any bank, banking association, or individual banker, has made an incorrect or imperfect quarterly return, or is in an unsound or unsafe condition to do banking business, it shall be his duty to have the books, papers, and affairs of such banks, banking associations, or individual banker, examined by some competent person to be designated by him, who shall examine fully into his books, papers, and affairs forthwith, and report to the Comptroller on oath the result of such examination; a copy of which report shall be forthwith published in the manner prescribed in the first and second sections of this act, in respect to the publication of quarterly returns. The reasonable costs and expenses of every examination shall be defrayed in the manner prescribed in the second section of this act, for paying the expenses for publishing quarterly returns.

§ 4. All individual bankers and all banking associations, which are now or shall be hereafter engaged in the business of banking, under the provisions of the act entitled "An act to authorize the business of banking," shall be subject to taxation on the full amount of capital actually paid in, or secured to be paid in, as such capital by them severally, at the actual market value of such securities, to be estimated by the Comptroller, without any reduction for the debts of such individual banker, or banking association; but in no case shall the capital of any such banking association, or individual banker, be estimated at a less sum than the amount of circulating notes delivered to such banking association, or individual banker, and not returned to the Comptroller; and, in case the capital of such banking association has been reduced by the surrender of any securities to the stockholders thereof, and the certificates of stock held on account of such securities being surrendered to such banking association and cancelled, such banking association shall not be subject to taxation upon such part of its capital.

§ 5. Nothing in this act contained shall apply to any bank or banking association which has reduced its capital stock in violation of the 28th section of an act entitled "An act to authorize the business of banking," passed April 18th, 1838.

BANKS, AND BANK DIRECTORS:

WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE DRY-GOODS TRADE.

The suggestions put forth by the editors of the "DRY-GOODS REPORTER," the able advocate of that interest, in the following paragraph, are certainly worthy of consideration:

The ignorance existing among bank officers and directors, in reference to the securities offered them in the regular way, in the shape of business paper for discount, is, in our opinion, all but criminal. It is difficult to account for it. The general idea is, that banks were created to go hand in hand with the safe business of the day; to "give and take," in the daily transactions which legitimately transpire between their customers and themselves; and it is presumed that their relations, kept up with a proper knowledge and spirit, would enable the depositor to establish a sort of reciprocal intercourse, which would at times be of advantage to him. So far as dry-goods merchants go, we can see no realization of these anticipations; so far as they are concerned, we may easily account for it, by reference to the board of directors. There are, it seems, in all the banks of New York, but thirty-nine dry-goods merchants that may be considered in business, out of three hundred and forty directors. On reference to the names, it will at once be discovered that the gentlemen who compose this number, do not consider themselves charged with this peculiar interest, and are, in their associations and sympathies, as strongly connected with other interests, in various ways, as with dry-goods. We have no doubt, if called upon to keep a special eye to the particular accounts, they would render essential service; but we do not believe they particularly interest themselves in obtaining information which would serve those with whom they have no business connection, and in whom they have no special interest.

We have no hesitation in saying, that a fair representation, in our banks, of intelligent, unprejudiced dry-goods men, placed in them, with an understanding that they would at-

tend to the duties of the office they assume, would do much for the interest and welfare of the institutions, as well as the great body of dry-goods merchants, who are now, and ever have been, cast aside in all the facilities bestowed by our banks.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The following statement exhibits the condition of one hundred and nine banks in Massachusetts near the close of 1847:—

DUE FROM BANKS.

Capital stock paid in.....	\$32,113,150 00
Bills in circulation of five dollars and upwards.....	14,719,422 00
“ “ less than five dollars.....	2,476,940 25
Nett profits on hand.....	3,499,582 77
Balances due to other banks.....	7,263,202 08
Cash deposited, including all sums whatsoever due from banks not bearing interest, its bills in circulation, profits and balances due to other banks excepted.....	10,265,555 13
Cash deposited bearing interest.....	764,715 76
Total amount due from banks.....	71,102,647 10

RESOURCES OF THE BANKS.

Gold, silver, and other coined metals in their banking houses.....	3,943,973 58
Real estate.....	1,062,950 21
Bills of other banks incorporated in this State.....	3,030,765 20
“ “ “ elsewhere.....	232,698 24
Balances due from other banks.....	5,571,240 79
Amount of all debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, and all stocks and funded debts, except balances due from other banks.....	57,260,938 97
Total amount of resources of the banks.....	71,102,567 99
Amount of dividends since the last annual returns, viz: In April, 1847	1,059,345 00
“ reserved profits at the time of declaring the last dividend.	2,035,108 93
“ debts due each bank, secured by pledge of its stock.....	730,613 56
“ “ and unpaid, and considered doubtful.....	213,605 59
Average dividends of banks in Boston, in April last, a fraction less than 3 44-100 per cent.	
“ “ “ out of Boston, in April last, a fraction over 3 32-100 “	
“ “ all the banks, in April last, a fraction less than 3 39-100 “	

DISCOVERY OF A GOLD MINE IN MICHIGAN.

A gold mine has just been found near Tecumseh, Michigan. A correspondent of the *Buffalo Courier* says the mine is situated in the east bank of the river, but a few feet above the water, the bank rising to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet, and so precipitously that the mine cannot be reached from above, but only by crossing the river. The gold is found principally in ore mixed, though it is said to be very rich, and many suppose it will yield 35 per cent of the pure article. A few lumps have been found, weighing from half an ounce to an ounce and a half, which has been pronounced pure. It is stated that a company has been organized to work it, Messrs. Blanchard, Hewit, and Blood, acting as directors, and that quite a gold mania has sprung up in that section of country.

COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES MINT.

It will be seen by the following passage from the President's message, that he repeats the recommendation contained in his annual message of 1846, for the establishment of a branch mint of the United States in the city of New York; a measure which we have advocated for several years, as will be seen by reference to former volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

“During the past year, the coinage at the mint and its branches has exceeded twenty millions of dollars. This has consisted chiefly in converting the coins of foreign countries into American coin.

"The largest amount of foreign coin imported has been received at New York; and if a branch mint were established at that city, all the foreign coin received at that port could at once be converted into our own coin, without the expense, risk, and delay of transporting it to the mint for that purpose; and the amount re-coined would be much larger.

"Experience has proved that foreign coin, and especially foreign gold coin, will not circulate extensively as a currency among the people. The important measure of extending our specie circulation, both of gold and silver, and of diffusing it among the people, can only be effected by converting such foreign coin into American coin."

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

QUICKSILVER MINES OF IDRIA.

THE "Harbinger," a paper devoted to the interests of the Associative Movement in this country, publishes an interesting account of an excursion from Trieste to the quicksilver mines of Idria, which the editors of that journal translate from the "Weser-Zeitung," an excellent journal, published in the city of Bremen. The account, says the Harbinger, gives a painful, though true idea of the condition of the laboring classes in the present age; the extremest instance anywhere to be found. "Even the needle-grinders of England, and the laborers in the white lead manufactories of our own country, in one of which, as we know, the established practice is to kill off an Irishman a month, are not subjected to influences so horribly destructive of life as these poor workmen in the quicksilver mines of Idria.

'Wilt thou ever rove and wander,
When all is beauty at thy home?'

We regret that we cannot find room for the entire article. From it, we learn that the entrance to the mines is in the centre of the town, hewn in the rocks, and 216 feet in length; when this is passed, you descend into the apparently bottomless abyss. The entire depth is 816 feet; there are 900 stone steps and a few hundred ladder-rounds which lead to it; 270 persons labor there by day, and by night about 100; in the whole establishment 640 workmen are employed. The total product annually is 4,000 cwt. of pure quicksilver, 1,000 of which are used in the manufacture of vermilion, an establishment of which is also in Idria. Formerly, the yield of the mines was greater, but then the price was much lower than now; the product has been decreased with the express design of raising the price to its present high rate. It is now 200 gilders—delivered free of charge in Trieste.

"The smelting is kept up during the six winter months; in the summer it is suspended, as in the warm season it produces diseases through the whole place, among both men and animals. The ore which is excavated yields from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 80 per cent of pure quicksilver. The common yield in other mines is about 20 per cent. After the pure quicksilver has been taken from the furnace, it is washed, poured into bottles of double sheepskin, containing usually forty-one pounds each, and two such bottles are put in one wicker flask.

"The wages of the laborers are divided into three classes, and amount to from 8 to 17 *kreuzer* (4 to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents) a day. Besides this, what vegetables and grain they want are supplied to them at a moderate fixed price, which, in years of scarcity, offers an advantage. The third class, at 8 *kreuzer*, is the most numerous; and the first, at 17, the least so, as it contains only one hundred laborers.

"During the time of smelting, the furnaces are cleansed twice a week. It takes a single workman a whole night to clean one furnace, and for this he receives four to five gilders, (\$2 00 to \$2 50). From this high pay, in comparison with the 8 to 17 *kreuzer*, for eight hours' labor in the shafts, we can judge the nature of the work and its consequences.

"To marry, is only permitted to laborers of the first class, a permission which is almost

always made use of. The brides usually bring with them a bit of land, and a few cows, as dowry, which contributes to the support of the family, as the 17 *kreuzer* alone are of course not sufficient. They live chiefly on a milk diet, as this is both the cheapest and most wholesome against the influence of the quicksilver. The emaciation of the father does not seem to be inherited by the children; at least I saw among them no very ill-looking ones. The women have also a very healthy appearance, being quite handsome. But the workmen, on the other hand, all look very ill, and can be told from other men at the first glance. Their cheeks are all fallen in, their complexion sickly and yellow, and sometimes a yellow-green—their gate tottering—and their hands tremble; from this they never recover.”

METAL PLATE FOR SHEATHING SHIPS.

PATENT GRANTED TO GEORGE FREDERICK MUNTZ, ESQ., M. P., FOR AN IMPROVED MANUFACTURE OF METAL PLATES FOR SHEATHING THE BOTTOMS OF SHIPS OR OTHER VESSELS.

This invention relates to the sheathing metal described in the specification of a patent granted to the present patentee, October 22, 1832, which metal is composed of copper and zinc, in such proportions, that, whilst the copper is to a considerable extent preserved, sufficient oxidation is produced, by the action of the sea-water on the metal, to keep the ship's bottom clean; 60 parts of copper are used in this mixture to 40 parts of zinc; and it has been found that this proportion of copper could not be reduced without exposing the alloy to injury, from the zinc being separately acted on. The present improvements consist in combining a suitable metal or metals with the copper and zinc, so that the mixture may contain a less proportion of copper than that above named; and at the same time a sufficient degree of oxidation may be produced, and a separate action on the zinc prevented.

