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## CONTENTS OF NO. I., VOL. XXVII.

### ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE.
I. ERICSSON'S CALORIC ENGINE.....	19
II. COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA. By J. P. BROWN, Esq., of the Legation of the United States at Constantinople.....	28
III. THE DIVINE USE OF COMMERCE. By REV. E. L. MAGOON, of New York.....	33
IV. COFFEE: AND THE COFFEE TRADE.....	39
V. RAILROADS OF THE GREAT VALLEY. By J. W. SCOTT, Esq., of Ohio.....	44
VI. PROTECTION vs. FREE TRADE. THE LAW OF PROGRESS IN THE RELATIONS OF CAPITAL AND LABOR. By RICHARD SULLEY, of New York.....	51
VII. OF THE COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES. By ROBERT HARE, M. D., Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania.....	64

### JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

Points decided in English Courts.—Carriers—Liability of railway companies, &c.....	67
Destruction of goods by blowing them up.—Constitutionality of the pilotage law of Pennsylvania	68
Loss of a baggage check by a passenger does not relieve a railroad company from liability.....	75
Action for breach of contract to deliver part of a cargo of gum.....	76
Suit for collision.....	77
Damages for injuries received in railroad cars.....	78
Action to recover merchandise wrongfully detained.—Promissory notes—Indorsers.....	79
Common carriers—Bill of lading.—Liabilities of husbands for debts of their wives.....	80

### COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW:

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

Abundance of capital and general prosperity—Sale of railroad bonds—Effect of the increased production of the precious metals upon the commercial value of other commodities—Prices of produce in the past have not been dependent upon the supply of coin—Illustrations of this statement by comparative tables—Explanation of the cause of such fluctuations—The true source of national prosperity—Free trade and protection—Profitable employment for the people the object of both parties—Movements in foreign exchange—Shipments of specie—Deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints—Imports into the United States—Imports entered at New York for May, and comparative total from January 1st for three years—Stock in warehouse—Imports of dry goods for same periods—Receipts for duties—Exports from New York for May and from January 1st—Exports of produce—Causes of fluctuations in shipments—Disbursement of July dividends and interest..... 81-86

VOL. XXVII—NO.

2

## JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

	PAGE
Fluctuations of stocks in the Boston market.....	87
Of the increased and increasing supplies of gold.....	88
Production of the precious metals from 1492 to 1852.....	91
Capital and dividends of banks in New York.....	92
Condition of the banks of South Carolina.....	93
Statistics of the United States Post Office.....	94
Cost of transportation and postages collected in United States.....	95
Revenues of the German Customs Union in 1851.....	97
Capital and dividends of banks in Philadelphia.—The Pennsylvania loan bill.....	98
Cost of legislation in Massachusetts in 1851-52.....	100
Receipts of bullion at Panama, on English account.—Sale of Indiana Central Railway bonds.....	101
Identity of indorsers.—The small note currency.....	102
Demand for money.—Finances of Connecticut.....	103
Adulteration of coins in Paris.—Of bonds issued by railroad corporations in Maine.....	104
Rich men in Massachusetts.—The merchant that kept two bank accounts.....	104

### COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

Foreign commerce of ports in the U. States compared.—Importation of eggs into Great Britain.....	105
Statistics of the bank and cod fishery of Massachusetts.....	105
Imports of iron into New York in 1851.....	107
The cheese trade of the United States.....	108
Commerce of Sweden in 1850.....	109
Marine disasters of the northern lakes.—Timber trade of Quebec.....	110
Statistics of commerce of Sweden from 1836 to 1851.....	111
Navigation of the United States and United Kingdom compared.....	111

### RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

Commerce of the New York canals from 1849 to 1852.....	112
Galena and Chicago Union Railroad.—Tolls, trade, and tonnage of the canals.....	115
The philosophical railroad engineer.....	115
Maine law concerning railroads.—A profitable railroad in Geo.—The first American locomotive.....	116
Hamilton, Eaton, and Richmond Railroad.—The right of way over land belonging to the State.....	117
Validity of a patent for improvement in cars.—Profitable railroad stocks.....	117

### COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

Commercial treaty between the United States and Costa Rica.....	118
Reciprocal trade between U. S. and Hawaiian islands.—Relief of sick and disabled seamen.....	121
Commercial treaty between France and Sardinia.—Act to regulate the sale of oats in Maine.....	122
The law of Maryland regulating pilotage.....	123
Reduction of anchorage duties by Brazil.—Act to regulate the sale of cotton in Alabama.....	124
British commercial and navigation treaties.....	125

### NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Of light vessels as a guide to mariners.—Fixed light in the Strait of Sunda.....	125
Revolving light on south point of Barbados.—The southern coast of Florida.....	126
Electricity applied to the capture of the whale.—Seamen's wages at San Francisco.....	127
The Differences of longitude of Savannah.....	128

### STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

Deaf, dumb, blind, insane, &c., population of the United States.....	128
Population of France from 1801 to 1851.—Statistics of British Emigrant vessels.....	129
Statistics of the population of Hungary.—Circulation of the London press.....	130

### JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

Copper mining of Lake Superior.....	131
Cotton planters should become cotton spinners.....	131
The Australian gold mines.....	132
Comparative cost of mining in Cornwall and Lake Superior.....	132
The coal trade of Pennsylvania.....	133
American Bohemian glass.....	133
Discovery of gold at Queen Charlotte's islands.....	134
The North-west copper Mining Company.....	134
Gold mines in Van Dieman's Land.....	135
Liquid leather.....	135
The value of an acre of coal land.....	136

### MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

An old merchant's advice.....	136
Smuggling in Spain.....	137
Landing a steamboat passenger.....	138
A self-winding, or perpetual clock.....	138
Business of Dubuque in 1851.....	138
Of the coasting trade between New York and Virginia.....	138

### THE BOOK TRADE.

Notices of 38 new Books, or new Editions.....	139-144
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HUNT'S  
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JULY, 1852.

Art. I.—ERICSSON'S CALORIC ENGINE.

ONE hundred and twenty years before the Christian era, a wheel, driven by a jet of steam, revolved in the Egyptian capital. More than nineteen centuries succeeded, marking their deep furrows upon the broad face of creation, before this whirling toy ripened into the mighty Steam Engine, now so familiar to our race. During this vast period of time, sixty generations of men were born, and lived, and garnered for eternity. Of all the millions composing these generations, no man had appeared ingenious enough to drive pistons to and fro with that vapor, which had turned the playful wheel in Alexandria. That which now seems to have been its obvious application, nearly two thousand years were consumed in finding out. It required but a cylinder, a piston to move within it, grasping a crank, and with but few and simple contrivances beyond, the steam-engine was complete. That power which had created a rotary motion, could produce a reciprocating motion. To establish this neither experiment nor scientific learning was necessary; and if these had been required, both could have been abundantly supplied. Great geniuses had appeared, and scattered their rich gifts among men, and had passed away; failing to accomplish that which Watt finally completed. Human skill had multiplied luxuries, human invention had created innumerable comforts; but still mankind were as destitute of a Motive Power as when the Israelites journeyed from Egypt. At the end of the eighteenth century this power appeared. At length it assumed a form which enabled it to drag heavy burdens upon land and sea; and then, as the grim monster blew its hot breath from its iron lungs, the globe seemed contracted to half its former size.

In strength it was mightier than any moving thing, and in speed it rivaled the birds of heaven. It has become the strong carrier and the fleet

racer. Glowing fires are its food, and its sinews hot vapor. Its unearthly shriek troubles the air, and its rolling tramp shakes the earth. It impels huge ships over wide seas; defying the hurricane and mastering the storm. It digs the ore, blows the furnace, wields the heavy hammer, and turns the spindle. It toils in the workshop; it toils in mid ocean, and it toils as it bounds along upon its iron track, unchecked by its ponderous train. It has traversed mighty waters, walked upon dark and troubled seas, darted through tunneled mountains, and coursed along western wilds.

Its years have been few. The nineteenth century dawned upon its early infancy, and the first half of that century closed upon its gigantic manhood. In this short period of time, it has stamped new and everlasting characters upon the history of mankind. It has accomplished a grand, and we believe its final destiny. We think its end is at hand, its mission nearly over. If it has been a useful slave, it has also been a costly and dangerous one.

To prevent this danger, the most watchful care, the profoundest skill, have proved unavailing. If the slaughter of our race, caused by its bursting boilers could be presented to view, humanity would stand appalled. Its course has been marked and its onward track strewn with mangled bodies. Of this the press, day by day, tells an awful story.

It is time that this fierce and expensive, though mighty bond-servant, should be replaced by one equally powerful, cheaper, and less dangerous. The age is ripe for this change. The experience of the last few years has determined that steam cannot be profitably used, for commercial purposes, upon the ocean. For a voyage of three thousand miles, a large portion of the freighting capacity of the ship is required for coals alone. These, with the engine and huge boilers, occupy a part at least of that space, which should be filled with merchandise. The expense of the coal consumed is enormous; but this could be borne if it occupied less room. In proportion as the voyage is extended, does steam, as a motive power, become more expensive; until finally, the entire ship would be insufficient to contain the fuel necessary to feed the engine. A steamer of the Collins line consumes, we are informed, about one thousand tons of coal for a voyage of three thousand miles. Double this distance, and although the cost of the coal is but doubled, nearly the entire freighting room of the steamer is absorbed by it, and her power to earn freight is gone. Still increase this distance, with no means to supply fuel upon the route, and steam machinery becomes worse than useless. The broad Pacific cannot be traversed by it. Its rich commerce invites the merchant ship, and rewards the navigator, but the steamer must hug its shores, and cannot profitably explore its ample bosom. It is the mission of man to hold the earth and its waters in subjection by machinery. By machinery he is destined to lighten the drudgery which at the dawn of creation fell upon his race. To accomplish this he has been endowed with genius and inventive power; and where the force of a thousand giants would be fruitless, these triumphantly prevail. They gave to the world steam as a motive power. It has proved inadequate to the wants of men, destructive to human life, and more costly than the interests of commerce can sustain.

A new motive power is demanded, and if the eyesight and the judgment can be relied upon, it has appeared. It is the most sublime development of force ever seen in machinery! It is exerted by that life-giving, elastic fluid, the atmosphere. It is drawn from that vast magazine through which the lightnings play, and is supplied from that unseen element which

sighs in the breeze and roars in the hurricane. We are not intimately acquainted with machinery, nor are we altogether ignorant of the principles of mechanical science. We know enough of both to form an intelligent judgment concerning the wonderful machine to which we allude, and which we have carefully examined. It is not, like most new inventions, presented in a mere model. It does not, like most new inventions, rest in bare experiment. Were these its conditions, the *Merchants' Magazine* would express no judgment concerning its utility, nor indulge in any speculations as to its supposed value. We should leave this talk to those who are supposed to be better acquainted with the science of mechanics, and with the practical value of untried inventions, than the editor of a commercial journal. We are not here called upon to perform this task.

A celebrated painter has said "Let my productions be subjected to the judgment of the whole world, but heaven deliver me from that of my own profession." This may not, in a majority of cases, prove to be a just apprehension; but it is quite certain that there is in every profession a conservative spirit, which clings to the knowledge of the past, and distrusts that which is new and untried. This is strikingly illustrated in the case of the steam-engine.

We all know that, at this time, the only mode in use for producing a rotary motion, from the reciprocating motion of the piston of a steam-engine, is by means of a crank. It is equally well known, that to enable the stationary engine to "pass the center," a ponderous fly-wheel is employed. Now it will hardly be credited, that both these methods were at first condemned by distinguished engineers, as utterly impracticable. In 1777 Mr. Stewart read a paper before the Royal Society in London, describing a method for obtaining a continued circular motion, for turning all kinds of mills, from the reciprocating motion of the steam-engine. This he proposed to effect by means of a complicated contrivance, which practice soon proved to be worthless. In the course of his remarks, he incidentally noticed the method of obtaining the circular motion by means of a crank, which, said he, "*occurs naturally in theory, but in practice would be impossible.*"

This paper was, by the council of the Society, referred to Mr. Smeaton, one of the most distinguished engineers of that age. He not only condemned the crank, but the fly-wheel also; and, in consequence of these views, very complicated and expensive means were adopted, to produce the desired rotary motion from the reciprocating motion of the piston, until, at length, from necessity, the crank and fly-wheel were adopted, and ever afterwards used.

We have mentioned these circumstances to show the wisdom of the course pursued by Captain Ericsson, in not subjecting his invention to public examination, until he could present it in a shape so conclusive, as to satisfy the judgment of practical men; and to trample down that carping, sneering criticism, with which envy and rivalry sometimes seek to strangle the productions of inspired genius. This, in our opinion, he has accomplished. We have, with great care, examined this machine; the principles and construction of which were fully explained to us by the distinguished inventor. It is alike remarkable for sublimity of conception and simplicity of detail. Like the forces of nature, its operations, although mighty, are gentle. Two machines upon this plan are now in operation at the works of Messrs. Hogg & Delamater—one of five horse, the other of sixty horse power.

The latter is the most extraordinary piece of machinery we have ever

seen. It has four cylinders. Two, of seventy-two inches in diameter, stand side by side. Over each of these is placed one much smaller. Within these are pistons, exactly fitting their respective cylinders, and so connected that those within the lower and upper cylinders move together. Under the bottom of each of the lower cylinders a fire is applied. No other furnaces are employed. Neither boilers nor water are used. The lower is called the working cylinder; the upper the supply cylinder. As the piston in the supply cylinder moves down, valves placed in its top open, and it becomes filled with cold air. As the piston rises within it, these valves close, and the air within, unable to escape as it came, passes through another set of valves, into a receiver, from whence it is to pass into the working cylinder, to force up the working piston within it. As it leaves the receiver to perform this duty, it passes through what is called the regenerator, which we shall soon explain, where it becomes heated to about four hundred and fifty degrees, and upon entering the working cylinder, it is further heated by the fire underneath. We have said the working cylinder is much larger in diameter than the supply cylinder. Let us, for the sake of illustration merely, suppose it to contain double the area. The cold air which entered the upper cylinder will, therefore, but half fill the lower one. In the course of its passage to the latter, however, we have said that it passes through a regenerator, and let us suppose, that as it enters the working cylinder, it has become heated to about four hundred and eighty degrees. At this temperature, atmospheric air expands to double its volume. The same atmospheric air, therefore, which was contained within the supply cylinder, is now capable of filling one of twice its size. With this enlarged capacity, it enters the working cylinder.

We will further suppose the area of the piston within this cylinder to contain a thousand square inches, and the area of the piston in the supply cylinder above, to contain but five hundred. The air presses upon this with a mean force, we will suppose, of about eleven pounds to each square inch; or in other words, with a weight of 5,500 pounds. Upon the surface of the lower piston, the heated air is, however, pressing upwards with a like force upon each of its one thousand square inches; or in other words, with a force of 11,000 pounds. Here, then, is a force which, after overcoming the weight above, leaves a surplus of 5,500 pounds, if we make no allowance for friction. This surplus furnishes the working power of the engine. It will be readily seen that after one stroke of its pistons is made, it will continue to work with this force, so long as sufficient heat is supplied to expand the air in the working cylinder to the extent stated; for so long as the area of the lower piston is greater than that of the upper, and a like pressure is upon every square inch of each, so long will the greater piston push forward the smaller, as a two-pound weight upon one end of a balance will be quite sure to bear down one pound placed upon the other. We need hardly say that after the air in the working cylinder has forced up the piston within it, a valve opens, and as it passes out, the pistons, by force of gravity, descend, and cold air again rushes into, and fills the supply cylinder, as we have before described. In this manner the two cylinders are alternately supplied and discharged, causing the pistons in each to play up and down, substantially as they do in the steam-engine.

We trust our readers will be able, from the brief description we have here attempted, to understand at least the general principles upon which this machine operates. Its cylinders draw their supply from the atmosphere.

The cylinders of the steam-engine are supplied by scalding vapor, drawn from hissing boilers. The caloric engine draws into its iron lungs, the same element which expands those of the most delicate child, and derives its motion and its power from that sustaining source upon which depends the existence of all animate life.

We have endeavored to explain the construction of the caloric engine. Its most striking feature consists in what is called by its inventor, the regenerator. Before describing this, we will present the grand idea upon which it is based. First let it be remembered that the power of the steam-engine depends upon the heat employed to produce steam within its boilers. It will be seen that from the very nature of steam the heat required to produce it, amounting to about 1,200°, is entirely lost by condensation the moment it has once exerted its force upon the piston. If, instead of being so lost, all the heat used in creating the steam employed could, at the moment of condensation, be reconveyed to the furnace, there again to aid in producing steam in the boilers, but a very little fuel would be necessary; none, in fact, except just enough to supply the heat lost by radiation. The reason is obvious. Let us suppose the steam has passed from the boiler, has entered the cylinder, has driven the piston forward, and is about to pass into the condenser, there to change its form, and be again converted into water. This steam, yet in the cylinder, and uncondensed, possesses all the heat it contained before passing out of the boiler. It has driven the piston forward, but in that effort it has lost no heat. That source of power it still contains.

Let it be supposed that the heat contained in the steam could, at the moment it is converted into water within the condenser, be saved, and by some device be again used to create steam from water within the boiler, with what exceeding cheapness could the power of the steam-engine be employed. But it is quite impossible thus to re-employ the heat of steam: it cannot thus be saved; and hence every effort to economize in this manner would be unavailing.

The propositions we have here advanced were, it appears, more than twenty-five years since familiar to the scientific mind of Captain Ericsson. He was at that early period deeply impressed with their importance; and regarding heat as the sole source of motive-power, was anxious to discover some element in which it could be so employed that, after giving motion to machinery, it should be returned to act over and over again for the same purpose. But little reflection was necessary to convince him that steam was not this element. It must consist of some permanent gas, and atmospheric air seemed admirably adapted to the purpose. Accordingly it was employed by him.

In a work entitled "A Dictionary of the Arts of Life and Civilization," published in London in 1833, the author, Sir Richard Phillips, mentions an engine which Captain Ericsson then had in operation in that city, as "his application of excited or rarefied air to the performance of those powers of machinery, which hitherto have been made to depend on the intervention of boiling water and its steam." The author further states that he "has, with inexpressible delight, seen the first model machine, of five horse-power, at work. With a handful of fuel applied to the very sensible medium of atmospheric air, and a most ingenious disposition of its differential powers, he beheld a resulting action, in narrow compass, capable of extension to as great forces as ever can be wielded or used by man."

The author adds:—"The principle of this new engine consists in this:

that the heat which is required to give motion to the engine at the commencement, is returned by a peculiar process of transfer, and thereby made to act over and over again, instead of being, as in the steam-engine, thrown into a condenser, or into the atmospheric, as so much waste fuel."

During the last nineteen years, Captain Ericsson has employed much of his time, and expended large amounts of money, in overcoming those practical difficulties which are ever stumbling blocks in the way leading to the successful development of a great principle in new machinery. This he has now achieved. The principle of his invention, as stated by Sir Richard Phillips, is still retained, embodied in that practical and complete form, which render this engine economical, absolutely safe, durable, simple in construction, and in action effective.

Let us now attempt to describe the regenerator, to which we have referred. Without this, the machine we examined would possess, in point of economy, no advantage over the best constructed steam-engine. With it, the advantages are incalculable. We have already fully illustrated the leading idea conceived by Captain Ericsson, of employing heat over and over again. To attain this is the object of the regenerator.

For the purpose of understanding this instrument our readers will bear in mind the construction and operation of the machine. We have before stated that atmospheric air is first drawn into the supply cylinder, from whence it is forced into a receiver, and that from this it proceeds towards the working cylinder, before reaching which it passes through the regenerator. This structure is composed of wire net, somewhat like that used in the manufacture of sieves, placed side by side, until the series attain a thickness, say of twelve inches. Through the almost innumerable cells, formed by the intersection of these wires, the air must pass, on its way to the working cylinder. In passing through these, it is so minutely subdivided that the particles composing it are brought into close contact with the metal which forms the wires. Now let us suppose, what actually takes place, that the side of the regenerator nearest the working cylinder is heated to a high temperature. Through this heated substance the air must pass before entering the cylinder, and in effecting this passage, it takes up, as is demonstrated by the thermometer, about  $450^{\circ}$  of the  $480^{\circ}$  of heat required, as we before stated, to double its volume. The additional  $30^{\circ}$  are communicated by the fire beneath the cylinder. The air has thus become expanded; it forces the piston upward; it has done its work—valves open—and the imprisoned air, heated to  $480^{\circ}$ , passes from the cylinder, and again enters the regenerator, through which it must pass before leaving the machine. We have said that the side of this instrument nearest the working cylinder is hot, and it should be here stated that the other side is kept cool, by the action upon it of the air entering in the opposite direction at each up-stroke of the pistons. Consequently, as the air from the working cylinder passes out, the wires absorb its heat so effectually that, when it leaves the regenerator, it has been robbed of it all, except about  $30^{\circ}$ . In other words, as the air passes into the working cylinder it gradually receives from the regenerator about  $450^{\circ}$  of heat; and as it passes out, this is returned to the wires, and is thus used over and over, the only purpose of the fires beneath the cylinders being to supply the  $30^{\circ}$  of heat we have mentioned, and that which is lost by radiation and expansion. Extraordinary as this statement may seem, it is nevertheless incontrovertibly proved by the thermometer to be quite true.

When physical causes, productive of unexpected mechanical results, are carefully examined, they will always be found adequate to effect what, upon a cursory view might appear marvelous or incredible. Thus, after an examination of the reasons why this compact regenerator so effectually absorbs and transmits heat, its operation will cease to create wonder, although it cannot fail to excite profound admiration. We will state the causes of its efficiency.

The regenerator, contained in the sixty-horse engine we have examined, measures twenty-six inches in height and width internally. Each disc of wire composing it contains 676 superficial inches, and the net has ten meshes to the inch. Each superficial inch, therefore, contains 100 meshes, which, multiplied by 676, give 67,600 meshes in each disc, and as 200 discs are employed, it follows that the regenerator contains 13,520,000 meshes, and consequently, as there are as many small spaces between the discs as there are meshes, we find that the air within is distributed in about 27,000,000 minute cells. Hence, it is evident, that nearly every particle of the whole volume of air, in passing through the regenerator, is brought into very close contact with a surface of metal, which heats and cools alternately. The extent of this surface, when accurately estimated, almost surpasses belief.

The wire contained in each disc is 1,140 feet long, and that contained in the regenerator is consequently 228,000 feet, or  $41\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, the superficial measurement of which is equal to the entire surface of four steam-boilers, each forty feet long, and four feet in diameter; and yet the regenerator, presenting this great amount of heating surface, is only about two feet cube—less than  $\frac{1}{10^{\frac{1}{2}}}$  of the bulk of these four boilers.

Involved in this wonderful process, of the transfer and retransfer of heat is a discovery, which justly ranks as one of the most remarkable ever made in physical science. Its author, Captain Ericsson long since ascertained, and upon this is based the sublimest feature of his caloric-engine, that atmospheric air and other permanent gases, in passing through a distance of only six inches, in the fiftieth part of a second of time, are capable of acquiring, or parting with, upward of four hundred degrees of heat. He has been first to discover this marvelous property of caloric, without which, atmospheric air could not be effectively employed as a motive-power. The reason is obvious. Until expanded by heat, it can exert no force upon the piston. If much time were required to effect this, the movement of the piston would necessarily be so slow as to render the machine inefficient. Captain Ericsson has demonstrated, however, that heat may be communicated to, and expansion effected in, atmospheric air, with almost electric speed; and that it is, therefore, eminently adapted to give the greatest desirable rapidity of motion to all kinds of machinery.

We here close our imperfect description of a machine destined, as we believe, to work a revolution in the Commerce of the globe. It consumes but a very small proportion of the coal required for the steam-engine. It is entirely free from every element of explosion or of danger. Watchfulness is not imperatively required, as in the steam-engine. If left unattended, the worst that can happen is, that after exhausting the heat of its fires, and of its regenerator, it will stop. The one we examined, of sixty horse-power, has been run at full speed during twenty-four consecutive hours, consuming but nine hundred and sixty pounds of coal. After feeding the fires, it continues to run three hours without replenishment, and after withdrawing them from the grates, it operates with full power for the period of one hour, in

consequence of the astonishing action of its regenerator alone. We believe we have not, in the slightest degree, overrated the immense advantages of this engine, in point of economy and safety. If we have not, the world may well start with exultation. In magnitude of results, no invention can rank with it. The electric telegraph is one of great interest and value, and to him who reflects that the fierce lightning has by that process been tamed, and brought to the very lips of man, there to be freighted with human language, and sent abroad, to girdle the earth with thought, it becomes sublime. Still, it is greatly inferior, in practical importance, to the discovery of a motive-power such as we have attempted to describe. Human speculation fails adequately to estimate its influence upon the social and commercial relations of men and of nations. Its effects will naturally be first exerted upon the ocean. It is here that the value of such a power will be most sensibly felt and appreciated. Here it will soon become the strong arm and right hand of Commerce. It may be affirmed with confidence that, with engines upon this plan, a ship of two thousand tons can be propelled from San Francisco to China and back with less coal than is now required for an ordinary ocean steamer to cross the Atlantic.

The annals of the mechanic arts furnish no instance of an important invention having been brought before the public in so complete a form as to warrant its being carried out on a scale of the first magnitude from the outset. Ericsson's Caloric Engine will form an exception. A ship is now building for its reception by Messrs. Perrine, Patterson, and Stack, measuring twenty-two hundred tons burden, and her engines, which are being constructed by Messrs. Hogg & Delamater, comprise four working cylinders, each of 168 inches in diameter. We have visited both the ship-yard and the engine manufactory, and have inspected with more than ordinary interest the work on which more than four hundred men are now busily engaged. The ship is quite a remarkable structure, both in point of form and strength. The engines being placed in the center of the vessel admit of a better form of midship section than in steamships. Of this the builders have availed themselves by giving such a rise to the floor that strength and easy lines for passing through the water are appropriately combined. The lines of the ship at the entrance are singularly fine; and yet, by a very judicious application of the "wave line," as it is technically called, the bow possesses all the fullness requisite for a good sea-boat. The run is alike peculiar for easy lines, combined with stability and requisite bearing. The strength of floor, which is built entirely solid from stem to stern, surpasses anything we have seen in this country, noted as it is for producing the best ships in the world. In order to give additional strength to the ample timbers, the entire frame is banded by a double series of diagonal braces, of flat bars of iron, let into the timbers at intervals of about three feet, each series being riveted together at all the points of intersection. In addition to the ordinary central keelsons, there are six engine keelsons, bolted on the top of the floor timbers, for three-fourths of the length of the ship. On these keelsons the bed plates of the engines are secured by bolts passing through the floor timbers. These bed-plates extend over the entire area occupied by the engines, and present a continuation of iron flooring, not witnessed in any steamship. The security thus attained is further enhanced by dispensing entirely with the numerous holes through the bottom of the vessel, which in steamers are necessary, and have often brought that class of vessels to a sinking condition. The engines being arranged in the center of the vessel, the decks are not cut off as in

steamers; and as the whole of the machinery is confined within a vertical trunk 76 feet long and 18 feet wide, ample space is left on each side of the ship for state-rooms along its entire length, with unbroken passages, fore and aft, on either side. The freight-deck also presents an unbroken area fore and aft, diminished only in width in the central part of the vessel. The coal being carried in the bottom, at each side of the engines, the fore and aft hold are clear for freight. The central arrangement of the engines involves, of necessity, a *central* crank, and thus the spar-deck presents an uninterrupted area, on both sides, the ordinary objectionable crank hatches being dispensed with. The slow combustion peculiar to the caloric engine renders the huge smoke funnel unnecessary. A short pipe to carry off the gases produced by the combustion in the furnaces takes its place in the caloric ship. The absence of steam in every form is sufficiently important in producing a more pleasant atmosphere than in steamers, but far more remarkable is the fact that the quantity of air which will be drawn out of the ship by the action of the supply cylinders of the engines, will exceed *sixty tons in weight* every hour! Captain Ericsson, in calling our attention to this fact, furnished us with a few figures that we feel certain our readers will need, as much as we did, to comprehend how so vast a ventilation is effected. Each supply piston presents an area of 102 superficial feet, with a stroke of six feet. 612 cubic feet of atmospheric air will therefore be drawn into the engine at each stroke; and when the engine makes fourteen strokes per minute, 8,568 cubic feet. But as there are four supply cylinders, they will, in this space of time, draw in 34,272 cubic feet; and in 60 minutes there will be thus circulated 2,056,320 cubic feet. The weight of atmospheric air is nearly  $13\frac{1}{2}$  cubic feet to the pound; and thus it will be seen that 68 tons of air are drawn from the interior of the ship, through the engines, and passed off into the atmosphere, every hour. The effect of such an extraordinary system of ventilation, in purifying the atmosphere of the ship, is self-evident.

The simple construction of the caloric engine, and the small quantity of coal to be handled, will reduce the number of engineers and firemen, in the aggregate, to less than one-fourth the complement required for steamers. This great reduction in the number of men, whose duties are incompatible with strict cleanliness, will still further promote a purer state of atmosphere in caloric ships than in steamers. Again, as no smoke whatever is produced, when anthracite coal is employed, the masts and rigging of the caloric ship will be as clean as in sailing vessels. We examined the combustion of the sixty-horse caloric-engine most critically. No smoke could be detected from it, and we arrived at the conclusion, that with such a slow combustion and easy firing smoke cannot possibly emanate from the anthracite consumed in the furnaces. Europe has scarcely any of this fuel, and in a national point of view, therefore, the introduction of the caloric-engine is important. We congratulate the commercial world that this invention is to be presented upon a scale and in a manner commensurate with its surpassing magnitude. The commercial part of this enterprise is conducted by Mr. JOHN B. KITCHING, a merchant of the city of New York, who has, for this purpose, associated with him a few gentlemen of wealth and high standing. It is fortunate that he possesses the practical intelligence which has enabled him to appreciate the advantages to be derived from the introduction of this new motive power. He at once concurred with Captain Ericsson, that its development in practice should so thoroughly test its utility and value, that no

doubt could thereafter be entertained concerning either. So far as human scrutiny and foresight can penetrate, this invention promises to be the richest boon to Commerce and civilization yet attained by the application to machinery of those natural forces created by Omnipotence for the benefit of our race. Upon the manner of its first introduction to the world, will, in a great degree depend the time within which it will be made generally available in practice. Mr. Kitching will be remembered as the man whose sound judgment and perfect self-reliance have so contributed to present the coloric-engine to the public, that a second trial will not be required to warrant its universal adoption.

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## ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA.

SOME years ago the translator of the present article on the subject of the Commerce of the Port of Trebizond, on the southern shore of the Black Sea, during a visit which he had occasion to make there, availed himself of it to procure some details of the trade which passes through that part to Georgia and Persia, as well as with the interior of that portion of Asia Minor of which Trebizond is the principal port of entry. Those details were, soon afterwards, offered for publication to the *Merchants' Magazine*, in which they appeared.

With the increased intercourse of the people of the United States with the Ottoman Empire, as merchants, or as simple travelers for pleasure or instruction, it is presumed that any information made public on the subject of the trade of Asiatic and European Turkey will be perused with interest by the commercial public. The absence of a regular Commercial Bureau at Washington, to which such communications might be made, for the purpose of having them laid before the public in the form of annual "Commercial Reports" to Congress, renders this means of publicity the more valuable; and with this object in view, the following later details of the trade which formed the subject of the previous notes are now offered for insertion in the *Merchants' Magazine*.

### COMMERCE OF TREBIZOND IN 1851.\*

During a period of six years the imports and exports of Trebizond have gone on increasing, and the transit Commerce has also augmented in an equal proportion. In 1846 some 30,000 packages of goods were disembarked there for Persia and Georgia, valuing about fifty millions of Turkish piastres, of some four cents each, making \$2,000,000 of our own currency. In 1851, the merchandise which arrived at Trebizond amounted to 59,003 packages, valuing 182,000,000 of piastres.† The expenses of 30,000 packages, from the period of their departure from Constantinople up to their being put into warehouses in Tabriz in Persia, were, on account of the dear-

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\* Translated from the "Journal de Constantinople."

† The Turkish piastre fluctuates in value, and is governed by the sale at which bills of exchange on London are sold at Constantinople. At this date, April, 1852, the pound sterling is, in specie, (gold and silver,) 117 piastres, and in *Caimchs* (paper currency of the Sultan) 120 piastres. The Spanish dollar values 25 piastres in specie, and 26 and 27 piastres in paper.

ness of transportation, about 15 per cent on the whole amount—say some 7,500,000 piastres on the value of 50,000,000 piastres. On this basis, which is believed to be exact, the expenses of 59,003 packages, worth 182,000,000 piastres, should amount to 27,000,000 piastres. It has been determined upon by the Turkish Government to construct a good wagon road from Trebizond to Erzerrow,\* a town of some importance, not far from the Persian frontier, which project, for the present, has been deferred, and the preceding statements of the trade which would pass over it is certainly sufficient to serve as an inducement for its future execution. Besides the preceding, it should also be added that the Commerce in transit to Persia pays to the Turkish Government a duty of 3 per cent, which makes a sum of 5,500,000 piastres per annum. In a few years, should the trade increase in the ratio of the past six years, this revenue would quite suffice to cover the expenses of the proposed route.

The writer next adds, in behalf of the Commerce of France with Trebizond, "In the general table of the trade of Trebizond, which we publish, we are pained to observe a point which struck us in 1846, that France takes no part in this trade, whilst some forty years ago the Commerce of France predominated in the Levant."

"The steamboats which now go to Trebizond belong wholly to the Turkish, English, and Austrian marines." After some expressions of confidence that the present President of the "Republic of France" will take proper measures to restore the lost trade of Marseilles, he continues: "The goods imported into Trebizond under the flags of different nations for the consumption of the interior of the country and those destined for Persia, amount to 243,342,000 piastres, or \$9,793,680, and the exports to 110,471,000 piastres, or \$4,418,840—making a difference between them of some 132,871,000 piastres, or \$5,314,840, which is explained in the following table.

The most important portion of this trade belongs to the Turkish marine, next to this to the Austrian, and next to the British. The first imports into Trebizond 132,730,000 piastres, or \$5,309,200; the second 72,704,000 piastres, \$2,908,160; and the third 35,406,000 piastres, or \$1,416,240. The other nations engaged in the trade may be classed as follows: Greece, the two Danubian Provinces of Turkey, one Moldavia and Wallachia, the seven Ionian Islands, and Russia.

In a general recapitulation of the same, we find 99 sailing vessels, and 73 steamers, together having 111,352 tons.

The arrivals in 1851 were as follows:—

Ottoman sailing vessels, 71; steamers, 30; in all, 101; of 58,580 tons, and 13,380 horse-power, and importing goods of the value of 132,730,000 piastres, or \$5,309,200.

Austrian steamers, of 7,800 horse-power, and 23,300 tons, and importing 72,703,000 piastres, or \$2,908,160 of merchandise.

British sailing vessels, 6; steamers, 17; in all, 23; of 4,994 horse-power, and 15,742 tons, with 35,406,000 piastres, or \$1,416,240 of merchandise.

Greek vessels, 9; of 1,698 tons, and 1,355,000 piastres, or \$54,200 of merchandise.