The patentee describes an alloy of copper and zinc with another metal, which he has found to possess the same power of oxidation as the metal described in his former specification, and yet with an important reduction in the quantity of copper employed, and consequently in the cost of producing the metal. The alloy consists of 56 parts copper, 40 $\frac{3}{4}$ parts of zinc, and 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ of lead; and, in making the alloy, the patentee uses an additional quantity of zinc, on account of the loss of that material which occurs during the operation, so as to obtain an alloy containing the different metals in the above proportions. The lead is said to act a very important part in the alloy, as, without it, the combination of 56 parts of copper with 40 $\frac{3}{4}$ of zinc, would not produce an alloy which would oxidize sufficiently to keep the ship's bottom clean. The alloy, after being cast into ingots, is rolled into sheets (by preference, at a red heat,) which are then to be annealed; and, if desired, the sheets may be cleaned with a mixture of sulphuric and nitric acids, properly diluted.

The patentee does not confine himself strictly to the above proportions, for the quantity of copper may be increased (which will, however, increase the cost of the sheathing metal,) or it may be decreased to a slight extent; but it must not be reduced to 50 per cent of the alloy produced. Although lead is mentioned in the above description, any other suitable metal may be used in place of it, but not with equal advantage.

MANUFACTURE OF WHISKEY FROM CORN IN OHIO.

The Courier, of Batavia, has an interesting article in relation to the amount of flour and whiskey made in Clermont county, and the amount of corn and wheat consumed in their manufacture, the cost, &c. In the county, it states there are nine distilleries in active operation, consuming about *twenty-seven hundred and fifty bushels of corn per day!* The average price at which this corn was purchased, during the past year, may be set down at 25 cents per bushel. The cost of the daily consumption of corn at these distilleries would be a trifle less than six hundred dollars, or *one hundred and eighty-one thousand dollars per year!*

The whiskey manufactured at these establishments amounts to about ten thousand gallons per day, or three million gallons per year! the value of which, at 18 cents per gallon—which has been, perhaps, about the average price for a year past—would amount to the sum of five hundred and forty thousand dollars.

These establishments feed and fatten, in the course of a year, not less than thirty thousand hogs, averaging 250 pounds each, which, at four dollars per hundred, would amount to three hundred thousand dollars.

The consumption of wheat, at these establishments, is set down at about one hundred

and fifty thousand bushels per annum, making about thirty thousand barrels of flour yearly. In order to give a clearer conception of the business these immense establishments carry on, both as regards the labor performed and the money expended, a few of the leading items that enter into the account current of these nine manufactories is thus presented:—

Corn, 725,000 bushels at 25 cents.....	\$181,000
Wheat, 150,000 bushels at 75 cents.....	37,500
Hogs, 30,000, at \$3.....	90,000
Whiskey barrels, 75,000, at \$1.....	75,000
Flour barrels, 30,000, at 35 cents.....	10,000
Total.....	\$393,500
The cash realized may be set down in round numbers as follows:—	
For Whiskey.....	\$540,000
Flour.....	105,000
Pork.....	300,000
Total.....	\$945,000

It is not claimed that accuracy is arrived at in the above statement, but that it approximates the truth. The cost of hands, fuel, &c., &c., is not included above; but, allowing one-third of the product for the use of capital, land, machinery, and profit, and valuing labor at 50 cents per day, the result would show that about four thousand persons are daily employed, in some way or other, immediately and remotely, with the business created by the nine distilleries of this county.

It is worthy of remark, says the *Courier*, that with the immense quantity of liquor manufactured in Clermont county, there is not a licensed retailer of spirits within its borders.

PASSAIC MINING COMPANY.

One of the editors of the American "Mining Journal, and Railroad Gazette," recently visited the works of this company, in New Jersey, near the city of New York. This company, it appears from the Journal, are "working on the same ridge, and near the old Schuyler mines of the New Jersey company. The Passaic mine was worked to considerable extent before the Revolutionary war, and from appearances, we are led to suppose, with no inconsiderable success. The water level was driven nine hundred feet through the solid rock, and several shafts were sunk, but the prosecution of the work was abandoned on the breaking out of the war. The present company proceeded to work with an ample capital in the beginning of the month of August of the year 1847, and have, since that time, cleared out the old works, and erected the proper buildings and machinery for mining. The steam-engine is of the kind called the "beam-engine," of forty horse-power, with flue boilers, and works cast iron lifting-pumps nine inches in diameter. The building enclosing the works, is sixty feet square, and there is also a blacksmith-shop, office, etc., on the ground, the whole being surrounded by a fence-wall twelve feet in height. The main shaft is heavily timbered with white oak, both for frame-work and planking. The indications below, so far as we were enabled to judge, are of a very satisfactory character; much ore, containing a low per centage of copper, having been left by the former miners after it had been raised. The gentlemen interested in this mine, are making large outlays, with evident good management, and a thorough knowledge of the business in which they are engaged."

NEW LOOM FOR THE MANUFACTURE OF COTTON.

Mr. Edward Norfolk, of Salem, Mass., has invented a loom, simple in its mechanism, noiseless in its operation, and capable, he says, of causing a saving of 15 per cent in the manufacture of cotton. The motion of the shuttle is derived directly from the lathe with a positive accelerated motion, and moves, therefore, directly at the speed of the lathe without noise. A girl can tend six of these lathes as easily as four of the common movement.

GRYLL'S STATISTICS OF COPPER ORES.

The following statement of copper ores sold from each mine, British and Foreign, is derived from Gryll's Annual Mining Sheet, from June 30th, 1846, to June 30th, 1847:—

MINES, &c.	Amount			Price per 21 cwt.
	Ore from each mine. 21 cwt.	in money. £ s. d.		
Agar, Wheal.....	202	974 19 6		4 16 6
Alfred Consols.....	791	3,709 11 0		4 14 0
Andrew, Wheal, and Nanjiles.....	388	2,046 15 0		5 5 6
Anna, Wheal.....	48	90 2 0		1 17 6
Barrier.....	554	2,579 15 0		4 13 0
Bedford United Mines.....	1,244	7,597 0 0		6 2 0
Botallack.....	181	1,059 7 6		5 17 0
Brewer, Wheal.....	379	972 12 0		2 11 6
Buckets, Wheal.....	672	3,254 9 0		4 10 0
Buller, Wheal.....	185	580 13 6		3 2 6
Busy, Wheal.....	152	441 4 0		2 18 6
Camborne Vean.....	3,330	16,908 5 6		5 1 6
Carn Brea Mines.....	8,465	52,809 8 6		6 5 0
Carn Perran.....	174	776 7 0		4 9 0
Charlestown United Mines.....	184	3,462 10 6	18 16 6	
Clifford, Wheal.....	277	1,370 19 6		4 19 0
Comfort, Wheal.....	759	2,821 11 0		3 14 6
Condurrow.....	990	3,864 17 6		3 18 0
Consolidated Mines.....	9,659	58,276 17 0		6 0 6
Cook's Kitchen.....	87	240 1 0		2 15 0
Copper House Slag.....	158	306 18 0		1 19 0
Creeg Braws.....	1,033	4,984 18 0		4 16 6
Dolcoath.....	1,990	9,777 2 6		4 18 6
East Wheal Crofty.....	3,674	21,153 12 6		5 15 0
East Pool.....	560	2,234 11 0		4 0 0
East Relistian.....	51	291 11 6		5 14 0
East Seton.....	162	951 6 6		5 17 6
Ellen, Wheal.....	643	3,862 4 6		6 0 0
Fowey Consols.....	6,510	33,693 2 0		5 3 6
Friendship, Wheal.....	2,576	20,435 8 6		7 18 6
Godolphin.....	332	1,353 4 0		4 1 6
Gorland, Wheal.....	56	284 2 0		5 1 6
Grambler and St. Aubyn.....	1,310	6,929 0 0		5 6 0
Hallenbeagle.....	392	1,261 8 6		3 4 6
Hanson Mines.....	245	1,165 2 6		4 15 0
Harriet, Wheal.....	774	3,162 12 0		4 1 6
Harvey's Ore.....	142	230 11 0		1 12 6
Holmbush.....	1,125	6,972 11 6		6 4 0
Jane, Wheal.....	75	216 3 0		2 17 6
Jewell, Wheal.....	810	3,934 9 6		4 17 0
Kayle, Wheal.....	157	909 0 0		5 16 0
Lanivet Consols.....	1,094	5,718 5 6		5 5 6
Levant.....	1,013	7,849 9 6		7 15 0
Maiden, Wheal.....	297	1,284 8 6		4 6 6
Maria, Fanny, and Josiah, Wls.....	14,195	90,224 10 6		6 7 0
Mark Valley.....	680	2,272 16 0		3 7 0
North Wheal Basset.....	432	2,125 6 6		4 18 6
North Downs.....	314	1,871 12 0		5 19 0
North Pool.....	961	4,336 15 0		4 10 6
North Roskear.....	5,552	32,488 9 6		5 17 0
Par Consols.....	5,489	34,523 9 0		6 6 0
Penstruthal.....	44	325 19 6		7 8 0
Perran St. George.....	1,897	8,601 12 0		4 10 6
Poldice.....	1,996	8,414 11 0		4 4 6
Prosper and Friendship, Wls.....	3,037	14,697 2 0		4 17 0

TABLE—CONTINUED.

Providence Mines.....	162	480	9	0	2	19	6
Redruth Consols.....	109	670	3	6	6	3	0
Rodney, Wheal.....	707	2,902	14	0	4	2	0
Ruby, Wheal.....	101	844	15	0	8	7	0
Seton, Wheal.....	5,183	33,544	8	6	6	9	6
Sisters, Wheal.....	1,088	7,119	10	6	6	11	0
South Wheal Basset.....	2,137	10,905	19	6	5	2	0
South Caradon.....	4,282	27,890	2	6	6	10	6
South Wheal Francis.....	1,689	20,121	5	0	11	18	6
South Roskear.....	996	5,357	7	6	5	7	6
South Tolgus.....	106	578	19	0	5	9	0
South Towan.....	715	2,840	14	0	3	19	6
St. Agnes Consols.....	473	1,289	18	6	2	14	6
St. Andrew, Wheal.....	37	28	13	6	0	15	6
Sundry small mines.....	750	4,077	8	6	5	8	6
Tincroft.....	5,096	22,522	15	6	4	8	6
Ting Tang Consols.....	511	2,123	16	0	4	3	0
Treleigh Consols.....	2,443	15,886	19	0	6	10	0
Tremayne, Wheal.....	968	5,243	15	6	5	8	6
Trenow Consols.....	985	5,757	16	6	5	17	0
Trenwith, Wheal.....	49	309	1	0	6	6	0
Tresavean.....	5,178	21,493	13	0	4	3	0
Trethellan.....	1,334	4,525	19	0	3	8	0
Treuil.....	607	2,533	10	6	4	3	6
Treviskey.....	1,569	11,887	3	0	7	11	6
United Hills.....	3,497	14,578	15	6	4	3	6
United Mines.....	11,696	57,062	11	0	4	17	6
Virgin, Wheal.....	954	4,813	12	6	5	1	0
Vyvyan, Wheal.....	268	950	10	6	3	11	0
Wellington Mines.....	91	608	18	0	6	14	0
West Basset.....	51	282	8	6	5	10	6
West Caradon.....	4,250	30,206	0	0	7	2	0
West Fowey Consols.....	174	854	7	0	4	18	0
West Wheal Jewell.....	1,143	4,369	3	0	3	16	6
West Wheal Treasury.....	398	2,048	5	6	5	3	0
West Trethellan.....	321	1,054	12	6	3	5	6
Williams's East Downs.....	59	292	16	0	4	19	6

WALES.