Danubian vessels, 7; of 1,004 tons, and 550,000 piastres, or \$21,000 of merchandise.

Ionian vessels, 3; of 396 tons, and 257,000 piastres, or \$10,800 of merchandise.

Russian vessels, 2; of 382 tons, and with 340,000 piastres, or \$13,600.

French vessels, 1; of 350 tons, in ballast.

\* The failure of this *determination* is attributed at Constantinople to the influence of Russia, which is, very naturally, desirous of having the transit trade of Persia pass through Georgia. The projected road was begun at the instance of the British Embassy at Constantinople.

Making totally 99 sailing vessels and 73 steamers, or in all 172 vessels of every nation; which imported into the single port of Trebizond goods for internal consumption and transit to Georgia and Persia to the amount of 243,342,000 piastres, or \$9,733,680.

The departures for Trebizond in 1851 were—

Ottoman sailing vessels, 51; steamers, 30; in all, 81; of 18,380 horse-power, and exporting merchandise to the value of 26,686,000 piastres, and specie 20,691,000 piastres, or \$1,895,080.

Austrian steamers, of 7,800 horse-power, and 23,330 tons, with merchandise of the value of 14,301,000 piastres, and specie 13,424,000 piastres, or \$1,109,280.

British vessels, 5; steamers, 17; in all, 22; of 4,994 horse-power, and 15,300 tons, and merchandise to the value of 11,732,000 piastres, in specie, 12,017,000 piastres, or \$949,960.

It must be remembered that the specie destined for Constantinople, (for all of this Commerce is between Trebizond and Constantinople,) indicated, refers entirely to the merchandise in transit to and from Georgia and Persia; whilst the following is a statement of the local Commerce, and that for the consumption of the interior of the country of which Trebizond is the first, in 1851:—

Ottoman steamers, 3,751,000 piastres, or \$150,040 in specie.

Austrian steamers, 2,804,000 piastres, or \$152,160 in specie.

British steamers, 3,106,000 piastres, or \$124,240 in specie.

Greek vessels, 9; 1,698 tons; 116,000 piastres, or \$4,640 in goods.

Danubian vessels, 7; 1,004 tons; 110,000 piastres, or \$4,400 in goods.

Ionian vessels, 3; 396 tons; in ballast.

Russian vessels, 2; 382 tons; in ballast.

French vessels, 1; 352 tons; a cargo of copper worth 1,726,000 piastres, or \$69,500.

Making, in total, 110,471,000 piastres, or \$4,417,840, in 78 sailing vessels and 73 steamers; or total number, 151.

It must be also here added that the great difference which exists between the amount of imports and exports is caused by the circumstance that, for a good portion of the goods which go into Persia, the returns are made to Europe—that is to say, by Tiflis, where they are converted into bills of exchange on St. Petersburg or on London. The reader will remember that Georgia now forms a province of Russia.

During the year 1851 the different steamers carried from Trebizond 17,300 passengers to Constantinople, and this part of their business is a source of no inconsiderable gain to them. Seven large steam frigates form this line; two are steam frigates belonging to the Sultan of Turkey, each 450 horse-power; two belong to the Ottoman Steam Navigation Company, of 250 and 350 horse-power; two Austrian steamers, of the "Lloyd Austrian," of 260 and 350 horse-power; and one English steamer of 300 horse-power.

There arrived at Trebizond, from Constantinople, England, and Trieste, (in smaller quantities from the latter place,) 59,003 packages of diverse merchandise *in transit*, for Persia, valuing 182,000,000 piastres, or \$7,280,000.

Trebizond received from Persia for Constantinople 14,756 packages of goods of coarse kinds, of which 3,201 were bales of silk, valuing 25,000,000 piastres, or \$1,000,000; the remainder consisted in gall nuts, tumbekis, Persian tobacco, for the *narguila*, (a water-pipe,) saffron, wax, almonds, leeches, pipe sticks, shawls of different kinds, carpets, &c., &c.

Trebizond imported grains—

Indian corn from the Danube.....kilos (bushels)	890
Wheat from the Danube and Odessa.....	122,000
Barley .....	29,200
Oats .....	3,200
Salt may be imported there to about 63,000 kilos, of 30 okes each (82 lbs.)	

Among the imports belonging to the local trade of Trebizond, or for transit to Persia and Georgia, all carried on horses' or mules' backs, were, in 1851, 6,424 cases of sugar in loaves, (English and Dutch,) and 630 large barrels of sugar, also English and Dutch, of which three-fourths were in loaves, and one-fourth in powder.

There were, in 1851, 6,729 packages of *Tumbekis* of Persia, and 57,976 packages of merchandise for this country.

The preceding gives an idea of the extent and importance of the trade open of the principal ports of the Black Sea, and yet contains but few of the details needed of the nature of the same. The notes, heretofore furnished to the *Merchants' Magazine*, may be considered as a correct exposition of the different articles of import and export, of which the trade is composed.

The steamers, herein mentioned, all trade at Sinope and Samsoun on their way to and from Trebizond, and besides the great number of passengers which they take in or discharge there, the merchandise required at these places forms no inconsiderable portion of their gains.

Samsoun and Sinope receive goods for the consumption of the interior of Asia Minor, and the former may be regarded as the port of Mosul and the chief places in Mesopotamia, even as far as Bagdad.

An immense quantity of English cotton goods pass through them for the interior. These are generally purchased at Constantinople by native merchants, in small quantities, and shipped by them to the Black Sea.

The Commerce of Great Britain in the Black Sea was, in 1830, quite insignificant, and there were some apprehensions entertained here at the time of the negotiation of the present treaty of the United States with Turkey, that American Commerce would greatly rival English interests.

It was supposed that, besides the introduction of American commodities into Southern Russia and the ports of the Black Sea, American vessels would take an active part in the carrying trade of that sea.

In a few years after the negotiation of the treaty, several American vessels went annually to Odessa, but this soon ceased. The return cargoes of these vessels were mostly hides, and there were even instances of rye being shipped at that period from Odessa to the United States. This has, of course, long ceased to be the case, and the trade with Odessa is now very inconsiderable. Only one vessel under the flag of the United States has, as yet, entered the Danube.

This occurred in 1843, and the captain was welcomed with many evidences of good feeling for his country, by the authorities of Wallachia and Moldavia.

Twenty years ago, the British trade with Trebizond, Persia, and Georgia, was almost nothing. Its present prosperity is due to the agency of the British consul at Erzeroom, Mr. Brant. This gentleman, an old merchant in the Levant, settled, as vice-consul, at Trebizond, and commenced there the introduction of English goods. In view of extending his operations to Persia and Georgia, he recommended to his government his appointment at Erzeroom, and the establishing of vice-consuls at Samsoun, Trebizond, Bat-

toom, and at Kaiseriych, in the interior, which being done, the fruits of their most valuable reports on the nature, extent of the produce, and demands of this country, are seen in the very extensive and valuable trade which now exists.

It may be added here that Mr. Brant, and each of his vice-consuls, are themselves engaged in Commerce.

In view of the increased relations of the United States with Turkey, and its probable future intercourse with Persia, it appears that the government at home could not evince a greater interest in the Commerce of our citizens than by establishing a commercial-consular agent at Trebizond. It can scarcely be expected that any commercial house in New York or Boston, patriotic as our merchants have always shown themselves to be, should send an agent to that place, *pro bono publico*, as such an agent would certainly be; and this seems to be especially the duty of a government, which derives its chief support from the Commerce of the nation. Such a *public* agent, if a commercial man, (and none other should receive the appointment,) would be able to explore the field thus open to the manufacturing and the mechanical industry of the people of the United States; and it would not be, it is hoped, an indiscretion to add the suggestion that he be allowed by Congress a salary of \$1,000 or \$1,500 a year, until the advantages, or the inutility, of the agency could be ascertained. The coffee, sugar, and rum of America supplies the greater part of the vast provinces of Turkey in Europe and Asia; the cotton manufactories of *New* England are becoming the honest rivals of those of *Old* England; and it is not unreasonable to hope that they may again soon resume their place in the country where their name has been fraudulently or by stratagem assumed by English manufacturers, who forge the American stamps on their own cotton goods, so as to profit by the reputation which they had made for themselves.

In connection with the foregoing, occasion is here taken to mention the injustice shown to the common wools (and there are none others) of Turkey by the tariff now existing in the United States. "Free Trade" certainly, as a maximum, does not consist in commercial rules by which agriculture is to be benefited *versus* Commerce, and *vice versa*. The farmer does not "plow the earth" to the disadvantage of the sailor, who "plows the main" for a livelihood, and the interference of a government in behalf of either is an injurious partiality. Left to their own resources, an honest rivalry should regulate these two forms of public industry. Nor, indeed, it would seem, should manufactures be injured by the partiality felt for agriculture. This theory the writer would extend to all countries and to all climates.

Turkey produces an immense quantity of common coarse wool, which seldom costs more than eight cents per pound. No better quality of wool is raised in any part of Turkey, except the wool, or hair, of the white goats of Angora. It can, therefore, never become a rival to the wools raised in the United States, (if, indeed, so ungenerous an apprehension is entertained,) and should not be considered as such; and yet, in this light, Turkey wools are taxed by the present tariff, with but little advantage to the American grower, and greatly to the disadvantage of the manufacturer, while the French, English, and German cloths are introduced at a rate of duty unequal to the prohibition put upon the raw material.

In England, "things are managed better;" the manufacturer has no obstacles thrown in his way of making cloths to compete with those imported, if this, indeed, is practicable, and for the supply of foreign markets. And

with the cheap water-power to propel the looms of thrifty New England, what nation in the world is better qualified for the economical manufacture of cloth, if permitted by the tariff? With a duty of 1 per cent on all common wools, they are freely introduced into England, where they are manufactured into cloths for the people of the United States, cheaper than they can now make them for themselves, notwithstanding the facilities given them so bounteously by nature. This, under a better and more liberal tariff, would be different, and not only could the manufacturer soon make cloths for the people of the United States as cheap as they now can purchase them from the English importer, but export them to Turkey and elsewhere in return for the raw material; and this, too, without any wrong done to the American wool grown at home.

As by the liberal nature of the "Free Trade" system of the Ottoman government, all American goods and merchandise are admitted into Turkey on an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent, the excessive duty on the raw staple of the trade with the United States is considered an injustice and want of reciprocity. The native merchants of Constantinople have made an appeal to the Sultan's government, requesting it to use its influence with the government of the United States, to make a change in its tariff in their favor, and the subject may be soon laid before Congress, with what result yet rests to be learned.

J. P. B.

CONSTANTINOPLE, April, 1852.

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### Art. III.—THE DIVINE USE OF COMMERCE.

"There's a divinity that shapes our ends  
Rough-hew them how we will."

IN the rise and fall of nations we behold the comprehensive and perpetual tendency of Divine purpose and power. His guiding cloud, somber or effulgent, is appointed to teach individuals and communities when to advance and when to pause. The most superficial survey of history is sufficient to teach us that Providence exercises an unceasing superintendence over human affairs, and that the consequences of both public acts and private intentions are subjected to permanent laws, the immediate sequences of which may not be clearly seen, but the ultimate result of which can never be wrong.

Two grand principles were recognized and proclaimed by the better minds of pagan antiquity, namely, the immortal might of man's aspirations, and his eternal progressiveness under the beneficent care of Providence.

Touching the first, Sophocles, in *Antigone*, expressed as follows the deep sense native to every emulative soul:—"Many things are wonderful, and nothing more wonderful than man: he can pass beyond the foaming sea, scudding through the waves as they roll around him; he wears away the wearied and inexhaustible earth, the highest of the goddesses, by means of the plow, which yearly turns it up by the strength of horses; and he catches also the tribe of any birds, casting lines around them, and all kinds of fierce beasts, and the race dwelling under the sea, with meshy well-woven nets; and by his artifice he entraps the wild beasts traversing the deserts,

and leads the shaggy-maned horse by the yoke round his neck, and the untamed bull of the mountains; and he learns oratory and perception quick as the wind, and civil polity, and is able to extricate himself from every difficulty, to escape being exposed to the air and keen driving showers of the barren and homeless hills; he comes upon nothing of the future without being able to extricate himself: from death alone he can effect no escape."

Again, it is clear that a belief in an especial protection from on high has ever been deemed indispensable to enoble human motives, and furnish adequate support in time of danger. Cicero says the immortal gods provide not only for the general necessities of men, but also for those of each man in particular, extending their protection not only to whole continents and cities, but also to each of their inhabitants; so that such men as Curius, Fabricius, Metellus, Cato, Scipio, and Lælius, never rose to their great merit without divine aid. Hence it was, he continues, that all the poets, and especially Homer, have assigned certain divinities to their heroes, in order to accompany them, and assist them in all their adventures, as in the case of Ulysses, Diomedes, Agamemnon, and Achilles. And that disposition to regard men as the instruments of a supernatural power to fulfil divine decrees, is well represented in the dying words of Patroclus to Hector: "Rejoice now, Hector, for Jove has given you victory." The ancients did not think that it derogated from the glory of a hero to ascribe his triumphs to an over-ruling power. Sylla imputed all his success to fortune; thinking, says Plutarch, that such an opinion added an air of greatness and even of divinity to his actions. Zenophon records the argument of Socrates in combating Aristodemus, who held an opinion like modern sceptics, that the Deity was above condescending to take any interest in the concerns of men. Sophocles, in a magnificent passage of the *Electra*, paints the impotent prosperity of the wicked. And with what force and majesty does the genius of Demosthenes proclaim like truth to his desponding countrymen! "Truly, O Athenians, I should regard Philip as a most formidable and overwhelming adversary, if I believed him acting justly; but it is not possible, O Athenians, that a power should be permanent which is marked with injustice, and perjury, and falsehood.

Diodorus affirmed that piety towards heaven is essential to the magnanimity of a nation; and Plato said, with equal justice, that the spirit of reverence is a better inheritance than gold. Plotinus taught that God should be praised in the things we understand, and admired in those which we understand not; while Socrates, catching some rays of still brighter inspiration from afar, felt that "a mortal nature could never rise to such greatness as to despise the force of animals of superior power, to pass over the sea, to build cities, to found states, to observe the heavens, to behold the circles of the stars, and the courses of the sun and the moon, their times of rising and setting, their eclipses, and return of the equinoxes, and the solstices, and the pleiades, the winter and summer, the winds and the showers, and the destructive path of the lightning, and to immortalize the events of the world by monuments, unless there were indeed a divine spirit in the soul from which it possessed such knowledge; that, therefore, man passes not to death but to immortality; and that instead of experiencing a loss, he will become capable of pure enjoyment, independent of a mortal body, unalloyed and void of every uneasiness; and when once delivered from this prison, he will arrive where all things are without labor, without

groans, without old age, where there is constant peace and calm, a state of contemplation and loving wisdom, in which one was not to address a multitude, but truth itself, which flows round on all sides."

Thus we see that the nations of old were conscious of immortality, and of an overruling Providence. But we have a more sure word of testimony unto which we will do well to take heed, until the day dawn and the day-star arise. We are the creatures of a moment, but the heirs of eternity. Neither ourselves, our acts, nor our God are accidents. No race or nation, art or science, discovery or invention, but is divinely subordinated, in its right time and place to the accomplishment of its particular mission. There is much meaning in Baxter's axiom: "Man proproseth, but God disposeth." Let us apply this thought to human pursuits in general, and to Commerce in particular.

Why did not Jehovah plant the Jewish institutes on the steppes of Asia, and unfold the diviner splendors of Christianity in the central solitudes of America? The omnipotent and omniscient God is the last to waste his strength or misemploy his wisdom in acts which are incompatible with the highest good of the greatest number of his creatures. The order of his government, and the disbursement of his resources, are especially designed to teach us the grace of common sense, so that, while we devoutly implore heavenly assistance, we may discreetly husband its earthly use.

The celestial guide which rose on the view of the wise men in the east, led them westward towards the sea, and has ever since been the pole-star of human progress. Civilization has always moved "o'er the western main," while Commerce has been its chief instrument and perpetual channel. The grandest throne of power is water, not land. The banner nation of the world, whose ascendancy is most pervading and complete, is the one in whose hand lies the scepter of the seas. All civilized people have ever lived where great rivers formed free avenues to thought, and the grandeur of oceans was at once the field and nutriment of national power. There is no wealth, material, mental, or moral, that is not identified with exchange. Without diversity, there can be no development; and out of the widest difference, the highest and most harmonious unity is a natural result. This is made legitimate by the law of God, instances of which appear at every advance of human progress.

All the active races of antiquity occupied the shores of the Mediterranean. Its maritime climate, blending oceanic softness with continental rigor, teemed with the densest and most diversified population. Cities studded its coasts; fleets plowed its billows; mental and commercial wealth coursed along its mirror of all grandeur for ages, when as yet the pagan Olympus reflected in its depths, and the goddess of beauty emerging therefrom, were the only faith and hope those vast multitudes enjoyed. But a new era dawned with a splendor that eclipsed mythologic fables and Jewish traditions. At the eastern extremity of this central sea, at an equal distance from the three continents, and in the exact center of the known world, God raised the sublimest curtain of his purpose, and unfolded the glory of redemption. The promised land was first selected as the sanctuary of religious truth during the reign of polytheism, and as the theater for the preliminary wonders of salvation, in order to prepare its way from afar among men, and subordinate to its service the most intellectual and active influences of which history preserves a memorial, and mankind has enjoyed the fruits.