Australia.....	256	4,231	17	6	16	10	6
Ballymurtagh.....	2,012	6,290	9	0	3	2	6
Beerhaven.....	6,025	44,939	9	6	7	9	0
Burra Burra.....	2,900	53,044	14	0	18	6	0
Chili.....	6,800	170,074	8	6	25	0	0
Cobre.....	13,731	163,853	6	0	11	18	6
Copiapu.....	838	17,935	10	6	21	8	0
Cuba.....	6,044	71,356	18	0	11	16	0
Cronebane.....	1,383	6,170	17	6	4	9	0
Holyford.....	298	6,130	18	0	20	11	6
Kanmantoo.....	295	4,338	19	6	14	14	0
Kapunda.....	1,395	27,674	17	6	19	17	0
Kaw-aw.....	176	1,718	15	0	9	15	6
Knockmahon.....	4,635	29,402	9	0	6	7	0
Lackamore.....	84	774	4	6	9	4	6
Llandidno.....	434	2,378	19	6	5	9	6
Montacute.....	265	4,605	19	6	17	7	6
New Zealand.....	137	1,633	9	0	11	18	6
Pennsylvania.....	305	2,670	3	6	8	15	0
Recompensa.....	407	1,596	13	0	3	18	6
Santiago.....	3,336	48,305	14	0	14	9	6
Sundry small mines.....	901	5,300	3	6	5	17	6
Tigrony.....	324	1,183	8	6	3	13	0
Victoria.....	303	457	5	0	1	10	0

BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN MINING COMPANY.

The silver mine of the British North American Mining Company, known as Colonel Prince's Location, is attracting considerable notice at present, in consequence of the ascertained extent of the vein, and the exceeding richness of the ore. The "American Mining Journal" states, on what is deemed good authority, that "the vein has been distinctly traced for more than three miles on the north shore of Lake Superior, opposite Spar Island; and that the metalliferous portion is from three to five feet in width. The captain of the mine has sunk a shaft into the silver-bearing portion several feet, with increased richness of the ore as he descended; and it would really seem, from the developments already made, that the mine of this company is the richest silver mine in the world. The depth of the vein cannot, of course, be determined; but if the experience of those who have worked silver mines elsewhere can have any application to this mine, the extent of its wealth cannot well be overrated.

We have just seen a number of specimens of ore taken from this mine, which are said to be a fair average of several barrels recently forwarded to the office of the company, in Montreal. They are very rich, containing, we should judge, near 12 per cent silver. We also saw a bar of pure silver weighing about five pounds, smelted from the ore, and about forty pounds of the ore, which had been roasted and pulverized preparatory to smelting. There is a large force now at work on the mine, and it is the intention of this company to have one hundred tons of ore ready for shipment on the opening of navigation in the spring. A considerable quantity is now on its way to Montreal, where it is daily expected. The annual report of this company was published in the ninth number of the "Mining Journal."

USEFUL TABLES OF DRY MEASURES.

The following tables of dry measures, which are selected from the Prairie Farmer, are worthy attention. They will be found sufficiently correct for all practical purposes. The first table is cubic boxes, and the first column of inches and decimals of inches are the cube root (or sides of the boxes) of the cubic inches contained in each box, which is the second column of inches, &c. The second table is oblong boxes, and the first two columns of inches are the width and length of the bottom, and the third column of inches, &c., are the height of the boxes. As the inches on most measures of length are divided into eighths, &c., the decimals of inches in the tables can be reduced into 8ths, 16ths, and 100ths, if wanted. The rule for laying out boxes is thus:—Divide the cubic inches in the measure or box wanted by the area of the bottom, and the quotient will be the height. Thus for a peck, as in the table, 8, multiplied by 9, is equal to 72; 537.6, divided by 72, is equal to 7.466; 466, multiplied by 32, equals almost 15-32 of an inch, equal to 7 and 15-32 inches high, which is near enough for common use; and so of all the rest.

FIRST TABLE, OF CUBIC BOXES.

Inches.	Cubic in-
A sq. box 2.0327 eq'l to 1 gill, eq'l to	8.4
" 3.2268 " 1 pint, "	33.6
" 4.0655 " 1 quart, "	67.2
" 6.4537 " ½ peck, "	268.8
" 8.1311 " 1 peck, "	537.6
" 10.2445 " ¼ bu-h, "	1075.2
" 12.9074 " 1 " "	2150.4
" 16.262 " 2 " "	4300.8
" 18.611 " 3 " "	6451.2
" 20.480 " 4 " "	8601.6
" 22.070 " 5 " "	10752.0
" 23.454 " 6 " "	12902.4
" 24.691 " 7 " "	15052.8
" 25.8148 " 8 " "	17203.2
" 26.848 " 9 " "	19353.6
" 27.808 " 10 " "	21504.0

SECOND TABLE, OF OBLONG BOXES.

Inches.	Inches.	
A box 2 by 3 and 1.40 high, is eq'l to 1 bush.		
" 3 " 4 " 2.80		1 pint.
" 4 " 5 " 3.36		1 qrt.
" 6 " 8 " 5.60		½ pk.
" 8 " 9 " 7.466		1 pk.
" 10 " 11 " 0.747		¼ bush.
" 13 " 15 " 11.028		1 "
" 16 " 20 " 13.44		2 "
" 18 " 24 " 14.81		3 "
" 20 " 28 " 16.36		4 "
" 20 " 32 " 16.80		5 "
" 22 " 32 " 18.327		6 "
" 22 " 36 " 19.003		7 "
" 23 " 37 " 20.238		8 "
" 24 " 38 " 21.221		9 "
" 24 " 40 " 22.40		10 "

SCHNEBLY'S ROTARY STEAM-ENGINE.

This newly invented steam-engine possesses, as we learn from experienced engineers, the following advantages over the ordinary engine:—

1. The Rotary motion is original and complete, without any waste of power or possibility of interruption, like the "stopping on the centre," well known to all who work with steam.
2. This engine occupies not more than one-third the room required by the old ones.
3. It is less than half the weight of an ordinary engine of equal power—a vital consideration in steamboats, on railroads, &c.
4. It requires much less fuel—a fact of great importance, in view especially of the rapid extension and increase of Ocean Steam Navigation.
5. It costs considerably less money than any other engine of equal capacity.

This last is a circumstance quite adverse to what is usual. Generally, when a machine is invented to save labor or fuel, or to increase power, it must encounter the drawbacks of increased cost. Manufacturers and operators of machinery are weary of looking at inventions which promise to save them so many hundred dollars per year, but require an immediate outlay of thousands to effect it; but here is an invention which economizes not only in future, but first cost, giving treble power from the same weight of metal and on the same area of space, while you have less to pay for it than for any other of equal force.

IMPROVEMENTS IN THE SCREW-WINCH.

The London Mining Journal furnishes a description of this useful tool, which has just been registered by Messrs. Smith and English, of Princes-street, Leicester-square, which, while it possesses all the powers and capabilities of the old screw-handle screw-winch, can be applied in a considerably less time, is equally effective, and much more economical. The fixed jaw and handle is the same as usual, only the latter has a serrated rack on its upper surface. The moveable jaw has a corresponding rack in the upper face of the slot, and is furnished at the bottom with a pin, which makes a quarter revolution; having on one portion of its circumference a flat surface, and worked by a trigger. When this flat surface is uppermost, the jaw slides easily; but, on depressing the trigger, the cylindrical face of the pin bites against the handle, and fixes the jaw by the aid of the two racks. It works with the greatest rapidity.

COPPER MINES OF CUBA.

We learn from a late London journal, that a company is in course of formation at Madrid, with the object of working some copper mines in Cuba. It demands that it should have, during a period of forty years, the privilege of importing into Spain copper ore free of duty, and then, again, the same privilege of exporting abroad. It also demands that a duty should be imposed on all other companies exporting from Cuba. This matter had been referred by the government to the royal council, by whom it was decided, with a majority of eight votes to seven, that the privilege of free importation from Cuba should be granted, but for twenty-five years only. Senor Burgos, an influential member of the council, has also a considerable interest in the company.

AN AMERICAN CHINAWARE MANUFACTORY.

We learn from the Philadelphia Inquirer that a gentleman named Ridgway, from Staffordshire, England, has established a manufactory of china and queensware, on the Big Sandy river, in Western Virginia, within a mile and a half of the Ohio river. This manufactory is already the nucleus of a new town, which is rapidly rising around it; while further to the eastward, and especially in Tazewell, Cabell, and Logan counties, extensive settlements of farms and vineyards are also in progress. There are valuable mines of bituminous and cannel coal in the same region, with salt, iron ore, gypsum, lead, and limestone, in abundance.

METALS AND ORES OF AMERICA.

We find this brief statement of metals, etc., in a late number of the "American Mining Journal."—

At the last meeting of the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists, Dr. T. C. Jackson, the president of the society, in an essay on the subject, explained the state in which the metals and ores of America are found.

GOLD, nearly pure. The author explained the different methods of washing and separating the metals in the United States and Brazil, and that the greatest gold deposit in the world is in the eastern slope of the Oural mountains.

SILVER, in the pure or native state, is found in many places, but more generally in combination, as with copper, lead, zinc, etc. Native silver and native copper, are occasionally found in the same specimen. Such is the case with the metals as they occur in the Lake Superior copper.

NATIVE COPPER occurs in the igneous rocks, as the basalt, greenstone, amygdaloid, etc.

TIN has not yet been found in quantities which justify the attempt at working it in the United States. The only known localities are in New Hampshire.