God and the whole destinies of nations are sometimes most manifestly on

board a single ship, struggling with adverse elements far out on the deep. Take a well-known illustration. About thirty years after the ascension of Christ, a vessel from the east came into the harbor of Syracuse, and, after a delay of three days, proceeded towards the great western port of her destination. Suppose there had been at that time an enterprising commercial journal published at Puteoli. Suppose a news-boat were kept on the lookout, and a telegraph from Rhegium, the southern city of the peninsula, transmitted every arrival to the editor's chair. Word comes, is put on the exchange bulletin and published to the common eye: "Ship *Castor and Pollux*, from Alexandria, Captain Zebulon, is coming up, with a cargo of wheat consigned to Barter, Gain, and Co., of this city, and lot of prisoners under Colonel Julius, bound to the imperial dungeons of Rome." Probably there might have been a little talk about the wheat in the Mark Lane of that day, but who reflected on the real import of that simple and common-place dispatch? Who had the profound sagacity to see concentrated in that single, transient craft, the wealth of Africa, genius of Asia, and power of Europe? In that hold lay the sifted treasure of the primitive university and granary of nations; every seed of which, to the end of the earth, is predestined to spring with a potency and productiveness that will shake like Lebanon. That citizen of Tarsus, the central city of the central continent, with fetters now corroding his flesh and eating like aspics to his soul, has absorbed into his magnificent nature the solidity of the north and the splendor of the south; a sea of glass mingled with fire; all treasures that genius can create or industry acquire; with the superaddition of that infinite superiority which grace alone confers; and all this aggregate of mental and spiritual endowment he bears in bonds to the throne of the Cesars, that thence he may rend the chains of the world. Each separate link wet with his tears or tinged with his blood, like the iron that pierced his Lord, scattered in fragments by the outburst of latent divinity, shall give hope to the despairing everywhere, the highest freedom to both faculty and limb. European power has its fitting representative in the centurion, first cowering in the storm and finding safety in the wisdom and forbearance of the piety it persecutes, and then, perchance, exulting in the arbitrary might of martial force, by which another victim is added to the lust of dominion and the pride of kings.

Christianity came to Rome at the auspicious hour, when all antecedent powers had been wrought into effective instrumentalities for the widest and most rapid diffusion of the gospel. With pickax and spade, her legions had been toiling for centuries to construct spacious roads, by means of which apostles might compass the ends of the earth. Whatever may be the selfish aim of man, his skill and power are predestined perpetually to construct improved supports to the weary wings of the heavenly dove, as she speeds from shore to shore with the tidings of love and peace. She was first pulled in at the window of the ark, because that craft admitted no other rest; but the ships Solomon laid under contribution to religious purposes were differently rigged, and the celestial emblem voyaged at mast-head. In modern times, Providence evermore simplifies natural elements, and recombines their potencies in almost supernatural energy, so as to send the sanctuary of all ennobling influence, "tramp, tramp, along the earth, splash, splash, across the sea;" and that dove, quickened and fortified by the contact, flies, as the lightning darts, from clime to clime.

Look at the seat of this society, its surrounding facilities, sublime duties, and cheering results. Old Johnny, the Britisher, had a pretty respectable

son, called "Jonathan America." At what time, and for what "manifest destiny" was this youngster born? A few facts connected with our own history will yet further illustrate the divine use of Commerce.

The tide of civilization had flowed from the Euphrates to the Thames, accumulating all diverse elements as it swept from clime to clime, from sea to ocean, a mighty amalgam, to be recomposed on a yet remoter and grander field, for a sublimer use. On the 13th of May, 1607, an English colony was planted at Jamestown, Virginia. These were aristocratic Cavaliers, sent out under the auspices of a decorated knight, Sir Walter Raleigh. In 1620, a colony of democratic Roundheads, lead by a parson, also departed for the new world, and in the north, like their predecessors of the south, found a domain well fitted for their use. Neither as the special paradise of dignified laziness, nor as the asylum of privileged bigotry, had God made this continent. In 1609, Hendrick Hudson, an Anglo-Dutchman, in the service of the East India Company of Holland, sailed from the Texel for the discovery of the north-west passage to India, and landed on the North River Flats, a long way above Manhattan Island. This grand blunder won from the States-general a patent for the exclusive trade of the Hudson, and in 1621 this metropolis of New-Netherlands was built. About the time Hans Hendrick accomplished his commission so well, the London Company directed their chief to explore some stream running from the north-west, for the purpose of finding a passage to the Pacific Ocean. Accordingly, Admiral John Smith the first sailed up the Chickahominy as far as he could in flat-boats, and ran into a nest of Indians, who did themselves the pleasure to kill and scalp the whole expedition, save the immortal John, and would have served him ditto, but for the tender mercies of Her Royal Highness, Mademoiselle de Pocahontas. Never mind; sublime purposes are struggling into fulfillment. A succession of colonies are planted, national independence is declared, and both civil and religious freedom are won. Now we behold the ultimate design of Providence more clearly unfolding. The chivalrous south and puritanic north have sprung into the matured development of hereditary character and local prepossession. From the first, and always, they are antagonistic in spirit and pursuit. Bring an ultra Northerner, with his one idea, and an ultra Southerner, with his one idea, suddenly together, with no mitigating conservatism between, and they instantly explode, to the great damage of contemptible littleness on both sides. But the Dutchman has *vis inertia* enough in his make to moderate anything; and Infinite Wisdom put him at the outset in exactly the right situation to the primitive elements and prospective relations of all this mighty land and conglomerated population. The Hollanders were the pioneers and masters of Commerce on every ocean; and the emporium of trade they founded on our shore, God designed to become the center of all commercial enterprises amongst mankind.

The third President of the United States, perhaps least solicitous in behalf of maritime prosperity, did most to promote it. Mainly by his influence, Louisiana was purchased, and thus we came in possession of the Mississippi, with its myriad tributaries. Simultaneously with this, an anomalous craft moves out amidst distrust and jeers from the foot of Courtlandt-street, to find its strange way against wind and tide, impelled by a momentum hitherto impracticable or unknown. Why the steamboat at this time, and in this place? Young and feeble as is our trade, we own more inland navigation than all the world besides, and divinely directed genius has given us

at the right moment the mighty instrument of aggrandizement we most of all need. These rivers of God, rendered fruitful by Fulton's creation, shall accumulate our greatest wealth, and guaranty our firmest liberties. The little North and the little South may prate in vain; for when their impotent impertinence demands, "Shall we rend this national compact?" a power infinitely grander and more conservative than they, the great West, towers like a Colossus amidst pigmies, and exclaims in thunder, "No! you shall not divide the Union!" Every puff of the tiniest engine that winds its way to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, answers to the merry cry of seamen weighing anchor on board the hugest craft at New Orleans or New York, "No you shall not break a single strand of the triple cable of patriotism, religion, and Commerce, destined to bind all America in one grand brotherhood!"

The exact middle of the nineteenth century arrives, and finds two startling and significant events transpiring at the same moment. The first is a thrilling cry from the far-off Pacific, resounding everywhere, "Gold, gold!" Why then, and in that particular region? Because the old antagonists, Feudalism and Freedom, are in the arena, hot for the fight, and portentous clouds darken the scene. Most opportunely, that which for six thousand years has been kept hid, is suddenly revealed. The combatants are charmed into peace, or disarmed by spectators. The Anglo-Scotchico-Irishico-Frenchico, Dutchico-Americans, who will go to the mouth of the cannon, or the mouth of hell, any time, for a dollar, rush after the glittering prize, and in self-defense plant free institutions on the Pacific, as on the Atlantic coast. Thus will they make the mightiest mountain terrace of our continent the well-proportioned pedestal to Liberty's central altar for all mankind.

The other fact to which we alluded was, that, just preceding this new outbreak of emigration, one who for many years has been identified with Fulton's invention and sphere, laid the keel of the first successful steamship ever registered in this port. She was not dispatched for Havre, or Bremen, or Liverpool, but for New Orleans. Why? Because the "Crescent City" was predestined to form the first link in the most stupendous chain of Commerce under heaven. Where is the mind capacious enough, and armed with prophetic audacity enough, to conceive and announce the magnitude of Western trade in America, as it shall swell and waft towards its first home and latest seat of predominant power, New York?

But the past is a warning as well as incentive. The republic of Venice built itself upon maritime prosperity, grew rich, forgot God, and perished. Italy refused to use the priceless treasure of heavenly truth as its Author requires, and her wharves, like her altars, are rottenness only. The Spanish Peninsula imitated the fatal example, and her national power sank like lead in the deep with the shattered Armada. The supreme sway of the seas passed into the hands of England the very year her sons first settled in America. Since then, filial emulation has fully shared that glorious supremacy; and now the word of God and the welfare of nations is intrusted entirely to the devout fidelity of those speaking our mother-tongue, and swaying almost the entire tonnage of the world. Let us fear lest Tyre shall be at once our type and history. If we are loyal to our Maker, our growth can never outrun our stability; but if we are recreant to our highest duty, prosperity will surely become our speedy ruin.

## ART. IV.—COFFEE, AND THE COFFEE TRADE.\*

THE *Coffee-Tree* or *Coffea Arabica* is an evergreen shrub, with oblong pulpy berries, which are first of a bright red, but afterwards become purple. It is stated by Niebuhr to have been brought from Abyssinia, to Yemen by the Arabs, from a country similar to their own plains and mountains. By that people it has for ages been cultivated in the hilly range of Jabal, in a healthy temperate climate, watered by frequent rains, and abounding in wells and water-tanks. A combination of circumstances seems to favor the cultivation of coffee in Arabia, which can hardly be attained elsewhere. Frequent rains, and a pure and cloudless sky causing an almost uninterrupted flood of light, communicate an excessive stimulus to all the functions of vegetation, and are causes of the perfect elaboration of those delicate principles on which the aroma of the coffee is dependent.

The seed consists of much horny albumen and a peculiar principle or alkaloid, termed *caffeine*, which is identical with the active principle of tea, *theine*, as well as with *paraguaine*, the alkaloid of the Paraguay Tea. The seed is used in a raw state in medicine; but when roasted, it forms the well-known coffee of Commerce. The coffee-plant begins to produce fruit when two or two-and-a-half years old; but the quality of the seeds from young stems is not so good as that from stems four or five years old. The size and color of the bean (as the inner part of the seed is called) vary considerably, those from the West Indies being larger than those from the East.

Much more depends upon the manner of roasting and making the coffee than upon the quality of the bean. The superiority of French coffee, in the preparation of which little or no Mocha coffee is used, proves this position. The taste of raw coffee is somewhat sweetish; but the application of heat in the process of roasting produces important changes. The bean increases to nearly twice the original size, while it loses about a third of its weight: a powerful and agreeable odor is evolved, and a large quantity of empyreumatic oil, which appears in small drops on the surface, is formed along with a bitter principle, probably by an alteration in the *caffeine* and of the saccharine matter. The roasting should take place in a close revolving iron cylinder, over a clear but moderate fire, and should not be carried too far: when the beans have acquired a light chestnut color, the roasting should be discontinued. The beans are then to be cooled quickly by being tossed up into the air, and the grinding, or rather rough pounding, should be performed in a covered mortar or mill. The drink should be prepared from it as soon as possible, by infusion, which is preferable, unless some apparatus be employed by which a kind of decoction is made in a close vessel. About half an ounce of coffee-powder should be used for every eight ounces (half a pint) of water. In Britain the roasting is generally carried too far; and the subsequent parts of the process, instead of being performed immediately, are often postponed for days or even weeks, by which the aroma is dissipated; when made, the liquid is generally deficient in strength and clearness. The employment of white of egg or fish-skin to clarify is decidedly objectionable: clearness is thus purchased, but at the expense of the strength.

\* For articles on this subject see *Merchants' Magazine* for July and August, 1850, (vol. xxiii., pages 59 and 172.) also the number for December, 1851, (vol. xxv., page 690, &c.) For statistics of imports and exports see "Coffee," in index of each volume.

It was an endeavor to establish an improved mode of roasting coffee that led to the death of Mr. Dakin, of London in 1848. His plan consisted in placing the coffee in a cylinder lined with silver, and in inclosing this cylinder within a cellular steam oven, or cylinder, patented by other parties. The heat attained within the oven was very great, and the metal of the oven was not sound enough to resist its action; an explosion ensued, with a fatal result. The silver or silvered cylinder was an intended means of retaining the fine qualities of the coffee, without acquiring any defective qualities during the roasting.

The addition of milk (which should always be hot) and of sugar heighten the nourishing qualities of coffee, and in the morning render it a more substantial article for breakfast. When taken after dinner to promote digestion, it should be without milk, and, where the palate can be reconciled to it, without sugar.

The coffee-trade has been wholly created since the beginning of the eighteenth century. Nearly all the coffee which now comes to Europe is the produce of trees propagated from a single plant, which, having been raised from seed procured from Mocha in Arabia, by Van Hoorn, governor of Batavia, was sent by him to the Botanical Garden at Amsterdam, and the progeny of which was, in the year 1718, twenty years after its reception from Java, sent to Surinam.

The coffee imported into England in 1849, amounted to the following quantities:—

British.....	40,334,630 pounds.
Foreign.....	22,985,876 “
	<hr/>
	63,320,506 pounds.

Of this quantity nearly 37,000,000 lbs., were brought from Ceylon alone.\*

The rapid increase of of the quantity of coffee produced in the Brazils is expressed in the following table, compiled by the Brazilian Consul General:—

PRODUCTION OF COFFEE IN THE BRAZILS.

	Bags.	Arrobas.	Pounds.
1820.....	95,700	478,500	15,312,000
1825.....	182,710	912,550	29,201,600
1830.....	391,785	1,958,925	62,685,600
1835.....	627,165	3,135,825	100,346,400
1840.....	1,063,805	5,319,005	170,208,800
1850-51.....	1,897,231	9,486,155	303,556,960
1851-52 estimate.....	1,700,060	8,500,000	272,000,000

It would seem, from this table, that the production of coffee in Brazil doubled every five years up to 1840, since when it has increased 80 per cent. The increase since 1835 has been 200 million pounds, and of that increase, the United States have taken one-half.

The following table shows the quantity annually imported into the United States from the four leading countries of production, and also the whole quantity imported into the Union during the past 18 years:—

\* Knight's Cyclopaedia.

## IMPORT OF POUNDS OF COFFEE INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	Brazil.	Cuba.	St. Domingo.	Java.	Total.
1834....	26,571,368	19,536,457	15,141,779	5,307,186	80,153,366
1835....	35,774,876	29,373,675	19,276,290	4,728,890	103,199,577
1836....	46,840,219	17,850,736	11,772,064	8,850,658	103,790,507
1837....	33,906,236	29,503,553	9,252,636	1,779,819	88,140,403
1838....	27,411,986	33,051,651	11,375,350	2,423,277	88,130,720
1839....	48,694,294	26,181,489	9,726,495	5,628,348	106,696,992
1840....	47,412,756	25,331,888	9,153,524	4,343,254	94,996,095
1841....	59,575,722	17,198,573	12,547,791	6,794,702	114,948,783
1842....	61,248,942	14,321,458	11,530,102	9,781,418	112,764,635
1843....	49,515,666	16,611,287	10,811,288	1,638,307	92,295,660
1844....	95,291,484	18,628,875	20,781,461	8,740,841	158,332,111
1845....	78,553,616	1,157,794	13,090,359	3,925,716	108,133,369
1846....	97,353,697	2,326,497	12,734,753	2,819,411	132,812,734
1847....	94,916,629	6,673,479	19,085,277	17,819,345	156,716,575
1848....	110,927,284	2,258,710	16,990,976	3,037,377	150,559,138
1849....	122,581,183	4,000,986	13,384,474	4,208,078	165,334,700
1850....	90,319,511	3,740,803	19,440,985	5,146,961	144,986,895
1851....	107,578,257	3,099,084	13,205,766	2,423,968	152,453,617

Nearly the whole increase in the import of Brazil coffee was, it appears, at New Orleans, to supply the Western trade. The import of coffee from Brazil in 1844 was extraordinary, amounting to nearly half the whole product of that country. Coffee, up to 1832, paid a duty of 5 per cent; since that year it has been free. The effect of this change is seen in the following table:—

## IMPORTS OF COFFEE INTO THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE EXPORTS AND QUANTITY RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION, ALSO THE DUTY AND AVERAGE PRICE.

	Import. Pounds.	Export. Pounds.	Consumption. Pounds.	Duty per lb.	Avg. cost per lb. Cents.
1821.....	21,273,659	9,387,596	11,886,063		20
1822.....	25,082,390	7,267,119	18,515,271		20
1823.....	37,337,732	20,900,687	16,437,045	5	20
1824.....	30,224,296	19,427,227	19,707,024		20
1825.....	45,390,620	24,512,568	20,678,062		17
1826.....	37,319,107	11,584,713	31,734,784		11
1827.....	50,051,986	21,697,789	28,350,197		11
1828.....	55,194,697	16,037,964	39,156,733		9
1829.....	51,133,538	18,083,843	33,049,695	5	9
1830.....	51,488,248	13,124,561	38,363,687		8½
1831.....	81,747,386	6,056,629	75,702,757	2	8
1832.....	91,722,329	55,251,158	40,471,171	1	10
1833.....	99,955,020	24,899,114	75,057,906		10
1834.....	80,150,365	35,806,861	44,346,505		10
1835.....	103,193,777	11,446,775	91,752,802		10
1836.....	93,790,507	16,143,207	77,647,300		10
1837.....	88,140,403	12,096,332	76,044,071		10
1838.....	88,139,720	5,267,087	82,872,633		9
1839.....	106,696,992	6,824,475	99,872,633		9
1840.....	94,996,095	8,698,334	86,207,761		9
1841.....	144,987,787	5,784,536	109,200,247		9
1842.....	112,764,635	5,381,068	107,383,567	free.	8
1843.....	82,295,660	6,378,994	85,916,666		6½
1844.....	158,332,111	8,620,291	149,711,820		6
1845.....	108,133,369	13,501,972	94,631,397		6
1846.....	132,812,734	8,275,542	124,537,192		6½
1847.....	156,716,575	6,883,583	150,332,992		5½
1848.....	150,559,138	6,998,088	143,561,050		5½
1849.....	165,334,700	14,880,429	150,954,271		5½
1850.....	144,986,895	15,287,499	129,699,396		8
1851.....	152,453,617	3,513,126	148,920,491		8

The population of the United States in 1840 was, in round numbers, 17 millions. The average consumption for the three years 1839-40-41 was  $98\frac{1}{2}$  millions of pounds, which gave a consumption of  $5\frac{3}{4}$  pounds per head. The average for the three years including the census year 1850, was 143 millions of pounds, and the population was 23 millions, which gave a consumption of  $6\frac{1}{4}$  pounds per head. In 1830 the consumption was only 3 pounds per head; but the price had ruled nearly double what it did in the three years preceding 1850. In 1821 the consumption per head to the inhabitants of the United States was 1 pound 4 ounces. In 1830 the proportion had increased to 3 pounds per head, the foreign price having fallen 50 per cent. After the 31st December, 1830, coffee paid 2 cents, and in 1831, 1 cent; after which it was free. The importation in the year 1831 doubled in consequence of the reduced duty, and the consumption per head for the four years ending with 1842 averaged 6 pounds per head, having quadrupled to each inhabitant since 1821. A large proportion of the increased consumption, as seen above, is derived from the Brazils; the effect of the production of which country has been to the price of coffee, what the products of the Southern States have been to that of cotton. From 1820 to 1840, the Brazilian product increased 1,100 per cent, or 155,000,000 pounds. In the same time the consumption in the United States increased 137,000,000 pounds; leaving an increase of 18,000,000 pounds of Rio Coffee, besides the enhanced products of all countries, to supply the increased consumption of England and Europe. The result has been the great diminution in price evinced in the above table. The cost per pound to the consumer was in 1831 further reduced by the removal of the duty; that is, the coffee which cost 9 cents in 1830, cost the consumer 16 cents duty and charges. The same coffee now costs 7 cents—a reduction of 9 cents, which has given the spur to the consumption. In England, foreign coffee paid 16 cents per pound duty, and colonial coffee 8 cents, until 1845, when colonial was reduced to 3d. and foreign to 7d. The consequence is, that while the United States, with a population of 17,000,000, consumed in 1844, 149,711,820 pounds of coffee, Great Britain, with a population of 27,000,000, consumed 31,934,000 pounds only, or less than one-fourth the consumption of the United States. In 1851 the figures remained nearly the same, viz:—148,920,000 pounds in the United States, and 32,564,000 pounds for Great Britain. Now the effect of this increased consumption of Brazil coffee on the American trade is as follows:—

	1834.	1843.	1851.
Import of coffee from Brazil . . . . . lbs.	26,571,368	49,515,666	107,578,257
“ “ “ . . . . . value.	\$2,819,028	\$3,392,960	\$8,881,105
Export of United States produce to Brazil . . .	1,586,097	2,409,419	3,128,956

This increased export does not appear to suffice for the compensation of the large increase in the value of coffee purchased, and it is time that some movement were made to check English influence in that quarter and induce Brazil to place her best coffee customer at least on as favorable footing as others.

Considerable ingenuity has been displayed in devising apparatus for preparing coffee for the table. The ordinary coffee-pot is the plainest and simplest of all; there is no contrivance for filtering the coffee. In Dresden and other parts of Germany, a thick piece of flannel, or some other woven material, is laid in a funnel, the ground coffee is placed on the flannel, and the boiling water filters through the coffee, the flannel, and the funnel, to a

vessel below—carrying with it the flavor of the coffee without the grounds or sediment.

Platow's Automaton Coffee-Pot has for its object to make coffee in less time and in a better manner than by the ordinary method. The machine consists of two parts. There is at the top a glass vase which screws off and on by means of wooden handles, and is furnished with a long narrow straight tube, resembling the pipe of a common funnel, and reaching nearly to the bottom of a metallic urn placed beneath the vase. Boiling water is poured into the vase in quantity sufficient for the coffee to be made; and this is allowed to descend into the urn. The ground coffee is then placed within the vase, on a small perforated silver plate. A lamp containing spirit or naphtha is placed beneath the urn, and in a short time the peculiar action of the apparatus develops itself. The steam formed on the surface of the water in the urn forces, by its elasticity, the water up the tube into the glass vase; where it acts upon the coffee in the usual way for extracting the qualities of the berry. When the coffee is so far prepared and is required to be *finer*, the lamp is removed, the formation of steam ceases, a partial vacuum is formed in the urn, and the external atmosphere, pressing on the open vase, presses or strains the coffee, first through the grounds and then through the perforated silver plate, so that it trickles into the urn in the state of a pure bright decoction. It is thus seen that the liquid makes two descents and one ascent between the vase and the urn, during the process. In a cheaper form of the apparatus, a common fire or lamp is used instead of a spirit lamp.

A coffee-pot of rather complicated structure was patented by Mr. Andrews of Wolverhampton in 1842. This coffee-pot had no less an adjunct than a small forcing-pump, placed near the handle. The boiling water was poured in the forcing-pump, while the ground coffee was put in a perforated vessel in the middle of the coffee-pot, and the hot water being forced by the pump, was made to saturate the ground coffee in a way which (we presume) was supposed to produce a result adequate to the costliness of the apparatus.

Waller's Coffee-Pot, patented in 1847, differs in many particulars from all the others. A horizontal partition, perforated near the center with fine holes, divides the vessel into two equal chambers; an open pipe leads nearly from the top of the upper chamber to near the bottom of the lower chamber, and another pipe leads from the perforations some way down the lower chamber, with a tap or cock which can be worked by a handle protruding through the side of the coffee-pot. The requisite quantity of water, either hot or cold, is poured into the upper chamber, and allowed to flow through the perforations and small pipe into the lower chamber; the ground coffee is placed on the perforated plate, the spout is closed with a cork or plug, and the vessel is placed on the fire. As the water becomes heated, the steam generated has no outlet upwards or sideways, and it therefore presses on the water, and forces it up the long pipe, whence it falls into the upper chamber upon the ground coffee. When all the water is thus forced up, the coffee-pot is removed from the fire, the vacuum in the lower chamber is condensed, the plug is removed from the spout, the top of the short pipe is opened, and the water trickles through the ground coffee and through the perforations into the lower vessel imbibing all the soluble and aromatic properties of the coffee as it descends.\*

\* Knight's Cyclopedia.

## ART. V.—RAILROADS IN THE GREAT VALLEY.

THE steam horse has commenced his career on the Western plains. For many years he has preferred to follow the small valleys, and wind among the hills of the Atlantic slope, venturing first through the Mohawk Gap, and proceeding with cautious movement to the eastern shore of Lake Erie. At long intervals he has also lent his aid to the planter in crossing the pine desert which borders the Southern States.

The broad plain embraced by the mountain ranges of the continent and the Gulf of Mexico is now, from one extremity to the other, invoking his presence. Hitherto, his exploits have been accomplished where natural obstacles were most numerous. Hereafter, the chief field of his operations will be in the wide plain of the North American continent, where he may fly along the track from city to city, from lake to lake, and from lake to gulf, without turning to the right or to the left. What a field for his exploits! In extent, numbering square miles by the million; its present population counting more, by two millions, than all the old States east of the mountains, and, within the life-time of persons now living, to number two hundred millions. According to a calculation, made with care, it appears that the people living on this plain, within our national limits, in 1850 numbered 12,541,139, counting only those north-westward of the principal range of the Apalachian Mountains. Within the next twenty years this number will swell to twenty-six millions. The Canadas and New Brunswick, within the plain, contain about two millions of people, and within the twenty years will have some four millions. Here will then be thirty millions living on a rich soil, in a variety of climates, embracing an abundant supply of mineral and vegetable riches, to be exchanged with each other and with neighboring communities. During the last twenty years railroads have increased in the United States from 176 miles in 1832, to nearly 12,000 miles in 1852. Their extent, at the end of the twenty years to come, cannot safely be predicted. That it will exceed fifty thousand miles is quite probable. It may be well to consider what routes occupied, partly occupied, and yet undetermined, promise greatest utility to stockholders and the public. To this consideration should be brought a good knowledge of the topography of the country, with some familiarity with the course of trade, and the capabilities of the various sections to furnish traffic to railroad lines.

There are some routes so strongly marked that one needs only a tolerable knowledge of the geography of the country to point to them on the map with almost unerring certainty. One of these is that which connects Buffalo and Albany. It occupies the only gate-way through the Apalachian mountains, except the comparatively unimportant one by Lake Champlain. Indeed, the valleys of the Mohawk and Lake Champlain furnish a passage-way between the two sides of our Atlantic system of mountains, that no other routes can safely attempt a rivalry, except at a great distance. By railroads from Oswego and Buffalo to Albany and Troy, the railroad traffic of four millions of people on the Atlantic slope will be exchanged for that of some six millions north-west of the mountains. All the other roads, connecting and to connect the West and East, necessarily encounter numerous comparatively high grades and many curves, making their distance practically greater between New York and the heart of the West, than the level route through central New York. The routes over the mountains to Philadel-

phia, Baltimore, Washington, Richmond, Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah, may divide among them the business of some four or five millions living in the western valley. Those leading to Philadelphia and Baltimore will naturally draw most of this business, because they are large cities; and still more, perhaps, because they are on the road to New York and the Eastern States. These routes, already occupied, are mentioned in this connection because they necessarily give direction to the railroads making, and to be made, in the West, with a view to Eastern traffic.

It seems as certain as anything in the future can be that the States north of the Ohio River, together with those west of the Mississippi, north of the latitude of the mouth of the Ohio, will, ultimately, if not immediately, direct their railroad lines, made with a view to Eastern business, *so as to form the easiest connection with the New York roads*. This will give to most of the great lines of this portion of the West a general direction from southwest to north-east. To this there will be an important extension of all that portion which is north of the latitude of the southerly bend of Lake Michigan. The railroads of the peninsula of Michigan, for many years to come, will naturally be directed from all quarters towards Detroit, as a market, a port of transshipment, and as a passage-way through Canada; and towards Toledo, as the gate-way to the country south of Lake Erie and to Cincinnati. Westward of Lake Michigan, the railroads will be directed chiefly towards Chicago, in order to pass the lake for a winter business in the East.

Of the routes commenced but not finished, the one most likely to rival in importance that through the Mohawk gap, is that which will occupy, as nearly as practicable, the line of latitude which touches the south shore of Lake Michigan, from the Mississippi to Toledo, and which passes thence eastward along the south shore of Lake Erie to Buffalo. This necessarily takes an east and west course between the heads of the lakes, and it follows the shore of Lake Erie, because that is the most direct course towards Buffalo, and because the great gathering points of Commerce are on that shore. As a trunk-road for the convergence of business from other roads, and from lakes and canals, it has no rival and can have no equal in the United States. Near the south bend of lake Michigan it must gather in for a passage eastward all the winter traffic and much of the summer travel and trade of the vast country west of that lake, aided by converging railroads, plank-roads, and the Illinois Canal. On its way from Chicago to Toledo it will receive from the South several tributary roads, bearing produce for shipment down the lakes. One of these is in progress of construction, and two others are being prepared for letting. At Toledo it will receive from the North the business of the Southern Michigan Road and a railroad from Detroit, hereafter to be made. At the same point it will connect with six hundred and ninety miles of canal and a railroad to St. Louis.

This, at some future day, will itself become one of the great trunk-lines of the country. From the South will come in, at Toledo, a railroad forming the shortest practicable road between Cincinnati and the navigable waters of Lake Erie. This is progressing northward of Dayton, and may be expected to reach Toledo in two or three years. Proceeding eastward, two railroads, now in operation, come in at Sandusky City—one from Cincinnati, and the other from Zanesville. At Cleveland it is joined by two railroads, branching off to Cincinnati and Pittsburg. Other roads are being made from the forest city, into which, also, flows the Commerce of six hundred miles of artificial navigation. At Erie it is to be met by the Sunbury Rail-

road, opening a way to Philadelphia and Baltimore. It also connects here with a canal to Pittsburg. At Dunkirk it receives the New York and Erie Railroad; and, finally, at Buffalo it becomes one with the great Mohawk Valley trunk-line.

Taking the whole of this line, from Rock Island, on the Mississippi, to the city of New York, its peer cannot be found in the United States, nor, as it seems to me, in the world.

Another trunk-line of some three hundred miles extent, having an east and west course, will connect Cincinnati and St. Louis. This is understood to be under contract at nine millions of dollars. Two others, one from Memphis, the other from Vicksburg, will connect the South-Western States with the South-Eastern at Charleston and Savannah. The above-mentioned are all the trunk-lines likely to be made, nearly following lines of latitude.

The other great trunk-lines of the West will have a general course south-westerly and north-easterly. Many and cogent reasons favor this opinion. Such is the general course of the great rivers east of the Mississippi. The mountain and hill ranges are, of course, in the same direction. The commercial and manufacturing States and cities are north-east of the chief commercial and manufacturing cities of the great valley. The British Provinces and the United Kingdom, with whom is the main portion of the foreign Commerce of the West, are situated north-easterly of its center of business and population. Whether this foreign Commerce chooses for its channel the St. Lawrence River or the Erie Canal and central New York railroads, the railroads from Nashville, Louisville, Cincinnati, Cairo, and St. Louis must reach it in a north-easterly direction.

The English and Irish Channels, through which passes the greater part of our Commerce with Europe, are in the same latitude as the main entrance into the Atlantic, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The course of water transport, from the west end of Lake Erie to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is nearly in the same line as the railroads, which would connect with this water channel the center of the Mississippi basin, at St. Louis and Cairo.

The distance in a straight line from Cairo to Toledo is.....miles	433
“ “ “ “ Chicago.....	335
“ “ “ “ St. Louis to Toledo.....	408
“ “ “ “ Chicago.....	258

It has been stated, as a controlling reason why these railroads should be directed to the south shore of Lake Erie, that they would there enter the best railroad route to New York and the New England States. In summer another motive is added. When navigation is open on the lakes and the Erie Canal, the traffic is floated at so cheap a rate, and in such safety, that, for anything but passengers and light freight of great value, railroads passing in the same direction, or towards the same destination, cannot compete with success. Even for passengers, the proud steamers of the lakes will hold, with their rival carriers of the land, a divided empire. This is especially true where the route by water is not materially longer than by land. That the lake route is preferred to that by the great rivers, in intercourse with the eastern world, and is growing in favor among the travelers of the western valley, is shown by the more rapid extension of lake than of river Commerce. According to a late report of the Secretary of the Treasury made to the Senate, in obedience to its call, the steam tonnage on the upper lakes has more than quadrupled in eight years, while, on the Mississippi,

it had only doubled in nine years. The sailing tonnage on the lakes increased in a nearly equal ratio with that of steam. As the steam tonnage of the lakes exceeded that of the Ohio or Mississippi basin, and as the tonnage of sailing vessels is scarcely less than two-thirds that of steam, it seems certain that the aggregate tonnage of the lakes must now nearly, if not quite, equal that of the western rivers.

We have said that lake navigation was safer than river. According to the document just referred to, the number of persons lost on the lakes during the year ending July 1st, 1851, was sixty-seven, (67,) and on the rivers, during the same time, six hundred and twenty-eight, (628.) This comparison does not tell the whole story; for while the lake air is proverbially pure and health-giving, no small portion of the river navigation subjects the traveler to fever-engendering malaria. As a water route, therefore, the lakes should be preferred for travel and freighting. This preference, thus shown to be well founded, should be duly appreciated when long and expensive lines of railroad are to be constructed.

The great interior commercial centers, in the river portion of the valley, are Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis. Perhaps Cairo may become one. Pittsburg holds its communication with the lake region through Cleveland and Erie. Cincinnati has its present railroad connecting with the lakes at Cleveland and Sandusky. To the former the distance is 259 miles, to the latter 219 miles. An air line to Cleveland would measure 220 miles, to Sandusky 184 miles, and to Toledo 180 miles. A near approximation to an air line would be more feasible to Sandusky and Toledo than to Cleveland, as it would involve less additional cost over the cheapest practicable route. An air line to Detroit, through Toledo, would be 135 miles in length.

For passengers between Cincinnati, Erie, and Buffalo, the Cleveland Road will be preferred. For railroad freights the shorter and cheaper lines to Toledo and Sandusky, in summer, will have the preference. The heavy freights, between Cincinnati and Lake Erie, will, of course, pass by canal, to and from Toledo. The cost of a railroad between these ports will be less, by some 25 per cent, than the Sandusky Road, owing to its having been a pioneer road, paying more for iron, &c., has cost. It may, also, be constructed for a less amount per mile, by some 20 per cent, than that which connects Cincinnati with Cleveland.

And here it will be appropriate to direct our attention to another of the main trunk-lines of the valley, passing through Cincinnati. Perhaps, in the far future, it may be as important as that which skirts the south shore of the great lake. Commencing at Detroit and terminating at New Orleans and Mobile, it would pass through the cities of Cincinnati, Lexington, and Nashville, and the important commercial towns, Toledo, Dayton, and Florence, besides numerous places of less note. By a short branch from the Mobile line, it would reach Pensacola; and, by roads already made, it would meet the south shore trunk-road at Cleveland and Sandusky—by the former, passing through the flourishing city of Columbus. By this road the principal gulf cities and lake cities would be brought into close communion of interest and feeling. In a straight line, the distance between Detroit and New Orleans is 940 miles. A feasible route could probably be found not exceeding one thousand miles. By river, from New Orleans to Cincinnati it is 1,556 miles, and thence, by the shortest traveled route, to Detroit, over 300 miles—together 1,860 miles. This road, if judiciously

located and managed, would, beyond a doubt, be profitable to its owners. Its way business, if it had no other, would insure that result.