LEAD, as an ore, is next in value to copper. It is generally found in combination with sulphur, constituting the galena, or sulphuret of lead. In the Western States, the lead is nearly a pure sulphuret, but often contains a little silver, amounting to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Five to seven pounds of silver have occasionally been obtained from a ton of lead ore.

IMPROVEMENT IN SMELTING COPPER.

It is stated in the London Mining Journal, that a patent has been obtained for a process of smelting copper ores, whether consisting of the oxides, sulphurets, or carbonates, on a principle entirely new, and by which pure merchantable copper can be produced at a cost of £5 per ton.

The trials of methods now in operation at Swansea, Dartmoor, etc., and the success which appears to have followed Mr. Bankart's experiments, render the present invention of great interest to every one at all connected with the copper trade; and we shall endeavor to give the fullest and most clear account of the process, that the materials with which we may be furnished will enable us to do.

A NEW MINERAL—SULPHATO-CHLORID OF COPPER.

Professor Connel remarks amongst some minerals which were lately put into his hands by Mr. Brooke for chemical examination, there was one which he found to consist of sulphuric acid, chlorine, copper, and a little water. Although he had not enough material to determine the proportions of the constituents, there can be no doubt that it consists of sulphate and chlorid of copper, with a little water. It occurs in small but beautiful fibrous crystals; which, according to Mr. Brooke, are hexagonal prisms, having the angles replaced, and thus belong to the rhombohedral system. Their color is a fine blue—pale when the fibres are delicate, but much deeper where they become thicker. Lustre, vitreous—translucency, considerable—locality, Cornwall. The mineral is associated with arseniate of copper. Ten specimens are at present known; one is in the British Museum.

RELATIVE WEIGHT OF METALS.

The following table comprises a list of the metals generally known, with their relative weight, as compared with that of water, which is allowed to weigh one thousand ounces per cubic foot:—

Platina.....	22,000	Silver.....	10,484	Cast iron.....	7,208
Gold.....	19,000	Copper.....	8,788	Zinc.....	7,190
Mercury.....	13,000	Brass.....	3,397	Tin.....	8,091
Lead.....	11,352	Wrought iron.....	7,778	Antimony.....	6,700

RECIPE FOR DYEING BLUE AND GREEN.

We copy the following method for dyeing blue and green from the "Southern Cultivator," which assures us that there is no imposition in the plan, and that any person following it will find it to prove entirely satisfactory. It is, moreover, a cheap and simple method:—

Take one pound of pounded logwood, boil it in a sufficient quantity of water until all the substance is out of it, then take about half a gallon of the liquor and dissolve one ounce of verdigris, and half an ounce of alum in it, boil your yarn in the logwood water one hour, stirring it and keeping it loose. Take out your yarn, mix the half gallon that contains the verdigris and alum, then put your yarn into the mixture, and boil it four hours, stirring and keeping it loose all the time, and taking it out every hour to give it air, after which dry it, then boil it in soap and water, and it is done. The above will dye six pounds of cotton yarn an elegant deep blue: after which put in as much yarn into the same liquor, and boil it three hours, stirring as above, and you will have a good pale blue, or boil hickory bark in your liquor, and you will have a beautiful green.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

POLITICS AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

We have heretofore published in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, several extracts from Mr. Parker's celebrated "Sermon of Merchants," which we have reason to believe have been well received by our readers generally. The Pulpit of to-day, should be made the medium of enforcing, freely and fearlessly, social reforms; and if the clergy expect to retain their power of doing good, or wish to secure the approbation of their own consciences, and the veneration and esteem of honest, noble-minded men, they will not timidly withhold their highest convictions of truth and duty. The time when "fig-leaved" dogmas apparently satisfied the slumbering wants of men and women, is fast passing away, and they are beginning to aspire after a higher and more practical, tangible form of godliness. The Pulpit of to-day, must take up the golden rule of the Gospel, and apply its catholic spirit and teachings to the peculiar circumstances of the times. The Statesman in the Legislative Chamber, the Merchant in his Counting-House, or on 'Change, the Mechanic in his work-shop, and the Farmer in the field, must become high priests in the consecrated Temple of social, political, and commercial reform. Were this the case, we should be glad to extend our remarks, suggested by the publication of a discourse delivered at an ordination in Newburyport, by the Rev. WILLIAM HENRY CHANNING, entitled the "Gospel of To-Day;" in which the preacher takes a broad view of the "converging tendencies of our age," rapidly, but comprehensively viewing the various forms of their development. The discourse, we understand, was listened to with intense interest; and we trust that it will find many earnest readers, as we feel quite sure that no true and generous-minded man can resist the force and influence of the pure truths and lofty eloquence which pervades its every page and paragraph. We shall be pardoned, we trust, for introducing in this place a brief extract, the most appropriate for those of our "parish" of merchants and statesmen who make legislation and political economy their study.

Liberalism is a movement so profound in its principle, so universal in its scope, that it would be profanation to compare with it the aristocratical republicanism of ancient days, or the middle ages. Its idea is the inalienable rights of man, as man; it reveres the sacredness of persons. Born in the Protestant recognition of the freedom due to individual conscience, nurtured by Christian views of duty and destiny, it has grown with the growth, and strengthened with the strength, of modern society, till its clear voice is heard everywhere, demanding that each nation shall be a congress of kings, where all members of the state are honored as sovereigns. How the conviction, that government is the embodiment of the collective wisdom of the people, has gone forth from the American and

French revolutions, to shatter and sweep away the strong-holds of privilege! Autocrats and monarchs make ready to come down from their toppling eminences, as they hear afar the earthquake tread of the rising millions. "Constitution!" "Trial by Jury!" "Free presses!" "Suffrage!" "Representation!" these are the mighty words, at whose utterance phantom-forms of old abuses fold their robes of darkness round them and prepare for flight, while young faces of hope smile out from clouds made radiant by the good time coming. The Chartist plants his Saxon foot upon the floor of the British Parliament, and the yoke of the Norman baron is broken; and, from the heaps of blood-stained ashes where she sits in chains, Poland shall yet arise, and, putting off her weeds of mourning, welcome home her scattered orphans. Very slow, but very sure, draws nearer the day of Jubilee, when every dispossessed hireling shall reclaim his birthright. The law of liberty must rule the world. But who so well as the citizen of this republic can tell the dangers and temptations of democracy? Notoriously, the strongest passion trained under our institutions, is a conceited self-love. We are a restless, jealous, aspiring, ostentatious, opinionated people. A jostling crowd, we rush to every open door of opportunity, all eager for the first chance, in honor preferring ourselves. Rude familiarity, or affected exclusiveness, is put on in place of respectful courtesy. Each measures himself on his stilted pretensions, as his fellow's equal. We choose for legislators, not the wise and upright, whom worth makes modest, but the pliant demagogue, who can most easily be bribed to serve our interests; and the fickle multitude, in its rush for emolument and party power, tramples on the sanctity of the law.

The reverent desire of sanctions for order, finds its expression in *Legitimacy*, which now, throughout Europe, props its tottering claims by the failures of this professedly free nation to fulfil its boasts. Each Sabbath-day, myriads of serfs ask benedictions on tyrants, as their "Fathers on Earth," while far away in the mines of Siberia, the exile utters his dying malediction beneath the knout; and young heads, grown white in the dungeons of Spielberg, are lifted to gaze through grates upon the sky, as the prayer is whispered, "How long! O Lord, how long!" Yet who is insensible to the truth of the doctrine, which even radicals are brought by experience to acknowledge, that government in its very essence is Divine? What right can there be in the universe, to rule, underrived from Supreme justice? Can imagination form a conception of hell so vivid as that which the infuriated recklessness of a mob actually presents? Is it not clear as the day, that true liberty is found only in obedience to law? And is there any one so dead to the noblest feelings of humanity, as not to have experienced the deep joy of loyal service? The foundations of legitimacy, in the principles of human nature and the system of Providence, are too firm ever to be shaken. In every heart there is an instinctive longing for leaders worthy of chivalric devotedness. The Divine plan of society is evidently that of honorable distinctions, not of levelling equality. And the very reason for ridding earth of the decrepit hereditary executives, and the puppet-show aristocracies of the past, is, that the time has come when God's delegated rulers—his monarchs animated by genius, his nobles entitled by goodness, step forward to take the seats of power, which shadows have too long usurped. More and more does each day make it apparent that the only true warrant of authority, is usefulness. Very strange, grotesque, even, are the symbols of the change which this most obvious, yet most forgotten, truth is working. The old trappings of rank are kept as are show-dresses in a theatre or carnival, but the wearer varies with the hour. The bankrupt patrician's blood is merged by marriage in the grandchild of the rich plebeian; and the peaceful weaver, who clothes a people with his cottons, walks in state among the armor-suits of buried knights who once set their mail-clad heels upon the necks of peasants. Meanwhile, the transfer of power goes on, from the idler to the worker, from the spendthrift to the producer. The strong hand of industry plays with the bauble of a sceptre, which a grasp would crush, because it is still a convenient token of influence; but that strong hand, in fact, guides the secretary's pen and the marshal's baton. The kings behind the thrones of the old world, are bankers; and a vote of the broker's board gives its cue to the ministerial budget. Even in this popular government, the forecast of a shrewd merchant or monopolizing manufacturer suggests the plan, which, commended by eloquence to the scheming fancy of the business world, determines at length, in legislative halls, the measures, character, fate, of the republic. In a word, who does not know, that, in the process of supplanting mock power, feigned legitimacy by real legitimacy, money is now the ruler over men?

It is the era of *Political Economy*. Thanks, however, to the rapid developments of civilization, this era is on the wane. We are in the last phasis of free competition; and joint-stock corporations begin to swallow up with rapacious maw those who have fattened upon respectable swindling, ironically designated commercial speculation. Wonderful age! when puffs and advertising pave the way to public confidence; when, by the jug-

glery of swift exchange, he who yesterday was penniless, is to-morrow a millionaire; when the bankrupt who meets but a tenth of his obligations, is admired as prudent, while the honest trader, who pays all his debts, is pitied for ruinous improvidence; when the "whole duty of man" resolves itself into the ingenious rule of keeping up appearances. But a truth, never again to be forgotten, has this age of steamboats, railroads, magnetic telegraphs, manufactories, and chemistry applied to agriculture, taught; even this—that the appropriate sphere of the politician, is the production, distribution, and expenditure of wealth. The most trusted statesman of to-day, is the man of largest, soundest, quickest business judgment. Even now, the legislative orator is chiefly valuable for his skill in explaining to popular apprehension the bearings of reports, in which hard-working committees condense the results of statistical tables, and the testimony of practical men. Is the time distant, when the dilatory and expensive system of filtering the experience of farmers, mechanics, operatives, through the meshes of legal quibbles, will resolve itself into some simpler mode of calling together in council the industrials of the land? By common consent, all civilized states are coming to acknowledge—the most civilized first—that the one problem of politics, strictly so called, is, in our day, the *Organization of Industry*. He is a superfluous legislator who cannot throw some light upon that question. And it rapidly becomes more evident, that if the theorists of the nations cannot answer the Sphinx's riddle, "Why does the poverty of the masses grow with the accumulation of riches by the few?" the people themselves will practically solve it, by a re-distribution of landed property, and a new sliding-scale of wages, graduated according to labor and skill, as well as capital; and, above all, a system of equitable commerce, whereby the mere go-between will not absorb both the worker's gains and the consumer's means, while adulterating the article of transfer. Many most pregnant lessons of wisdom has this era been teaching, to those who will listen, by its failures and frauds, monopolies and repudiations, its men made cheap, and bread made dear; its iron-limbed, fire-fed monsters, battling with the muscles and nerves of hungry human beings; its laborers underbid by each other in the market for a master; its children privileged to toil for starving parents, who seek in vain for honest employment. And among these lessons, stands this, as Alpha and Omega of social prudence, that man is more than a money-making machine, and though bound to nature by his physical frame, he is yet more bound to his race by kindly affections, and to the spiritual world by reason and conscience. Yes! the final word of Political Economy, is, that the law of "supply and demand" is a delusive guide, even a devilish incantation, unless fulfilled and interpreted by the two central laws of Humanity and of Heaven, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself;" "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and mind, and strength."

THE COMMERCIAL INSTITUTE, OF CINCINNATI.

We know of no commercial school in this country, in which mercantile law is taught as a branch of commercial education, except the institution of Messrs. Gundry and Bacon, at Cincinnati, the prospectus of which lies before us.

In the law school of Harvard University, and that of Yale College, there is a distinct Mercantile Department, or course of lectures on Commercial Law, for the benefit of those who intend to become merchants. There is certainly the same, or equal propriety, and the same utility, in introducing a legal department into a commercial school, as in teaching commercial jurisprudence in a law school.

This novel, as well as excellent feature of Messrs. Gundry and Bacon's establishment, is but one of many evidences afforded by their prospectus of their large and enlightened views of the true end and aim of mercantile education. Their entire system is comprehensive. With a thorough course in penmanship as the first requisite, (if not higher than all others, at least prior—a pre-requisite,) their plan embraces Book-keeping by Double Entry, Commercial Calculations, Commercial Correspondence, and Commercial Law. In their instructions upon commercial law, Mr. Gundry, who has charge of the department, follows, we perceive, the excellent method of Smith, in his Compendium of Commercial Law, treating the subject under the heads of the Persons, Property, Contracts, and Remedies, of the Mercantile Relation. We know of no better text-book that could be used than this excellent work, a new American edition of which, by the way, has just been

published, under the able editorship of Mr. Holcombe, of the Cincinnati Bar, and was noticed in a late number of the Merchants' Magazine.

Such are the evidences which Cincinnati is yielding us, that her zeal for the growth of intelligence among her merchants keeps pace with the growth of their material prosperity. The long list of pupils whose names are signed to a testimonial of their confidence in Messrs. Bacon and Gundry as teachers, proves at once the extent of their labors and the satisfaction they have given.

We congratulate the young men of the West upon the opportunities a commercial school like this affords them of a true preparation for the duties and privileges of the noble calling of the merchant;—a calling which, if entered upon and pursued with thorough preparation and large views, is truly useful as well as noble; but if used only as a gainful art of petty shifts and devices, is a disgrace to the man and a curse to the community.

THE DRY-GOODS CLERK.

We copy from the "DRY-GOODS REPORTER," a weekly sheet, devoted almost exclusively to that branch of trade, the following communication of an intelligent correspondent, which contains suggestions deserving the attention of merchants and clerks generally:—

No single subject connected with the dry-goods trade demands a more serious consideration than the present condition of the clerks engaged in its various branches. Upon the honesty, capacity, and exertion of the clerk, the success of the merchant greatly depends. His good or bad conduct may either make or mar our present plans or future prospects. These, we believe, are truisms which are generally admitted. It behooves us, then, as sound and discreet merchants, to do all in our power to promote his interest; and, as one step toward the attainment of so great a desideratum, we would suggest that an association of dry-goods clerks should be formed, under some appropriate name, which society should embody all the points of the present system of odd-fellowship, together with the addition of the following, viz:—

That each and every clerk, when thrown out of employment through any cause, save and excepting misconduct, should be entitled to draw a certain sum weekly, for six weeks. No qualifications should be necessary to entitle any one to membership, except honesty and morality; these two points of character should be rigidly insisted on; and the most effectual manner by which we could arrive at the first qualification, would be to require from the applicant a certificate of honesty from each and every employer he has ever lived with, and for the second, inquiry and report. Should an application be made by a person coming from any country-town or other city, let him produce a certificate from his former employer, and that employer's good standing be vouched for by the mayor or selectmen of said town or city.

All who are conversant with the trade, more especially of the large cities, are aware that the amount lost annually by the dishonesty of clerks, amounts to a very large sum. Now this dishonesty operates as seriously to the disadvantage of the honest clerk as to the employer. The tinsel and glare of a city life draws towards it not only the ambitious country-clerk, but the city is also the refuge of the distressed, and the El Dorado of the rogue. The new world is standing with outstretched arms, and wooing towards her the denizens of every clime. And we are proud to say that, among the multitude of foreigners who are thronging our marts of trade, there are many whose thorough business education is highly advantageous to us; yet, with this beneficial class, come many whose biography, correctly written, would show that "they had left their country for their country's good."

Suppose, for example, a young man is detected in pilfering from his employer in Europe—he has been heretofore a valuable clerk; his history, from youth to manhood, is identified with the success of the house whose confidence he has outraged—the feelings of that house will, notwithstanding his errors, lean towards him, and the thought that transportation would not retrieve their loss, but merely gratify their revenge, will induce them, even when unswayed by Christian principles, to exclaim, "go, and sin no more." In fact, instances are not wanting to prove that compromises have been effected in Europe with persons who were steeped to the very gills in crime, and legal proceedings quashed, on the condition that the culprit would emigrate to America. This culprit prepares himself, and goes to a friend—and no man is so degraded that he has not, at least, one friend—he tells him that he is about to leave the country, and emigrate to America; and, through the ignorance of this friend of the cause of his emigration, or under the solemn promise of entire reformation, he obtains a letter of introduction to a respectable firm on this side of the Atlantic. He comes: his

gentlemanly appearance, his perfect acquaintance with the details of the trade, as drawn, probably, from his experience in first-class houses in Europe, are strong recommendations. His letter of introduction gives him a reference, and he easily obtains a situation. And thus this man, who was an ingrain villain before he left his native land, becomes one of the dry-goods fraternity, and his superior accomplishments enable him to successfully carry out his nefarious practices.

Now, I submit it, is it not for the interest of the honest young man, (whether native or foreign born,) that the rogues of the business should be ferreted out, and driven from the trade? Would not the profession rise, in point of respectability, in consequence? Is it not the case, that a stigma is cast upon all engaged in the business by the conduct of these evil-doers? And if so, let us, by adopting some method of self-defence, draw a distinct line between them and us. The benefits of the proposed plan would be innumerable. No clerk would be subject to imposition from an employer, and he would be taken care of, when sick, from a fund that his own means had created; and a good understanding would be maintained between the clerks employed and the various stores. Thorough merchants could be employed to deliver series of lectures upon subjects connected with the business. The rogues being driven from the business, as they inevitably would be, the demand for clerks would be greater, and the pay proportionably increased.

The advantages to employers are fully equal to those offered to clerks; as, in case of such a society going into operation, the employer would be certain of having honest clerks. Recommendations, as to a man's capability, are of little account, as conversation and trial will prove this; but an all-important knowledge is requisite—which a series of years alone could prove—and that is proof that he is honest. Under the operation of the proposed plan, a young man applies for a situation: the first question put to him would be, "Are you a member, in good standing, of the Dry-Goods Association?" If the answer is yes, and he produces his certificate, the merchant is perfectly posted up as to his honesty, and the engagement is effected with perfect confidence on both sides. An obligation should be entered into by each member belonging to the association, to expose any malpractices on the part of any clerk belonging to the society. Each accused member should be suspended, but allowed a trial by his peers, and, if found guilty, expelled; and, if innocent, fully reinstated in his former good standing. All employers should be allowed to join, upon payment of such sum as may be agreed upon, but debarred from the privilege of a vote; but still their initiation fee would serve to swell the receipts of the treasury; and, by joining, the employer would be enabled at all times to judge of the truth of the statements of a person applying for employment. The jobbers and importers are interested, inasmuch as the present clerk is to be the future merchant, and in the character and standing of said clerk, they are at least interested prospectively.

CONSULAR REGULATIONS OF THE REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, Washington, Nov. 29th, 1847.

The following articles from the consular regulations of the Oriental republic of Uruguay, are published for the information of those whom they may concern, viz:

18. Captains of vessels, foreign and national, sailing from ports where consuls of the republic are established, and bound for ports of the republic, are required to have their manifest of cargo, or statement that they are in ballast, their letter of health, and roll of equipage, certified by such consul.

Under this provision will be comprehended the passports of passengers, as well as of powers of attorney, judgments, protests, certificates, and all other papers to be used judiciously.

19. Captains who contravene the provisions of the preceding article, will be subjected to the payment of the consular fees, which should have been paid at the place of their departure, and to other requisites and penalties determined by law.

PHILADELPHIA BOARD OF TRADE.

At a quarterly meeting of the members of the Board of Trade, held on the 21st of October, 1847, it was

Resolved, That the Quarterly Meetings of the Association be dispensed with; the members having the privilege of attending the stated meetings of the Board of Directors.

It was also Resolved, That the Directors of the Board be requested to take into consideration the propriety of petitioning the Legislature, at its next session, for the repeal of the law which imposes half pilotage upon vessels trading to our port; and (should they deem it expedient) adopt such measures as may be necessary in the premises.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Pictorial History of England: Being a History of the People, as well as History of the Kingdom.* Vol. III. Royal 8vo., pp. 885. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The third volume of this magnificent work has just been completed by its enterprising publishers. The present volume embraces a period of nearly one hundred years, from the accession of James I., in 1603, to the Revolution, in 1688. A prominent feature in the present work is, that it furnishes a history of the people, their manners, morals, habits, etc., as well as of the kingdom. It is, moreover, profusely illustrated with engravings illustrative of the monumental records, coins, civil and military costumes, domestic buildings, furniture and ornaments, cathedrals, and other great works of architecture, sports, and other illustrations of manners, mechanical inventions, portraits of kings and queens, and remarkable historical scenes, derived from paintings and drawings made at the periods they are designed to illustrate. This history belongs emphatically to the people, and is evidently better calculated to impart a correct knowledge of the history of England, than any work of the class yet published.