Louisville and New Orleans will, probably, find the best railroad connection with the lake roads by way of Madison, Lawrenceburg, and Dayton. The Cincinnati roads, thence to Lake Erie, will be their roads.

The Central Railroad of Illinois, in connection with its continuation from Cairo to New Orleans and Mobile, and which we will call the Cairo line, is by some deemed the most important trunk-line between the gulf and the lakes. Compared with that which is to pass through Cincinnati, Nashville, &c., it seems to fall quite in the rear. Neither the towns, the natural resources, the populousness of the region it traverses, nor its railroad connections, are equal to those of the Cincinnati line. It has, besides, the disadvantage of reaching Lake Michigan at a point from which, in the transaction of its eastern business, a navigation of more than 700 miles must be performed in order to meet the advanced position on Lake Erie which the Cincinnati line first reaches. This will be a cheap navigation, but it will cost something, and in spring and fall will call for a heavy rate of insurance. The Cincinnati line will have the advantage, too, in its connection with the railroads leading from Nashville to Charleston and Savannah. The time seems distant, if it shall ever arrive, when any other route between the lakes and the Gulf of Mexico will take precedence of that through Cincinnati. The Cairo line, commencing at New Orleans and passing through Jackson, would have the advantage of the railroad business of the river towns, Vicksburg, Memphis, &c., and, by taking a course from Cairo through Indianapolis to Toledo, reach Lake Erie by a line only 100 miles longer than that to Chicago.

Another trunk-line, destined to a high rank, is that which is to connect St. Louis, the city of the Mississippi, with Lake Erie, at Toledo. Its length by an air line would be 408 miles, and by the most profitable route need not exceed 430 miles. It would pass over the lowest summit level between the upper lakes and the river valley, with the exception of that near Chicago. The summit at Fort Wayne is less than two hundred feet above the lake, and, practically, the whole route may be considered horizontal. It passes along the richest river valleys that can be united in one line between the great lakes and rivers; and its course is right for the most direct intercourse between the northern Atlantic States, Canada, and Europe, and the center of the great valley. For heavy freight, it could not compete successfully with the route from St. Louis, by way of Illinois River and Canal. The distance by the two routes to Lake Erie would compare as follows:—

From St. Louis to Lake Erie by railroad . . . . .	miles	430	via Toledo.
“ “ “ “ by rivers, canals, and lakes . . . . .		1,067	via Chicago.
“ “ “ “ by railroad and lakes . . . . .		970	via Chicago.

For passengers and freight of high value in proportion to weight, the direct route would be preferred in summer, and would monopolize the business in winter. At St. Louis and Toledo, the extent of navigation it would connect would be great, and the railroads it would meet extensive. This is to be one of thousands, the way business of which is sure to pay a fair dividend from the start, and the termini of which are, by nature and art, the greatest gathering points of Commerce, by water and by land, which can anywhere be found.

Another very important trunk-road, between St. Louis and Cleveland, passing through Vandalia, Terre Haute, Indianapolis, Sydney, Marion, and

Shelby, is in the same general direction, and it cannot fail to transact a large through passenger business and a way traffic that would of itself give it a liberal support. Eastern freights on that portion of this road west of Bellefontain, destined for water transport, will find their cheapest route by way of Toledo and Sandusky.

Several of the trunk-lines herein mentioned will be continued west of the Mississippi. At least two important lines will be occupied from St. Louis—one in a north-westerly direction to Jefferson City and Independence, and the other south-westerly into Arkansas. From Hannibal and Davenport, on the Upper Mississippi, roads westward to the Missouri River are in contemplation. The former will connect with a line through Springfield, in Illinois, to Lafayette, Iowa, and the latter with the Rock Island Road to Chicago.

A trunk-line of great importance will be that which, as a continuation of the roads which gather from the West and South-West at the head of Lake Erie, takes its course north of Lakes Erie and Ontario, and so on down the St. Lawrence to Quebec, and thence to Halifax. The various links of which it is composed will probably be constructed within the next five years. This will be a rival line to those by New York and Boston for the travel between Europe and the great valley.

The foregoing seem to be the leading routes along which the most profitable railroads of the great plain will be operated. They will be the main lines on which, within twenty years, the thirty millions of the plain will carry on their traffic with each other, with some fifteen millions on the Atlantic border, and the land portion of their Commerce with foreign nations. At how small a cost per mile they may be built and operated, compared with the railroads of Great Britain and the Eastern States, is worthy of special note. The average cost in Great Britain has been about \$170,000 per mile. Mr. Derby, last year, made the average cost of all the railroads in the United States a fraction less than \$30,000 per mile. According to a tabular statement of this Magazine, (vol. xxv., p. 121.) the cost in Rhode Island was upwards of \$52,000 per mile; in Massachusetts, \$45,433; in Pennsylvania, \$40,576; in Maryland, \$36,250; in New York, \$36,861; in Vermont, \$35,367; in Connecticut, \$31,757; in New Hampshire, \$30,618; in Maine, \$26,338; in South Carolina, \$24,807; and in New Jersey, \$24,490. In all the other States the cost has been less than \$20,000 per mile.

Some of these have not been thoroughly built, and are, therefore, no criterion of the cost of roads of the best construction. Improvements in superstructure, and reduced price of rails, enable companies at the present time to build at less than heretofore. The railroads now in operation in the West have cost from \$14,000 to \$20,000 per mile. One of the best, the Cleveland and Columbus, cost \$18,244. It could now be made as well for about \$15,000.

A railroad eastward of Fort Wayne, Ia., upwards of 130 miles long, is understood to have been let to responsible contractors, to be made and finished for the running of the engine, including equipage, engine-houses, and stations, at \$12,000 the mile. Several of the trunk-roads before mentioned, with iron at present prices, could be built in the best manner for \$15,000 the mile. That from St. Louis to Toledo could be made deviating but slightly from a straight line, and with a profile as nearly horizontal as could be desired. It could probably be prepared for business for six millions. If any one thinks stock in this road would not be better than in a quartz mining company of California, we are not of his opinion.

The ability of western railroads to pay their owners a large profit has been fully proved. It is but a short time since the first railroad west of Pennsylvania, laid with a T rail, was brought into use. The Madison and Indianapolis, though not one of the great routes, paid during its last fiscal year 10 per cent dividend, after setting aside \$100,000 surplus for permanent improvement of the road. It is well known that the Central and Southern Michigan Roads have paid well, although the former cost too much, and the latter has but recently had its chief portion laid with a T rail. Neither has had the advantage of any eastern or western connection with other roads.

The Cleveland and Columbus Railroad has much exceeded the expectations of its sanguine friends in the amount of business it has commanded, and the profits it has been able to divide. The same remarks are applicable, in a degree, to the Little Miami and Mad River Roads. No well constructed and well managed western road has failed to yield a large income. Such being the result, in the infancy of the country, and without a connection with the eastern system of railroads, what may we not reasonably expect when the population shall be trebled, their economical resources quadrupled, and connections formed with other lines east, west, north, and south; all which may be relied on to come to pass within twenty years.

The trunk-roads of the plain will possess an advantage over those in a country of hills and ridges, in the feasibility of making branch roads in any direction which the local wants of villages may require. They will, also, be much aided by plank-roads which, in the wooded country, are being made from nearly every considerable village, and from the more important prairie townships.

The great plain is provided by nature, in her rivers and lakes, with navigable waters, in length of shores to be counted by tens of thousands of miles. Within twenty years more than ten thousand miles of railroad, and double that extent of plank-roads, will connect its various parts. From mountain to mountain, and from lake to gulf, in a web that will embrace the whole surface, telegraph wires will exchange thoughts, giving to the entire population of 30,000,000 a community of ideas and interests which must soon mold them into a decided homogeneousness of character.

By means of the St. Lawrence waters, improved for the passage of large sea-going vessels to the upper lakes, a direct ocean Commerce will be established; and, by the Mississippi, ocean steamers will visit Cincinnati, Louisville, Cairo, and St. Louis. Twenty years soon pass away—but their effects on the beautiful plain, magical, as from the rapidity with which they are evolved, they may seem, will last forever. Before its last lustrum shall be entered upon, the delusion, so hugged in the Atlantic cities, that with them is to remain the empire of Commerce for this continent, will, to eyes that are open, be clearly visible.

How rapid is the transition! It seems but yesterday, when, to be carried 80 miles through the long day and night, seemed a great advance on the earlier means of western travel. A few short years will enable men living on the great lakes and the Mexican Gulf to meet each other by the light of the same day, on the morning of which they leave their respective homes. Four-fifths of the dwellers of the plain, when the lines of railroad now commenced shall be completed, with their tributaries of rail and plank-roads, will be able to meet each other in some central place, with the travel of one day; and half of them may have ample time for coming together "from rise of morn to set of sun." The people of the Rocky Mountains

may exchange salutations with their neighbors of the Alleghanies on the second day of their journey towards each other. Who can doubt that railroads and telegraphs will make us one country in heart as in government; and that the great plain, already preponderating in population, will fix within her bosom, during the present century, the great seats of Commerce and power of the nation.

J. W. S.

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## ART. VI.—PROTECTION vs. FREE TRADE.

### THE LAW OF PROGRESS IN THE RELATIONS OF CAPITAL AND LABOR.

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

SIR:—In the article of Professor Smith in the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1852, he appears somewhat discontented that the discussion between him and myself has not been carried on under a correct title. He has, however, no one to thank but himself for this circumstance; for it arose out of his Quixotic attempt, at all hazards, to defend Mr. Carey's theory of political economy, even if he broke in unceremoniously upon the discussion of another subject, in which Mr. Carey's views were only incidentally mentioned. For my part, I have no objection to any title which he may please to give it, or to any issue which he may wish to make. He will be aware before this reaches him, that I have instinctively followed the course which he has pointed out, though it is that which he has not very concisely followed himself. Having got thus far, I am rather at a loss to proceed, for the Professor appears something like a man in the *bush*, who, being without a compass, has lost his way, and therefore goes round and round, until he comes again to the spot from whence he started. I am also fearful that I may fall into the same track, for, having given up all idea that the Professor would make any further remarks upon my last, I transmitted to you, several weeks since, a rejoinder, of which I have not a correct copy, and therefore such a circumstance is very probable.

But to the subject. The first and second pages appear to be quite irrelevant to the point at issue, and can only have been written to lead the mind of the reader from the real question. We are not at issue upon the increasing facilities of the production of manufactures, nor upon the decreasing price of such articles: these are two points upon which we perfectly agree. On the third page I find the following: "R. S., and those who think with him, will *not* admit the supposition, that the total product is *not* increased, by at least a sufficient per centage to pay the increased proportion going to labor, without impairing the remainder belonging to profit. To establish this would be to prove that, in the progress of society, labor is devouring capital." Now this does not appear to me very intelligible at first sight, and I am not certain that I understand it, or even that the Professor himself is aware of its purport. Now, if we will *not* admit, "that the total product is *not* increased," &c., we must hold to the contrary, but this would have precisely the opposite effect, to that which the Professor states. The remuneration of labor being increased, while the profit on capital remained the same, labor would obtain all the advantage, *without* devouring the capital. But this would be *equally fatal* to the Carey theory, because the *rate* of profit is known to decrease in all countries, and therefore no accumulations

could take place, except from the savings of labor; and no increased portion could accrue to the capitalist as taught by Mr. Carey. Neither Ricardo nor McCulloch saw clearly the operation of the principle of rent, or they could not have supposed that profits could have been kept intact merely by keeping the *rate* of wages down. For if we were to concede the Carey theory, that the most productive soils are last cultivated, the increased production arising from that circumstance could avail nothing against the extra expense of carrying the products two or three thousand miles, and of replacing the fertility of the soil, constantly abstracted by the increase of population; and therefore from these two circumstances a constantly increasing *amount* of labor is required, to bring the same *relative* amount of necessaries to the point of consumption. When the lowest kind of labor has been brought to that point of remuneration at which nature refuses to increase the number of that class, by its own propagation, the encroachment of rent continues, by the increase and competition of the other classes of society, until the rate of profit reaches that point at which further accumulation becomes impossible; and if population still continues to increase, capital must be consumed. We may be satisfied of this, by observing the continued decrease of the rate of profit in England, as well as the continued and increasing amount of emigration. While upon this point I must be excused for referring again to the Professor's article of November, in reference to Mr. Porter's statistics.

He says: "In order to give their proper weight to the facts collected by Mr. Porter, we ought to take into account the population of the British islands at the periods to which they relate. Thus, between 1812 and 1848 the population increased about 50 per cent: according to the theory of Malthus and R. S., the number of persons having incomes between £150 and £500 ought to have increased in a lower ratio, but, in point of fact, it has increased threefold. There ought to have been less than 46,000 of them, while there were 91,101, or twice as many as the law of the English economists allows."

Now I am not aware, that the English economists have laid down any law by which the relative increase of population and income should be regulated, but I think the more we study these statistics the more we shall be satisfied that they thoroughly accord with the Malthusian and Ricardo doctrine. It is true that an idea had got abroad that, *relative* to population, England was decreasing in wealth, no doubt from the writings of the "Anti-Corn-Law League," and the serious decrease in the revenue; and still this may be the fact, Mr. Porter's statistics notwithstanding. Mr. Porter has, however, proved, that the income of a very small portion of the population has increased, but the increase of that income is "very nearly threefold greater than the increase during the same period, of *that portion* of the population of the United Kingdom subject to the income tax."

The statement is, that there are 91,101 individuals—of course including clergymen, lawyers, merchants, tradesmen, confidential clerks, agents, engineers, professional men of all descriptions, public servants, landowners and fundholders, and skilled mechanics, whose incomes are between fifteen dollars a week and fifty—while the whole of the *upper* and *middle* classes include only 109,000 persons—something over one three-hundredth part of the whole population. After all, this is no proof that the wealth of England has materially increased; there are the 299 individuals to each one of the hundred thousand, whose wealth or income, according to Lord John

Russell and the "Commissioners of Inquiry," have been diminished, which would allow a pretty good margin for accumulation, without any absolute increase of capital. At any rate it is a startling fact disclosed by these statistics, that all the appendages of wealth and luxury are enjoyed—everything beyond the mere necessaries of life, by one three-hundredth part of the population of Great Britain. We cannot forget in the meantime, that the number of landowners has decreased, from two hundred and forty to thirty thousand, and that the late Sir Robert Peel was obliged to lay a tax on property and income to maintain the revenue. Verily the Professor's "law of progress" works slowly in England, and probably he will admit that circumstances alter cases, that the law works in an inverse ratio—the *many* grow poor while the *few* grow rich. But I must return to the third page of the January article, from which I take the following: "If the theory of R. S. is correct—if capital has been gaining power at the expense of labor, and that in virtue of a permanent law, which must continue to operate in the future as in the past—then it is clear, that a duplication of *real* wages must have been and must ever be accompanied by more than a duplication of profits. If it were not, profits would recede relatively to wages, and our case would be made out. If it were, then the increase of wages and the still greater increase of profits must be attended by a diminution of the share of products going to rent, which is equally fatal to the Malthusian hypothesis. The conclusion is to be avoided only by supposing the increase of production sufficiently large to cover a duplication and more than a duplication of rent, after satisfying the double demand of labor and the more than double demand of capital. All this, too, be it remembered, with a reduction in the cost of commodities to the consumer of more than fifty per cent."

The whole of this paragraph is a mass of mere sophistry, a tissue of misrepresentation and false reasoning. In the first place no one has said, "that capital has been gaining power at the expense of labor, in virtue of a permanent law, which must continue to operate in the future as in the past." The law laid down by Ricardo and others with respect to wages, may be stated as follows: the wages of common labor must always recede to the amount required to command the absolute necessaries of life; and when the price of necessaries permanently rises the money rate of wages must also rise, to cover the extra cost, or the laborers must diminish in number, until an equilibrium is produced, either by an increase of the rate of wages or a decrease in the price of necessaries. When labor is mixed with capital, as it is in the case of skilled labor, notwithstanding this circumstance it must to a considerable extent follow the same law; especially where the amount of capital required to learn the trade or profession is small. Therefore all the simpler operations of manufacturing industry may be classed in this category. The Professor speaks in the latter part of the sentence I have referred to, as though any one besides himself had supposed, or hinted, that a duplication of *real* wages had at any time taken place since the fall of Adam. It may be admitted, that in most cases of the invention or improvement of machinery, the workmen have to some extent shared in the extra amount of profit produced by those inventions; but when the monopoly of the invention ceases, wages always come down to the common level. And as improvements in machinery are more effective for the production of manufactures than for food and raw material, the manufacturing capitalist has had the opportunity, not only of reducing his workmen to the lowest

necessary rate of wages, but the reduction in the amount of labor required, by improvements in machinery, for the production of a given amount of manufactures, has allowed him at various times to obtain an increased rate of profit, at the same time that he reduced the price of his goods; and this was no doubt the case of Lowell. But when the competition of the foreign manufacturer became more intense, through the repeal of the British "corn law," and the discovery of Californian gold, the capitalist doubled the amount of machinery to each hand, and thereby nearly doubled the amount of production, while wages remained nominally the same, although, as I have since heard, they were absolutely increased, if reckoned in money; but not relatively to production. The corporations of Lowell, as I understand, have been in the habit of finding the hands board, and as the prices of food and other necessaries increased, the price of board was also increased, at the expense of the corporations; this may serve to show the operation of the principle of rent, upon the profits of capital and labor. But the time arrived, when for the interest of the capitalist it became necessary that the rate of wages should be absolutely reduced, and as this was already too low for the convenience of the operatives, many of them chose to migrate in search of other employment, and the mills either became silent or worked with little or no profit at all. Thus if wages have not been lowered in money rate, we may say with Carlyle, "Thanks to the inexhaustible West."