- 2.—*Outlines of General History, in the Form of Questions and Answers. Designed as the Foundation and the Review of a Course of Historical Reading.* By RICHARD GREEN PARKER, A. M., author of "Aids to English Composition." 12mo., pp. 411. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Parker, the author of this admirable manual, has enjoyed a large experience as a teacher in the city of Boston, so famed for the excellence of her public schools. Mr. Parker justly repudiates the old method of studying history as a mere exercise of the memory, and enforces its higher department, as philosophy teaching by examples. He presents the "Outlines of History" in a very abbreviated form, unencumbered with tedious details; aiming throughout at something higher than a bare recital of facts. Nations here pass before us as individuals, while individuals themselves are unnoticed, except as far as they influenced a whole nation. The amount of valuable information added in the form of notes, cannot fail of shedding light upon the general subject.

- 3.—*The Poetical Works of Oliver Goldsmith; Illustrated by Wood Engravings, from Designs of C. W. Cope, Thomas Cheswick, J. C. Horsley, R. Redgrave, and Frederick Taylor, Members of the London Etching Club. With a Biographical Memoir, and Notes on the Poems.* Edited by BOLTON CORNEY, Esq. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Goldsmith, who attempted almost every species of composition with varied success, is almost the only poet whose admirers are as universal almost as the human race. In his poems, which were the produce of his choicer hours, says one of his biographers, we have almost every variety of gratification. The *Hermit* dwells in the memory as the most finished of modern ballads; the tact, the humor, the airy elegance of *Retaliation*, must always delight the cultivated mind; while the *Traveller*, and the *Deserted Village*, which address themselves to a wider circle, and involve questions of superior moment, finely exemplify his own recorded idea of poetic excellence, and "convey the warmest thoughts in the simplest expression." What more can we, or need we say; except, perhaps, that the present edition is the most perfect and beautiful that has ever been produced on this side of the Atlantic—an admirable imitation of its English original.

- 4.—*Harpers' Illustrated Catalogue of Valuable Standard Works, in the Several Departments of General Literature.* 8vo., pp. 160. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present catalogue of the most extensive publishers in the world, will commend itself to the notice of persons desirous of forming or enriching their literary collections, as an aid in the choice of books. The collection which it comprises, covers a wide range of works, occupying every department of literature, the selection of which has been governed by a rigid critical taste; while the beauty of their typographical execution, and their exceeding cheapness, in most instances, are alike unprecedented. The catalogue is profusely illustrated with engravings from the numerous works of these enterprising publishers. We discover in the arrangement and classification of the catalogue, traces of Mr. Saunders' taste, skill, and industry—qualities which seem to grow with his growth, and strengthen with his strength.

- 5.—*Miscellanies to the Graefenberg Water-Cure; or, Demonstration of the Advantages of the Hydropathic Method of Curing Diseases as Compared with the Medical.* Translated by C. H. MEEKER, A. M., M. D., Member of the "Scientific Hydropathic Society of Germany." pp. 262. New York: Published under the direction of Drs. Peirson and Meeker, 18 and 20 Eighteenth-street.

The results of the hydropathic method of curing diseases, since its permanent establishment as a system, have been of too marked and positive a character, to be overlooked, or treated irreverently. The benefit that we have ourselves derived from this mode of treatment, has inspired us with a degree of confidence in its efficacy that we never possessed in any other system. The translator informs us, in his preface, that the author of the work passed three years among the Indians of the American wilds, in strictly observing nature, and the effects of a life of original simplicity. The present work of Rausse will be found, as says the translator, to give "a true picture of the nature of diseases, astonishing us with the sense of the reality that most of the so-called acute diseases are, in truth, a blessing rather than a misfortune, under a correct hydropathic management; detailing, in particular, and drawing a strict line of antithetical distinction between the medical and hydropathic (or water) method of treatment and cure; representing, from all recognized principles and laws of physiology, the injuriousness of the medical method, and the advantage and lasting benefit accruing from the hydropathic treatment of disease." The fact that the sale of this work was prohibited in the Austrian dominions, through the influence of the members of the medical profession, is, to our mind, pretty conclusive evidence of its excellence. It is written with remarkable clearness; divested, in a great measure, of learned technicalities, so that the statements can be readily comprehended by the unprofessional reader. It furnishes, in short, a true pathology of disease, at once philosophical and rational. We are deeply indebted to Drs. Peirson and Meeker, two of the most experienced and accomplished hydropathists in the country, for introducing so valuable a treatise to our notice.

- 6.—*Ma-Ka-Tai-Me-Kia-Kiak; or, Black Hawk, and Scenes in the West. A National Poem: In Six Cantos. Embracing an Account of the Life and Exploits of this Celebrated Chieftain; the Black Hawk War; a Legend of the Illinois Tribe of Indians, Showing the Manner in which they became Extinct; a Succinct Description of the Wisconsin and Lake Superior Countries, and their Rich Minerals; the Massacre of Chicago, and Other Deeply Interesting Scenes in the West.* By a WESTERN TOURIST. 12mo., pp. 299. New York: Edward Kearny.

The author of this poem is lame, and blind of one eye, a circumstance in his history which entitles him to our warmest sympathy; or, in other words, he is, in the Gospel acceptance of the term, our neighbor—and his efforts to obtain an honest livelihood, will, we trust, secure for his work the encouragement it deserves. The design of the work is comprehensively set forth in the title-page quoted, and in the preface. It portrays, we quote from the latter, things as they were in the early settlement of Wisconsin and Northern Illinois, when civilization first dawned upon the beautiful forests and prairies, and the cultivation of the luxuriant soil commenced; and shows this country's natural and abundant resources. Its fruitful mines of silver, lead and copper, where men dig for hidden treasure in the bowels of the earth, and become rich; together with those of the Lake Superior country, where now is the rush of those who wish to make their fortunes; the cheapness of the soil, which produces so bountifully both the necessaries and luxuries of life; the prospect of entering into business with a small capital, and the chances for speculation afforded by early and choice locations; the almost certain prospect of bettering one's condition and circumstances by a change of place, and of living in the enjoyment of health, peace and competence in another clime, are certainly matters that come home to the business and bosoms of every one. Many of the author's descriptions are quite graphic; and, in matters of history, he has taken pains to inform himself thoroughly, so that his narrative may be relied upon for its general accuracy. We shall endeavor to refer to this interesting work again; but, in the meantime, we commend it, and the author, to the generous sympathies of our readers, a class of men proverbial for their liberality.

- 7.—*Fruits of Western Life; or, Blanche, and other Poems.* By DANIEL REEVE ARNELL. 12mo., pp. 216. New York: J. C. Riker.

The far and free West is rich in the material for poetic inspiration, and we rejoice at every indication of intellectual progression from that region. The present collection of poems furnish a favorable specimen of Western genius. The poems are generally characterized by purity of sentiment, and an easy, natural, and graceful style; and, by the earnestness of tendency manifested by the author in their production, we feel quite sure that he will accomplish more for the growing literature of the West.

- 8.—*The Opal: a Pure Gift for the Holy Days.* 1848. Edited by Mrs. SARAH J. HALE. New York: J. C. Riker.

It is refreshing to take up an annual like the present, where all concerned in its production seem to have exerted their best efforts, and with a degree of success that reflects the highest credit on the artists, the contributors, the publisher, and the country. The sound judgment, pure and elevated taste, and good sense, which constitute a few of the more prominent traits of Mrs. Hale's character, were never more strikingly manifested than in the conduct of "The Opal" of 1848; and Mr. Riker acted wisely in securing these qualities for the production of a work so appropriately designated "a Pure Gift." It is truly remarked by the editor, in her brief but pertinent preface, that the plan of the Opal has, from the first, been distinct, and of a far more elevated tone than that of any other popular gift-book, either American or European. "To give a work of pure moral sentiment, united with the most elevated literary character, has been the aim. Grace in style, and refinement in the ideas, were inseparable from such a plan," in the hands of a lady "so good and so gited" as Mrs. Hale. The illustrations, nine in number, from original designs, were engraved by Sartain, an artist whose merits are too well known and too generally appreciated to require puffing. The "presentation" plate is exquisite, and the illustrated title-page is one of the sweetest things of the kind that we have ever seen. Indeed, there is not an illustration in the volume that falls below mediocrity. Mrs. Hale has contributed several poems, which are among the best that she has written. The late hour at which we received this annual, prevents us from more than naming a few of the contributors, whose productions add so much to the value and interest of this, in our view, the gift-book of the season. Among the lady writers, we notice the names of Miss Hannah F. Gould, Mrs. E. F. Ellet, Mrs. E. Oakes Smith, Mrs. Frances S. Osgood, Miss Mary Gardiner; and among the masculine, N. P. Willis, Bishop Potter, Rev. Dr. Durbin, Henry W. Longfellow, H. T. Tuckerman, T. S. Arthur, William Gilmore Simms, J. Bayard Taylor, James J. Jarvis, and many others of scarcely less celebrity. What more can we say; except, perhaps, that the present issue surpasses any of the preceding volumes.

- 9.—*Posthumous Works of the Rev. Thomas Chalmers, D. D., LL. D.* Edited by the Rev. WILLIAM HANNA, LL. D. Vol. I. 12mo., pp. 422. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The first volume of these works is entitled "Horæ Biblicæ Quotidianæ; or, Daily Scripture Readings." These were commenced by the author about six years ago, and were continued until the time of his death. A portion of the Bible was read every day, and the reflections which it suggested were immediately written in a few brief paragraphs. They comprise his first and readiest thoughts upon each verse. These "Readings" commence with Genesis, and extend to Jeremiah. The work will extend to three volumes. The present edition is printed on fine paper in elegant style, uniformly with the English edition.

- 10.—*The Philosophy of Life, and the Philosophy of Language; in a Series of Lectures.* By FREDERICK VON SCHLEGEL. Translated from the German, by the Rev. A. J. W. MORRISON, A. M. 12mo., pp. 549. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Fifteen of the lectures in this volume are designed to give, as far as possible, a full and clear exposition of the Philosophy of Life, the most interesting topic that can well engage human attention. The five opening lectures treat of the soul, first of all, as forming the centre of consciousness; and secondly, of its co-operation with mind or spirit in science—the acquisition of a right knowledge of man and nature, and of their several relations to the Divine mind. These are followed by three lectures, which treat of the laws of Divine wisdom and Providence, as discernable in outward nature, in the world of thought, and in the history of mankind; and in the last seven, the author traces the development of man's mind or spirit, both within himself and in science and public life. The ten lectures on the Philosophy of Language, more fully carry out the views advanced by Schlegel in the lectures which precede them on the Philosophy of Language, and which were delivered two years before, at Vienna.