Before taking my final leave of the very ingenious paragraph which I have quoted, I would remind the Professor, that "the reduction in the cost of commodities to the consumer of more than fifty per cent," relates only to those commodities of which manufacturing wages form the greatest part of the cost of production—the prices of food and raw material tending constantly to increase. With regard to my views "in reference to rent entering into the price of commodities," I think Professor Smith might have gleaned that from my previous articles; but, not wishing to be misunderstood, I will take the opportunity to say, that in my opinion, there can be no doubt, that all the *equal* and necessary expenses of production must eventually enter into the price of every commodity, but as rent is evoked by the excess of demand over supply, although it be a component part of the price, it is not an element of cost, and it would be paid whether the supply be increased or not, acting as a premium upon land capital: and therefore what may be correctly termed rent does not enhance the price of any commodity.

I must now pass over a certain quotation from Malthus, which appears to have been a very necessary prop to the learned Professor's argument, for he has quoted it three or four times, and also the page from McCulloch, to come the more readily at the Professor's summing up of that page. It is as follows: "It teaches that wages rise because labor becomes more inefficient—that more is given because less is received—that capital pays a larger dividend to labor, because the fund from which it has to pay is diminished. Now, it is true, that the exposition from McCulloch, of the operation of wages and cultivation, is not quite so guardedly expressed as to prevent a disingenuous construction, but Professor Smith must be aware that it will not bear such a construction as he has put upon it. Let us quote: "A rise in wages is seldom or never exactly coincident with a rise in the price of necessaries, but they can never be very far separated. The price of the necessaries of life is, in fact, the cost of producing labor. The laborer cannot work if he is not supplied with the means of subsistence." Thus, in-

stead of wages having a tendency to rise, according to this they have a tendency to fall, and in the nature of things they cannot rise, beyond a bare subsistence. Neither is it exactly correct to say, that "labor becomes more inefficient," but, rather, that the land upon which it is necessarily employed, is less fertile, or at a greater distance from market; and therefore it requires a greater amount of labor for the production of a given amount of food. It would therefore be more correct to say, that as capital becomes more inefficient, the price of the necessaries of life has a tendency to rise, and therefore *real* wages diminish, but as it is necessary that the laborer should exist, the money rate must be increased to make good the deficiency. That would have been much nearer the truth; but let us see how American labor is paid.

The Professor says: "Our system, on the contrary, teaches that labor is more highly paid, both as to proportion and as to absolute amount, when it contributes and where it contributes, and because it contributes most to swell the gross quantity of the products out of which, or from the value of which, wages must be derived, when, and where, and because, it is most productive." This description of the mode of remunerating labor in this country appears to me equally loose with that of McCulloch, and in fact not *very* materially different, but with the characteristic ingenuity of Professor Smith, it could no doubt be made to mean anything, to suit circumstances. The Lowell operatives, however, were not paid according to production, but according to the necessary rate of subsistence, in the same manner as the English laborer. When the price of food raised, the increased cost was paid out of the profits of *capital* instead of wages. The Professor continues: "It (labor) is not allowed to monopolize *all* the gain resulting from its superior efficiency, though it obtains *the larger share*. Part is retained by the capital through the increased aid of which it was enabled to effect enlarged and improved results; part goes to the consumer by the fall of price."

The perfect ideality of the Professor's theory of the remuneration of labor is enough to make one laugh, if the subject were not of too serious a nature for jesting; he really appears to be as innocent of the operations of this out-of-door world as Casper Hauser could possibly be after his twenty years' confinement. If he will be pleased to ask the next working man which he meets in the city of Rochester, whether his wages will provide his family with as many necessaries *now* as they would ten years ago, he will then understand how much the laborer is benefited by his *larger share* of the profits, and how much the consumer is benefited by the *superior efficiency* of labor. But to proceed. The Professor thinks, "that it may be objected to the argument founded upon the diminished proportion which the declared or real value of exports from Great Britain bears to their official value, or quantity, that it is limited to manufactured commodities, and that the advance in real wages resulting in the diminution in their cost, may be counteracted by the rise in the price of agricultural products." That is very true, it may be objected to on that account; but the Professor thinks, that the statistics which he cited in the November number, of the agricultural production of France, and the statement of Mr. Malthus, before referred to, of the average proportion which *rent* bears to the value of the produce in England is a sufficient answer to that objection. This appears to be a little in the mode of begging the question.

Suppose one were to say to an English workman: "Why, you need not complain, that manufacturing wages have been lowering for the last thirty

years; your condition must be mending; it has been proved by some statistical calculations, that the production of food in France has been quadrupled, relatively to the increase of population, within the last one hundred and fifty years; therefore the working classes of England must be in a thriving condition; besides, the celebrated Mr. Malthus made a statement some forty years ago, to the effect, that the wages of labor must increase in proportion to rent, therefore you ought not to complain, for he ought to know." In such a case would not the workman think the party mad who volunteered this consolation? Would he not ask, what had the statistics of France to do with the condition of English workmen? or the statement of Mr. Malthus with the present time? But the Professor tells us in the former part of his article, "that he knows the condition of the laboring classes in England is bad enough, and that of those in France still worse," and yet now, he would persuade us, contrary to the testimony he has given us, and in opposition to his own assertion, that their condition has been constantly improving.

According to the statistics quoted by Professor Smith, the prices of manufactures exported from Great Britain within the last thirty years, have been reduced nearly sixty per cent; and according to the Edinburgh Review, also quoted by the Professor, we find that the price of wheat in the same time has fallen something less than forty. But we must remember that the whole of this reduction in the price of manufactures, has fallen entirely upon wages and profits, as the raw material of which they are fabricated, has in the meantime maintained its price, if it has not increased; therefore the cost of labor, from some cause or other, must be considerably less than this would represent. But we ought to make some allowance for the peculiar position in which prices have been placed by the repeal of the "corn law," and the throwing open of the trade in provisions to the whole world. Even under present circumstances manufacturing productions have fallen relatively twenty per cent; but what might have been the case under other commercial policy we can only guess.

The Professor next quotes statistics to show the large comparative decrease of the agricultural population of England, for the purpose of assuming a decrease in the cost of agricultural production, but I think it unnecessary to say anything upon this point, except that I think it would be strange if the improvements in agricultural implements had not the effect of keeping the number of hands nearly stationary, in a stationary business. I would now call particular attention to the Professor's quotation from the Edinburgh Review, (on page 36,) in which is shown the relative progress of population, and the production of agricultural produce, for thirty years previous to 1841. From these statistics it appears that the population has increased about seven per cent *more* than the production of wheat, in thirty years, under the strictest system of protection to agriculture, and at a time when two-fifths, or upwards of twenty millions of acres of waste lands remained untilled. It appears also, from these statistics, that the price of wheat has fallen from an average of 88s. to 56s. 9d. in the same period. The Professor says: "It would be easy to bring any quantity of testimony upon the point under consideration." I can only say, that I have no objection to as much as he chooses, nor to rest the case upon what he has already produced. He appears to think I have stated the rise in rent something too high. I have no objection, however, to Mr. Porter's statement, as he appears to like it best. According to Mr. Porter, rent has increased *throughout* the United King-

dom 150 per cent, while the production of wheat has increased little more than 25 per cent—the price having decreased in the same period 40 per cent. Rent would, therefore, according to Mr. Porter's statement, at this time buy four times the wheat in England as it would thirty years ago; making an increase of income to the landowner of 300 per cent, while the farmer has increased the crop only 25. The proportion which rent would bear to the crop would be represented as follows: crop 125, rent 250. Thus, if rent, as according to Malthus, (the statement quoted four times by the Professor,) bore the proportion of two-fifths, or 40 per cent, of the crop, it would now stand as 90 to 125—the proportion of rent to the crop having been augmented from two-fifths to more than three-and-a-half fifths; proving that Malthus was either originally mistaken as to the proportion and operation of rent, or that circumstances have materially altered these proportions and operations since his time; and that Mr. Carey's theory of the superior increase of food to population, with a decreasing proportion to rent, is an utter fallacy. And yet the Professor sums up this matter in the following modest strain: "If we suppose the same rate of progress to have existed in the ten years preceding 1801 as since, the increase of population between 1790 and 1841 will amount to 73 per cent. The rent has advanced, according to Porter, 150 per cent, or twice as fast, and inasmuch as the produce has augmented according to Malthus, twice as much as rent, it has increased *four* times as rapidly as the consumers." Thus, after giving us "unexceptionable testimony" from the Edinburgh Review, and the assurance of the "exceeding great increase of agricultural production" from Mr. Porter, the Professor makes no calculation as to the relative increase of produce and population from the statistics he had quoted, but makes a supposition as to the increase of population, and then adds together the increase of rent and the statement of Malthus, to prove that agricultural produce had quadrupled, when the statistics show that it had increased only 25 per cent.

The Professor pursued the same mode of begging the question with the French statistics in the former part of his article, when the price of wheat showed, according to the law of supply and demand, that the increase of crop was not equal to that of population. The Professor proceeds to say, "he thinks it has been made apparent, that capital in land follows the same laws as that of moveable property." Now, I think quite the contrary. I think it has been proved, that the value of land in England, as measured in rent, has increased 500 per cent *more* than the produce; and this is a premium obtained out of the profit of circulating capital; and all without expense to the landowner. The Professor's ideas of capital appear to be somewhat confused, but no doubt that may arise in some measure, from the absurdity of the theory which he advocates. Many persons suppose that all wealth is capital. Large amounts of wealth may be accumulated, sold, and used, but capital must at all times be limited by the power of producing absolute necessaries. It is this circumstance which causes the difference in the operation of price, between manufactured articles and raw produce. Money, whether of paper or of gold, beyond a certain necessary amount, is not capital; and as it is not consumed, beyond the necessary wear, it depreciates faster than any other commodity.

The protectionists are complaining of the falling off of the exports of breadstuffs, &c.; but they should remember that the cheapest article must be exported. This has not been caused by any lack of demand in England,

but because we had more money than grain. But to return to our subject. The Professor continues, in rather a pedantic and supercilious tone, to show his own and the superiority of the Carey school, over that of Ricardo and Malthus, in the following manner: "The difficulty with the Ricardo and Malthus school of economists is, that instead of observing the facts, and endeavoring to deduce a theory from them, they have invented an hypothesis to which they are determined that facts shall be made to conform. It is the old error of the middle age scholastics, from which it has been supposed that Bacon had redeemed the human intellect. Its followers are so given over to strong delusion, that they answer the characteristic description of Shakspeare, of which we have during the last year had so many brilliant examples,

"And like a scurvy politician seem to see  
The thing that is not."

I shall not attempt to vie with the Professor in quoting Shakspeare, for, not being in possession of Mr. Clark's Concordance, I might not quote correctly; I shall therefore give that up; but I must take leave to say, that I think he has made a material mistake in the first line of our quotation, as to who are the parties implicated in the "strong delusion," which I must leave to others to correct. With regard to "the old error of the middle age, from which it has been supposed that Bacon had redeemed the human intellect," I can only say, that unless that commodity called human intellect had been stowed away somewhere in a large reservoir, so that it might have been doled out to those who were deficient, I can see no ground for the supposed redemption: for I know certain people in the community whose intellect is so small that they cannot perceive the truth, even if they strike their heads against it. But I must now return to the Professor, at whom I hope no one will suspect I have been hinting, although he appears to proceed without rule or compass, for he quotes again some passages from the June article, which he had quoted and commented upon in a former number, which I must be allowed to notice. He says: "R. S. asks, if food tends to increase more rapidly than population, how is it that capital has accumulated *unequally* in the hands of a few, and that number rapidly decreasing in all countries?" and then proceeds as follows: "We have shown by unimpeachable authorities of this very sect, that the number is not decreasing but increasing." Thus it is conceded, that "capital has accumulated *unequally* in the hands of a few"—so few in England, that out of a population of about thirty millions, one hundred and nine thousand comprise the whole of the middle and aristocratic classes, when, less than half a century ago, the land alone was divided among two hundred and forty thousand proprietors—showing most conclusively, that although the number of taxable individuals may have increased within certain limits, since 1812, including large as well as small incomes, down to £150 a year, that this number of taxable individuals has increased by the absorption of the capital of the other one hundred and fifty thousand—proving, as far as England is concerned, the other part of the allegation, that "the number of capitalists is rapidly decreasing." From the same paragraph from which we quoted before, we have another quotation from the June number to the following effect: "If food tends to increase more rapidly than population," asks R. S., "what gives capital a continually increasing power over the wages of labor?"

The Professor then says: "It has been shown that labor is more and more emancipating itself with the progress of population and capital." To

this I must decidedly object. The French statistics produced in the former part of the article, were obviously mere calculations, without taking into account the *whole* of the facts in the case, as shown before; and the English statistics contradict the conclusion. The Professor says, (on page 35.) "The number of agricultural laborers in Great Britain has been constantly decreasing in the proportion which it bore to the whole population and the crop. Thus, Mr. Porter informs us, (Progress of the Nation, vol. i., p. 148.) that the total number of families in Great Britain has increased, between 1811 and 1831, from 2,544,215 to 3,414,175, or at the rate of 34 per cent; the number of families employed in agriculture has increased only from 896,998 to 961,134, or at the rate of  $7\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. It was shown by the census of 1841, that the number of persons employed in agricultural labor was less absolutely and of course still less proportionally than in 1831. We are not yet furnished with the information upon this point obtained by the census of 1851, but there can be no doubt, that the same decrease in the proportion of agricultural laborers has continued down to the present period." Now, this information exactly accords with our previous deductions, and contradicts those of the Professor.

The large farmers and large landowners in England have constantly been swallowing up the small ones, and forcing this part of the agricultural population into the cities, to increase the *middle* or the *working* classes, as the case may be; and although the number of persons having incomes of fifteen dollars a week and upwards to fifty, may have increased in a larger ratio than population, this has been produced, as I have before intimated, by the accretion of smaller capitals, and therefore sustains my previous statement, that the number of capitalists is *rapidly* decreasing. While the number of taxable individuals has increased, in relation to population, at the rate of 150 per cent, the increase of the wealth of that class has been "very nearly threefold greater," than the increase of the *class* itself. And, in relation to population, the landowners have decreased within the same period 750 per cent; therefore each of the 150 of the taxable individuals must have absorbed the capital of five of the missing landowners. Notwithstanding the rapid relative decrease of the English agricultural population, (350 per cent in twenty years,) we are informed, both by the statistics from the Edinburgh Review, and the quotations from Mr. Porter, of the "exceeding great increase of agricultural production in the same period; showing that the land has not been going out of cultivation, but that the labor has been driven off, and replaced by a larger proportionate amount of capital, in the shape of improved machinery; and therefore the wages of labor must have been reduced to the minimum of subsistence, and their numbers thinned, either by the operation of nature's immutable law, or forced into the large towns, to compete for subsistence with the manufacturing populations. Thus, while (according to Professor Smith) "the labor cost of agricultural products has been diminished," *capital has increased unequally in the hands of a few*, and increased its power over labor, while rent also has increased. Thus the Professor has assisted me to demonstrate those facts, of which I was previously aware, and for which I owe him my most cordial thanks.

From the last quotation he proceeds as follows: "It certainly was a plausible figment of the imagination, that men in the first instance appropriate the most fertile soils, and only take the inferior grades into cultivation, as they are driven to it by necessity; for forty years the assertion that they did so, stood uncontradicted." Now I beg leave to say, with all due

deference to Professor Smith and the Carey school in general, that in my humble opinion, it is not, at this moment, of the slightest imaginable consequence, whether *the assertion* were or were not a figment of the imagination, for the principle of *rent* derived from it, could operate *only* so long as society remained in the agricultural state. As soon as Commerce and manufactures began to collect people into large masses that principle of rent was modified, and could only operate to the smallest possible extent, and another principle of rent, kindred in its operation, supervened, which had, and continues to have, the same effect as the original. And although this principle was not perceived by Malthus, Ricardo, or McCulloch, many of the general axioms, and *the final* conclusions of those writers, remain intact, and that is the reason why it may be said, that I belong to the same school. But, notwithstanding, this "figment of the imagination" must be placed to the account of the Professor's favorite author upon political economy, Adam Smith, as I have before demonstrated, though he did not carry it out to its legitimate results. He also perceived and enunciated that part of the *ultimate* principle of rent which operates by the collection of large masses of people in cities, requiring food and raw materials of every description to be carried from a greater distance, and therefore requiring an extra amount of labor for the *same relative* supply of necessaries to a given point; leaving out that part of the principle operating by the necessary abstraction of fertility by the increase of population—the loss of manure in various ways, and the consequent extra amount of labor required to obtain materials to keep up the fertility of the poorer and more distant soils.

The Professor thinks that the admission in the June article "that mankind will at all times cultivate the most available soils, those that will produce the *largest returns* for the labor and capital *ready at the time* to be invested," oversets the Malthusian theory—assisted also by the following assertion: "And that it is not until labor is *cheapened* by competition, that society can be forced into the expenses of clearing and draining, which, in some instances, cost more than the land was originally worth." Now, I must say, that I do not perceive any material difference between either of these propositions and the general principles of the Malthusian and the Ricardo theory. It cannot be supposed that an individual possessing common sense, or the common instincts of nature, would go two miles from his dwelling to cultivate a piece of land, when he might cultivate other land of equal quality at one half the distance, or that he would go to the expense of clearing and draining, while there was other land to cultivate that would pay the common rate of profit. It is evident, therefore, that if an individual go two miles instead of one, to cultivate a piece of land, it would be because it was "the most available," or, in other words, its relative fertility must be such as to overpay the extra cost of labor required; and in regard to clearing and draining it is also evident, that as soon as labor and capital are sufficiently cheap and plentiful to allow of the cultivation of such land, bringing the common rate of profit, or the next best rate to the common rate, it will be cultivated. It is obvious, therefore, that so long as self-interest is the universal motive of mankind, the rate of profit could not increase; simply because every individual would take the most available or the best land first. There is no other way of accounting correctly for the decrease of the rate of profit upon capital.