- 11.—*The Boy's Winter Book; Descriptive of the Season, Scenery, Rural Life, and Country Amusements.* By THOMAS MILLER, author of "Beauties of the Country," "Rural Sketches," etc. With thirty-six illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers.

One of a very attractive series of books for boys, describing the peculiarities of the seasons. The illustrations are extremely beautiful, and the sketches well calculated to improve the taste, and inspire a love for the beautiful and picturesque objects of nature, manifested in the changing seasons of the year, as it moves on its glorious course.

- 12.—*The Odd-Fellow's Offering, for 1848.* Edited by JAMES L. RIDGLEY and PASCAL DONALDSON. New York: Edward Walker.

Let no one be deterred from examining this beautiful book of the season on account of its title; for it inculcates those heavenly virtues of the Order, Friendship, Love, and Truth, so mighty in their mission to man in all times and all seasons. We entered the Order, and we admire its principles; but we outgrew its forms, and therefore left it. Some of its rites are beautiful and impressive. Let them remain for such as need them; and, if necessary to perpetuate the absolute morality of the Order—the Brotherhood of Man, we should be the last to rend the veil of their Temple, or deter others from entering it—for we view it as a type of an Order to come, that shall embrace the whole human Race in the bonds of a common Brotherhood. The present is the sixth annual issue; and, in every respect, exhibits a great improvement on those that have preceded it. Its proprietorship has fallen into the hands of Mr. E. Walker, an Odd-Fellow indeed, and (we quote from the editors' preface, endorsing all that is said from personal knowledge,) a gentleman of deserved merit; who enters upon his new enterprise, lending to the work that pride, enthusiasm of character, and liberality, for which he is proverbial wherever known, and which has justly acquired for him a high rank among the tasteful and successful publishers of New York. The volume is beautifully printed, and handsomely bound; and its illustrations, twelve in number, are appropriate—the designs for, and execution of which, are by artists already distinguished in their profession.

- 13.—*A Defence of Phrenology; Containing—I. An Essay on the Nature and Value of Phrenological Evidence; II. A Vindication of Phrenology against the attack of Dr. John Augustine Smith; III. A View of Facts relied on by Phrenologists as Proof that the Cerebellum is the Seat of the Reproductive Instinct.* By A. BOARDMAN. 12mo., pp. 222. New York: Edward Kearny.

The design of this work is systematically set forth in the title-page quoted. Of the truth of the general principles of Phrenology, we entertain little or no doubt. The philosophy of it is beneficent; and the language well adapted to express and convey a definite knowledge of character. The idea, that it leads to Materialism and Atheism, is as absurd as that Geology, or any of the natural sciences, tend to that result. But this is not the place to discuss the merits of the system. Mr. Boardman has done that with ability, and in a manner that will be satisfactory to its adherents, if it do not convince the sceptical. We commend the study of Phrenology to all who would cultivate an acquaintance with the most important branch of human investigation—a knowledge of one's self; and we are persuaded that they will find Mr. Boardman's work an important aid in the matter.

- 14.—*The Gem of the Season, for 1848.* With twenty splendid illustrations. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

Of all the presentation-books for the present year, this is the most profusely illustrated of any that we have met with; and, what is more, all the embellishments have the merit of high sources and an elegant execution. Several of them, as *The Family of Cronwell*, *The Citation of Wickliffe*, and the portraits of Dr. Chalmers, Victoria, Leigh Hunt, Walter Savage Lander, &c., have an enduring historical and literary interest, not ordinarily possessed by the ephemeral annuals of the day. The engravings, however, are not confined to biography or history; but romance and sentiment find expression in such engravings as *Paul and Virginia*, *Maternal Felicity*, *The Gipsy Mother*, *The Disconsolate*, *Auld Robin Gray*, and several others. In short, it is a gift-book consecrated to kindly offices, that cannot fail of gratifying the sense of beauty, and at the same time ministering to the purest impulses of friendship, and the demands of the cultivated intellect.

- 15.—*A Practical Treatise on Healthy Skin; with Rules for the Medical and Domestic Treatment of Cutaneous Diseases.* By ERASMUS WILSON, F. R. S., Consulting Surgeon to the St. Pancras's Infirmary, etc., etc. With Notes by T. S. LAMBERT, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in Pittsfield Institute; author of a Popular Treatise on Bathing.

The present treatise has the merit of being written with great clearness, its language being adapted to the comprehension of the popular reader. The subject is one of great importance, and unusual interest. Believing, as we do, in a great measure, in the application of the "water-cure" to all manner of diseases, and more especially those of the skin, we are glad to find a celebrated practitioner of the alopatic school awarding so large a place to the principles of Pressnitz. The American editor, who has added some valuable notes, and who, in a few particulars, differs widely, and wisely, we think, from the text of the author, declares that "there is not, in the English language, a single work so valuable as this."

16.—*The Thousand and One Nights; or, The Arabian Nights' Entertainments.* Translated by EDWARD FOSTER. With an Explanatory and Historical Introduction, by G. M. BUSSEY. Carefully Revised and Corrected, with some Additional Amendments and Illustrative Notes from the Work of E. W. LANE. Illustrated with twenty large engravings from designs by DEMORAINE, and numerous smaller wood-cuts. In 3 volumes 12mo., pp. 1170. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

The standard character of these entertaining romances, and the universal popularity they have enjoyed for, we had almost said, centuries, supersedes the necessity of criticism at this time. Elegant and superbly illustrated editions have been published in England; and some very bad—and, until the present, none very good—in this country. An edition of a universal favorite, like this, has long been a desideratum; and no pains or expense seem to have been spared in its “getting up.” The translation of Mr. Foster is unquestionably the best that we have; and the explanatory and historical notes impart an additional value to the work, that we in vain look for in the badly-printed editions of former years. The engravings, typography, paper, binding, and, indeed, the entire external material of the work, are highly creditable to all concerned in its production.

17.—*Old Wine in New Bottles; or, Spare Hours of a Student in Paris.* By AUGUSTUS KINSLEY GARDINER, M. D. 12mo., pp. 332. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

This work, comprising a series of letters, written in Paris, while the author was pursuing the study of medicine, to the editor of the Newark Daily Advertiser, in which print they originally appeared, attracted very general attention at the time, and were favorably noticed by the periodical press throughout the country. The author appears quite sensible of the fact of his treading a beaten path; but he has contrived to impart a vivacity and freshness to his descriptions of social life and manners, that will charm that class of readers who are ever seeking for novelties. The over-much fastidious will, perhaps, carp at some of the Doctor's apparently faithful delineations of French morals and manners; but the “pure, to whom all things are pure,” will find nothing that need cause a blush. The letters are written in an easy, graceful style; and on the whole, Dr. G. has furnished the best delineation of the characteristics of the French people that has been published for a long time.

18.—*Rainbows for Children.* Edited by L. MARIA CHILD. With twenty-eight illustrations. New York: Charles S. Francis.

Mrs. Child expresses the wish in her preface, that these fairy stories were written by herself; but says they are not. “The author,” she adds, “merely intended them for the private amusement of a few juvenile relatives; but the manuscript accidentally met my eye, and I was so charmed with the freshness and beauty of the stories, that I begged permission to publish them. Their liveliness and simplicity, will render them great favorites with children, while more mature minds will often perceive a wise significance within the poetic beauty of the style.” We have no fear of endorsing all that Mrs. Child has said; for, in all that pertains to young humanity, or Church of Humanity, we consider her—and we say it with all due respect for the present Pope of Rome—infallible. The illustrations are faultless.

19.—*The Rural Cemeteries of America; Illustrated in a Series of Picturesque and Monumental Views, in Highly Finished Line Engraving.* By JAMES SMILLIE, Esq. With Descriptive Notices by N. CLEVELAND. New York: R. Martin.

Our readers must, ere this, have become pretty well acquainted with the character and merits of this enterprise, as we have frequently described the former numbers, and expressed our unqualified admiration as to its rare excellence, as a work of art. The ninth, now before us, contains three views from the “Mount Auburn Cemetery;” including a View from the Mount, Loring's Monument, and Central Square, with appropriate letter-press illustrations. Mr. Martin, the enterprising publisher, deserves well of our countrymen for his efforts to introduce a style of engraving and pictorial illustration in this country that will not suffer by comparison with the best similar productions of Europe. We hope he may be encouraged to go on in his noble work of illustrating the many beautiful burying-places scattered over a country so rich in rural beauty and magnificent scenery.

20.—*The Flowers Personified; or, “Les Fleurs Animées.”* By TAXILE DELFORD. Translated by N. CLEVELAND. New York: R. Martin.

The eleventh part of this exquisite work, so rich in its illustrations, and so fanciful and poetic in its representations of the floral world, is equal to any of its predecessors. Indeed, it is the most beautiful work of the kind that has ever been reproduced in the country.

- 21.—*The Sibyl; or, New Oracles from the Poets.* By CAROLINE GILMAN, author of "Recollections of a New England Housekeeper," "Recollections of a Southern Matron," "Love's Progress," "Stories and Poems for Children," "Verses of a Life-time," etc. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

It will be recollected, perhaps, that we noticed, in the pages of this Magazine, a similar work, by Mrs. Gilman, entitled "Oracles from the Poets," published in the fall of 1845. The present volume resembles very much that in design, but its execution evidently cost the compiler a vast deal more labor. The two volumes of the "Oracles" form a very complete work, where the young may become familiar with something in an attractive form from the whole range of poetry, and where the more advanced may refresh themselves with a glimpse of their old favorites, while being introduced to the minds that are rising around them. The game of Sibyl is composed of eighteen subjects, in the form of questions, which are answered from more than two hundred poets. The first division pertains more particularly to the persons and affections, the second to the tastes. It is a delightful book, elegantly printed, and beautifully bound, after the manner of the annuals.

- 22.—*The Rose: Its History, Poetry, Culture and Classification.* By S. B. PARSONS. Royal 8vo., pp. 280. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The design of the present work "has been to throw around the culture of the rose a halo of pleasant thoughts and associations." For the classical scholar, the early history of the rose, and its connection with the manners and customs of the two great nations of a former age, will impart to it no slight interest; whilst the various poetic effusions which the author has strung together in a multifarious garland, will clothe this favorite flower with additional charms, in the eyes of many, and render it more attractive with the gentler sex; to whom pre-eminently belong the culture and care of flowers. Mr. Parsons, the author, is a commercial gardener, at Flushing, near New York, and his book will be found valuable to many on that account. The work is divided into twenty-seven chapters. The eight first are devoted to the early history of the rose; fables respecting its origin; luxurious use of the rose in ceremonies and festivals, and in the adornment of burial-places; the perfumes and medical properties of it, and some general remarks. Chapter VIII., which occupies about one-quarter of the volume, embraces almost every poetical effusion in the language that refers to the rose. The remaining chapters furnish full information on all points connected with its culture, its propagation, multiplication, diseases, and classifications, etc. It is the most elaborate, and, if we mistake not, the most comprehensive work that has ever been published in this country on that subject.

- 23.—*Biographia Libraria; or, Biographical Sketches of My Life and Opinions.* By SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE. From the second London edition. Prepared for publication, in part, by the late HENRY NELSON COLERIDGE; completed and published by his Widow. 2 vols., 12mo. Wiley & Putnam's "Library of Choice Reading."

This, the latest, and to us the most interesting of all Coleridge's works, is probably the most complete edition that will ever be published; embracing, as it does, the corrections and additions of the son, and afterwards of the widow of that son—the daughter, by marriage, of the distinguished poet. Biography has ever been our favorite study and recreation; and, in our opinion, no kind of reading is more instructive—a remark that applies with increased force to auto-biography, where we can enter, as it were, into the interior life of the subject, and become familiar with the hopes, joys, sorrows and trials of the individual man, under every circumstance of his existence. There is not, in our judgment, a more valuable work in the whole catalogue of books comprised in Wiley & Putnam's "Library of Choice Reading."

- 24.—*Hebrew Tales; Selected and Translated from the Writings of Ancient Hebrew Sages. To which is prefixed an Essay on the Uninspired Literature of the Hebrews.* By HYMAN HARWITZ, author of "Vindicæ Hebraicæ," etc., etc. 12mo., pp. 171. New York: Spalding & Shepard.

This, the first of the publishers' "Select Library," consists of a series of interesting tales, anecdotes, etc., selected and translated from the writings of the ancient Hebrews, who flourished in the five first centuries after the destruction of Jerusalem—writers known to the learned by the names of the Talmud, Medrarhim, etc. Although the chief aim, and ultimate object of this publication, is moral improvement, the translator, in order to render it entertaining, has introduced several facetiæ and tales of a less grave character. The work is unsectarian, enforcing only "the religious and moral truths on which the best interests of all men, of all names and persuasions, find their common basis and fulcrum."

- 25.—*A Campaign in New Mexico, with Colonel Doniphan.* By FRANK S. EDWARDS, a Volunteer. With a Map of the Route, and a Table of the Distances Traversed. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Of all the narratives touching Mexico, and the events growing out of our difficulties with that Republic, written and published during the last eighteen months, this is the most interesting to us, from the fact that its pages are not entirely occupied with accounts of blood and carnage, and the horrors of the battle-field. Mr. Edwards has embodied, in an agreeable form, his observations during part of a campaign with "the Xenophon of the nineteenth century;" and given us many interesting incidents, besides a fund of information connected with the habits, manners and customs of the people of New Mexico. The work is written in a chaste and scholarly, but unostentatious style; and is doubtless a faithful narrative of the circumstances and events of the campaign. It deserves, and we trust it will find a wider circle of readers, than the many catch-penny glorification "histories" of the events, and of the "heroes" engaged in this anti-Republican, anti-Christian war.

- 26.—*The Drama in Pockerville; The Bench and Bar of Jurytown, and other Stories.* By "EVERPOINT," (J. M. FIELD, Esq., of the St. Louis Reveille.) With eight illustrations, from Original Designs, engraved expressly for this work, by F. O. C. DARLEY. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart's Library of Humorous American Works.

We shall be pardoned for saying, in the outset, that the plan of this series of works is not of the most elevated character; nevertheless, in the hands of a true humorist, like Mr. Field, it may be made the instrument of "shooting folly as it flies," and in that way become a teacher when only amusement appears on its surface. Hydropathia and Carey & Hart's Humorous American Works will, we venture to affirm, effectually cure hypochondria in man and hysteria in woman. The illustrations by Darley are capital.

- 27.—*Tales for the Rich and Poor.* By T. S. ARTHUR. 18mo. New York: Baker & Scribner.

The design of these tales will readily be inferred from the general title of the series, as well as from the titles given to the volumes already published, viz: "Rising in the World," "Keeping up Appearances," and "Riches have Wings." The author is a close observer of *society*, as it exists in our own country, and seems to have studied *human nature* from the every-day walks of life; and, in the form of fiction, he draws faithful narratives of the former, as well as truthful delineations of the secret springs of the latter. The teaching of such books, is of the most salutary kind; and the universality of the lessons, in a form so generally interesting, cannot fail of securing for the author a wider "parish" of attentive listeners than that enjoyed by any of the numerous sects in religion, or different schools of philosophy.

- 28.—*Miscellanies; Embracing Reviews, Essays, and Addresses.* By the late THOMAS CHALMERS, D. D., and LL. D. 8vo., pp. 544. New York: Robert Carter.

The present work consists of reviews, essays, and a few occasional discourses, pertaining to matters in morals, religion, political economy, and philosophy, collected and published since the author's demise. Chalmers sustained about the same position—the highest—in the Presbyterian, that our Channing did in a widely diverging denomination of the Christian church. Both have exerted a powerful influence in the church, and in the great philanthropic movements which so strongly mark the present century. The volume before us will necessarily secure a standard character, like everything from the giant intellect of the author; who, whilst he has added another to the catalogue of the world's great men, has gone up another and a majestic on-looker to the "cloud of witnesses."

- 29.—*Evangeline; a Tale of Acadie.* By HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW. 12mo., pp. 163. Boston: William D. Ticknor & Co.

We are so much indebted to Longfellow for his noble "Psalm of Life," two or three verses of which are scarcely ever out of our mind, that we should be very loth, were we competent, to criticise "anything from his pen." The metre is not, however, agreeable to our taste, which is no disparagement to the poet, as our taste is not very classical or good. Nevertheless, we took up "Evangeline," and did not lay it down until we came to "the end," on page 163; and we hope that the playful humor, genial pathos, and graphic descriptions with which it abounds, will afford others the same pleasure that we have derived from the perusal of this beautiful production.

- 30.—*Facts and Fancies for School-Day Reading; A Sequel to "Morals and Manners."* By Miss SEDGWICK, author of "Home," "Poor Rich Man," etc. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.

Sixteen short tales, aptly illustrating some moral virtue, or social duty, in the happy manner of this deservedly popular writer.

- 31.—*The Crown of Thorns; a Token for the Sorrowing.* By EDWIN H. CHAPIN. Boston: A. Tompkins.

This pretty miniature volume contains six essays of a consolatory character, in which the author sets forth, in his own peculiar and beautiful style, the Christian view of sorrow, and the Christian consolation in loneliness. There are also essays on resignation; a discourse on "The Mission of Little Children," written by the author just after the death of a dear son. "Upon its pages," its amiable author "has poured out some of the sentiments of his own heartfelt experience, knowing that they will find a response in the heart of the sorrowing, and hoping that the book may do a work of consolation and of healing."

- 32.—*Memoir of the Rev. Charles F. Torrey, who Died in the Penitentiary of Maryland, where he was Confined for Showing Mercy to the Poor.* By J. C. LOVEJOY. 12mo., pp. 364. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

The circumstances connected with the melancholy fate of poor Torrey, are familiar to most of our readers. His imprisonment and sufferings were at the time, recently, matters of public notoriety. The present volume not only records these events, but furnishes a clear and succinct account of his early life, bringing it down to the period of his death. The volume, moreover, embodies the more interesting portions of his correspondence, particularly the letters that passed between him and his friends, while in prison. We see, by a note appended to the title-page, that the copyright has been secured to Mrs. Torrey, who was left in destitute circumstances.

- 33.—*The Rose, or Affection's Gift, for 1848.* Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. With ten elegant steel engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

Although this "rose" blossoms at the close of the year, without the usual puffing of larger and more pretending volumes, it is really one of unusual excellence and beauty—the literary matter proceeding, as it does, from some of the ablest pens of the present literary era, and the spirited embellishments being executed by some of the best artists and engravers in the world. The tales and sketches comprised in this volume, are various in character, including the romantic, the pathetic, the humorous, and the didactic; while the poetry—lyric, moral, and heroic—is not less various.

- 34.—*Horæ Liturgicæ.* 12mo., pp. 204. New York: Stanford & Swords.

This work is divided into two parts. The first, embracing a series of letters from Richard Mant, D. D., Lord Bishop of Down and Connor, points out the extent, evil, and remedy for liturgical discrepancy. The second part embraces the obligations, means, and security against error, whether "popish or puritanical," by the same eminent prelate. The Rev. W. D. Wilson, a divine of the Episcopal Church, in the United States, has added a number of notes, and made some additions, the better to adapt it to the case of the American church.

- 35.—*Chambers' Miscellany of Useful and Entertaining Knowledge.* Edited by WILLIAM CHAMBERS. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln. New York: Berford & Co.

This publication, the ninth part of which has been published, is to be completed in thirty numbers, forming ten volumes, of over five hundred pages each. We venture to say, that no work heretofore published embodies so much reading, so well adapted to the tastes and occupations of "the million," as the five thousand pages of Chambers' Miscellany. It embraces much that will interest the most intellectual student, and instruct the humblest mechanic or laborer in the land.

- 36.—*The Fortunes of Col. Torlogh O'Brien. A Tale of the Wars of King James.* With illustrations by "PHIZ." Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

We have not, as the staid conductor of a commercial magazine, found time to read the fortunes of O'Brien, except through the humorous illustrations of the inimitable "Phiz," from which one can almost read the story.

FOREIGN IMMIGRATION.—We have had the pleasure of examining the proof-sheets of a forthcoming work with the above title, prepared by JESSE CHICKERING, M. D., author of "A Statistical View of the Population of Massachusetts," who has heretofore contributed several valuable papers on the banks of that State, etc., to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, which were extracted from our Journal by John McGregor, M. P., as Secretary of the British Board of Trade, in his parliamentary document on the United States, and published by command of Her Britannic Majesty. The subject is one of deep interest to this country, and Dr. Chickering has treated it with great ability. The tabular statements of this eminent statistician, illustrative of his positions, compiled with great care and labor, furnish a vast amount of statistical data, pertaining to the subject of immigration, of great value for present and future reference. On that subject, indeed, we consider it a complete text-book for the statesman and political economist.