Money and the precious metals might be increased indefinitely, but this would not decrease the rate of profit upon capital. The precious metals

have the least pretension to be called capital, of any existing commodity. Under these circumstances their relative value would be lowered, but the *principal* and interest would maintain the same relation to each other as before, and the rate of profit would still be indicated by a decrease in the rate of interest. From these premises we are therefore bound to say, that if "food increased *faster* than population," the rate of profit must also increase, which neither Mr. Carey nor Professor Smith will assert. Whether "Malthus and Ricardo, if alive, would emphatically have declined such testimony" as that which I have just quoted from a former article, I am not able to say, but this I may be allowed to say, that I never guarantied (by implication or otherwise) anything beyond their general and ultimate conclusions. I therefore cannot be held accountable for their errors and mistakes. But I cannot admit that their theory of cultivation was an error, though, as I have before stated, it is now of no consequence whether it were so or not; one thing is certain, that there are more than twenty millions of acres of land in England untilled, which the "corn law" failed to force into cultivation; as also the present low rate of profit; and yet England imported in 1850, seventy-two millions of bushels of grain.

Professor Smith has also quoted Professor Johnson to show that, in his opinion, the loss of manure, by the sewerage of each town of a thousand inhabitants, is equal to the fertility required for the production of a thousand quarters of wheat, which I should presume does not assist the Professor's theory of production. Although quoted from a *free-trade* article in the North British Review, I must beg leave to differ, both from the reviewer and Professor Johnson for although these calculations are very ingenious, and well calculated to attract the unthinking, little or no dependence can be placed upon them. It is pretty well understood, that this is the only loss of manure permitted in England; and there can be no doubt that this loss is overrated, as party writers are apt to overrate small matters. For sixty years England has been an importer of raw produce to a considerable extent, and more especially within the last thirty, she has imported vast quantities of grain, beef, pork, lard, butter, cheese, eggs, coffee, tea, sugar, spices, cotton, hemp, flax, tallow, hides, &c., besides manures. Thus it is not too much to say, that she imports one-third of her consumption, and, according to the writer in the North British Review, "the importation of food bears a higher proportion to the home produce, than the annual addition to the population." And yet, with all the refuse matter remaining from this large and *increasing* quantity of food and raw material grown upon other soils, the average fertility of land in England has not reached more than twenty-eight bushels—an amount far from equal to the production of the virgin soils of America. It is not pretended by any of the writers quoted by the Professor, that any of the land in England is going out of cultivation, or becoming less valuable, which it ought to do, under the operation of such large importations, if Mr. Carey's theory were true. On the contrary, we find, according to the necessary sequence of the Malthusian and Ricardo theory, that the importations of grain are constantly increasing "in a higher proportion to the home produce *than the annual addition to the population.*" Thus the production of food in England is relatively decreasing, under all these favorable circumstances, and while she has twenty millions of acres of uncultivated land. But if, as according to Professor Johnson, the loss of manure by sewerage be great, there is still one thing to console us, the labor and capital which it would require to collect it, is not

also lost. This again brings to mind *the fallacy* of the theory of the superior relative increase of food; labor-made fertility, although it may tend to keep up the rate of profit, can never increase it; because, first, the extra labor must be paid for out of the extra crop; and, secondly, what is saved is previously abstracted from other soils. Thus, if the mass of human beings did not abstract one atom of fertility from the earth, nor were there one atom wasted, we could not reach beyond the original fertility, and the rate of profit would even then diminish, from the cost of the extra labor required in cultivation.

I should have preferred to have closed this article at this point, which is already too long, but there is another important point, which I must beg to be excused for noticing, with regard to the continued depreciation of capital. The Professor acknowledges the error he fell into in a former article, but afterward endeavors to confuse and mystify the subject. His original proposition stands thus: "Mr. Carey shows that capital in land obeys the same law as capital invested in machinery; among other things, like other commodities, it will never bring as much as it cost to produce," because the progress of capital and improvement enables man to reproduce the same thing with less expenditure of labor." And he thus acknowledges its general incorrectness: "The proposition which I stated of course did not relate to an immediate sale. It is doubtless *true, as a general rule*, that any piece of machinery, upon its completion, *will bring its cost*. Every improved machine for which a patent can be procured, will, during the duration of the patent, produce *more than the cost and the ordinary rate of profit*. But every improvement is such in virtue of the fact that it cheapens something else. The moment it comes into use, the commodity, whatever it may be, the process of obtaining which it facilitates, is offered in the market at reduced cost. But all existing commodities of the same kind must also fall to the same price. They will bring only what it *now costs* to produce them."

Now, I think it would be difficult to imagine a more complete repudiation of any proposition than the Professor has been forced into, in the present instance. He has acknowledged that "every improved machine will, during the term of the patent, produce *more than the cost and the ordinary rate of profit*." And, in fact, that all commodities "*will bring what it now costs to produce them,*" and of course a profit besides, or, instead of improvements continuing to increase, machinery must cease to exist, and society, instead of becoming more numerous and wealthy, must decrease in number. I merely mention these circumstances to show the Professor how persons are "betrayed by the necessities of a false system *into flagrant inconsistencies.*" In speaking of improved methods, the Professor says: "The moment it comes into use the commodity is offered at reduced cost." By which I presume he meant to say, "at reduced price." But I humbly conceive that this depends upon circumstances, and is not true as a general rule. It is not for the interest of individuals who invent improved methods to reduce the price of their machinery below that of the old; for although in some instances it may cost less, they generally expect and always obtain, if it be really an improvement, a greater price, and consequently an increased profit. Neither is it for the interest of the manufacturer who uses improved machinery immediately to reduce the price of his commodity. They each have an interest opposed to this; both would naturally wish to be paid for extra capital expended, before the price is reduced; and therefore this is not

done unless the state of the market enforces it. It is not the interest of the public which the inventor or manufacturer wishes to serve, but his own. And as improvements cannot become general at once, the old machinery is generally worn out in due time, having paid its cost and profit long before that period, which enables the manufacturer to replace it with new. If this were not the case, who would be found to invest capital in machinery? The Professor endeavors further to illustrate his views upon this subject by borrowing an idea from M. Bastiat, who says he can now purchase a Bible for fifty cents, or half a day's labor, which formerly cost the labor of three hundred days to produce a worse copy. We must remember, however, that fifty cents is what it *now costs* to produce it.

The idea, also, expressed in the following quotation, if I rightly understand it, is also erroneous: "Every step in improvement *gives labor an additional command* over some one of the constituents of capital, and consequently raises the rate, between the value of existing labor and the sum total of capital." If it is intended to say, as I presume it is, that these improvements in labor increase its relative value to that of capital, I must object to the assertion as being contrary to fact. The Professor has himself given us an incident by which we may prove the matter, pro or con. It is stated that we can now purchase a Bible for the price of half a day's labor, which at one time would take the price of three hundred days' labor to purchase. Now, let us suppose the value of the raw material necessary for the production of the Book to have remained stationary at *one-eighth* of a day's labor. At one time it would take 2,400 times as much raw material to purchase the Book as was required for its production; whereas at present it would require only four times as much. Has labor gained "additional command" over capital, or has capital gained additional command over labor in this instance? It matters not whether raw material has increased in price, or whether labor has decreased; or whether each have moved in the direction indicated; it shows the same operating principle: all improvements increase the relative value of the land. It is not therefore true, "that the *capital* of a nation which is making the slightest industrial progress, will each day command less labor than it would the preceding day." The amount of capital being limited, by circumstances which we have previously explained, while it requires less labor each succeeding day to effect the same amount of production upon a given amount of capital—capital must, of course, as we have seen in the instance above, continue to purchase or command, a larger amount of labor instead of a smaller. In continuation of the subject the Professor says: "To show that the same proposition holds good as to land, it is only necessary to demonstrate that it owes its whole value to labor." And then quotes from a speech of Mr. Webster's at Buffalo, to show, that "without human labor land is not worth a rush, from Dan to Beersheba." I must beg, however, to differ from both these great authorities, with all due humility. But the Professor turns round upon his own proposition and Mr. Webster's opinion, and restates the proposition in the following manner: "Now the proposition is, that the land will not bring as much as the cost of the labor *in and near it*, to which it owes its entire value. In the case of a farm in the neighborhood of a city suggested by R. S., the difficulty is to enumerate and estimate the value of the labor expended in the city, and to apportion it among the various tracts which have had their value *enhanced* by such expenditure." The second proposition is a direct acknowledgment that the first was untenable. It is admit-

ted indirectly, that the land will always bring more than the cost of the improvements and the cultivation expended upon it; but to make out the original proposition, "that land will not bring as much as it cost to produce," the Professor has attacked the value of all "the roads, railways, and canals, the buildings, public and private, the fences, wharves, bridges, and structures of every description, that go to make the State what it is," as though the land itself had been produced by this expenditure of labor, instead of the expenditure having been produced from the land. It would, apparently, be almost as reasonable to expect that the value of a machine for the production of cloth, which had been at work for an extended period, could purchase back the whole of its productions. But the cases are not parallel. However large a quantity the machine had produced, it would only purchase back a certain amount—the necessary cost of its original production, with a deficiency for wear and tear. But the position of the land is different, notwithstanding the assertion of Professor Smith and Mr. Carey to the contrary. The amount of land being limited, the more other capital and wealth is accumulated the larger *relative* price it will bring in the market; but whether it would purchase the whole of the other capital and wealth of the State, or the world, I am not able to say: neither do I think it important *to study that problem.*

With regard to Madame de Savigne having arrived at the conclusion that land is not wealth, I think we may give her credit for the possession of common sense, but I presume she did not, like Professor Smith and Mr. Webster, conclude that land was not valuable.

Having now thoroughly examined what the Professor has said in favor of Mr. Carey's theory, I must beg leave to say, with all due deference and respect to all men who are earnestly engaged in the search after truth, that although learned and eminent men in other countries may think it necessary to study Mr. Carey's economical works, I have seen no reason in this discussion, to alter my previously expressed opinion with regard to them, and I hope it will not be deemed presumptuous in me to say, that in my opinion "it is a theory of antagonisms and is crammed with absurdities." And as Professor Smith has more than once intimated, in this correspondence, that the truth of Mr. Carey's theory is the only tenable ground for "protection" to rest upon, I hope I shall, like Jack Lanton in the "Spy," have the pleasure of welcoming his return to the ranks of freedom (of trade).

R. S.

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#### Art. VII.—OF THE COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHANGE IN THE RELATIVE PRICES OF GOLD AND SILVER DUE TO THE RISE OF THE ONE AS WELL AS THE FALL OF THE OTHER—REMARKS ON MR. GOUGE'S OBJECTIONS TO THE REDUCTION OF THE AMOUNT OF SILVER IN HALF DOLLARS—SUGGESTIONS AS TO THE COINAGE OF LARGE COIN OF FROM FIFTY TO FIVE HUNDRED DOLLARS EACH, OF A MEAN STANDARD BETWEEN THE MARKET VALUE OF GOLD AND SILVER.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*—

DEAR SIR.—The subjoined was written with the intention of sending it to you for the *Merchants' Magazine*. I have been induced to publish it first in the *North American* by the publication of some opinions which seemed to me erroneous, or unsatisfactory, and of which I hoped to lessen the influence by publishing mine.

In your periodical it will have a more permanent and accessible position.

Yours, &c., ROBERT HARE.

THE price of mercury rose within a quarter of a century to double that which it previously commanded, and as the extrication of silver from its

ores in Spanish America has been effected by a process requiring a proportion of this metal to be consumed, the rise in the price of the one could not but augment the price of the other.

Moreover, the anarchical state of Mexico and other argentiferous regions, caused the working of very productive mines to be suspended or abandoned. Meanwhile, the growth of population in countries where silver is used for table service, and as specie, must have caused the demand for this metal to increase.\* These circumstances have no doubt raised the market price of silver.

Gold is for the most part extricated by washing, and even so far as mercury is used to extricate this metal, the increase of its price would affect gold as much less, as gold is dearer than silver for equal weight. Then, again, the mercury used to collect gold is recovered by distillation. This is not the case with the mercury used in the Mexican process for silver. In that the mercury is wasted.

I presume I have said enough to show that there is good reason to suppose that the change in the relative market price of gold and silver has been due in part to the decline in the supply of silver, in proportion to the demand, as well as to the augmentation of the supply of gold. In a recent letter of Mr. Gouge to Mr. Hunter, Chairman of the Financial Committee of the Senate of the United States, objecting to the proposed reduction of the amount of silver in half-dollars, the idea that the change in relative value is in part due to the enhancement of silver, does not seem to have been considered. He urges that the proposed change in the quantity of pure silver in the half-dollar coinage, must tend to change or debase the standard of our currency. Had not that standard been already lowered relatively to silver by the influx of gold from California, and the price of mercury, and other causes making the extrication of silver more costly or disadvantageous, Mr. Gouge's allegations might be true. But the degradation has taken place. Gold, relatively to its former value, has fallen; silver has risen.

Agreeably to Mr. Gouge's just impressions, when a cheaper metal is circulated at the same nominal value, the dearer disappears; under these circumstances gold has become the standard, being a legal tender at its former weight. The reasons assigned by Mr. Gouge would induce a wish that, instead of lowering the weight of our silver coin, that of the gold could be raised by using as much more of that metal as will compensate the decline in price. But as an obstacle to this, we have the practical necessity of calling in all of the present gold coinage, because the more valuable coin would be hoarded, or selected for exportation, or manufacturing, so that it could not be got into circulation. Moreover, as our gold coin is no less a legal tender than our silver half-dollars, I do not understand how a creditor, in receiving payment in half dollars, of which two will be equal to one gold dollar, will be placed in a situation less advantageous than if they were not introduced into circulation; since, in the absence of the silver, he would be paid only in equally depreciated gold.

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\* I was well informed that a mine, which yielded two million of dollars annually, was abandoned in consequence of the caving in of the earth so as to require about two millions to put it into working order. An effort was made, not without great encouragement, to obtain in this country the capital requisite to restore the mine to a state of productiveness. A succeeding money pressure put an end to the project.

Unless equalization be effected by lessening the amount of silver in the half-dollar coinage, or augmenting it in that of the gold dollars, or altering both so as to bring them to meet half way, the two coins cannot both remain in circulation. An enhancement in relative value has driven the silver from the field, and will of course, *a fortiori*, so long as it endures, prevent it from recovering the participation which it enjoyed.

Doubtless, were it not for the cost of recoinage, it would be better to increase the weight of gold representing a dollar, and to diminish that of the silver in the dollars of that metal; but this would be expensive. Therefore, I would suggest that, while the diminution of silver in the half-dollar coin shall be carried out, Mr. Gouge's objections notwithstanding, that a coinage of gold pieces of fifty, one hundred, and five hundred dollars should be resorted to, holding as much more gold as may bring them to a mean standard between the existing gold and silver coinage.

This would cause half the difference of value arising from the deviation to fall on the payer, and half on the receiver of the gold. Coin of all the larger sizes would serve only to be hoarded or exported, since no one wanting gold as cash would wish to exchange the smaller pieces, however lighter in proportion to nominal value, for the larger pieces.

The ability to change the smaller coin for the larger, would cause the latter, in an ordinary state of things, to be as valuable as if they were to be of the same standard.

Where strict reference to standard value should be required, resort to the scale-beam would put it in the power of those concerned to compensate for the difference between the nominal value and standard value. Placing one of a large coin in one scale, and its nominal equivalent in smaller pieces in the other, it were easy to see how much its nominal equivalent should be below the standard equivalent. Of course a weight made to balance a coin accurately would serve in its place.

One obvious advantage of the proposed arrangement would be that our smaller coin would be less in demand for exportation. We should not coin money for foreign crucibles. It may be conceived that ingots would serve as well as coin for the larger pieces, but the process of coinage affords a greater security for uniformity in dimensions than any other, and is, upon the whole, as I suppose, about as cheap a mode of attaining the object as any which can be devised.

The practicability of having a coin of standard weight issued by the government, exchangeable for smaller pieces, representing fractions of its value, which have notoriously less silver than they ought to have in order to justify and sustain their nominal value, is manifest from the commutability of silver halves at the present time (which have not perceptibly diminished in weight by rubbing) for smooth quarters, eighths, and sixteenths of a dollar, which are notoriously below the standard.

In fact, the currency of the small pieces would be sustained in a way analogous to that of bank-notes, with this difference, that only a fraction of the value would be confided to the faithfulness of the issuer.

I am of opinion that for the smaller change, metallic tokens, wholly dependent on commutability for value, would answer every purpose of gold or silver coin, without being liable to be carried off to pay a balance of trade arising from a famine, as in Great Britain in 1848, or in this country, by the fall of the price of cotton, as in 1837.

It would seem as if only one side of the question was stated as respects

the expediency of coining our golden dollars. I have found that the greater size and weight of the silver half-dollars is an inconvenience so much greater than that of the opposite attributes of the golden dollar, that while I can get gold dollars I shall never carry silver halves excepting for change. In order to obviate the greater liability for loss, it is only requisite to have suitable arrangements so as to keep the gold apart from the silver change. That to which I have resorted is an interior purse of leather within another of the same material. This affords three cavities,—the middle one for gold, one of the two remaining for larger, the other for smaller silver. The orifice of the inner purse, as well as that of the outer is furnished with a steel clasp, such as is used in common leather or steel purses.

Housekeepers find the gold dollars a great convenience. To travelers they are desirable, because a good supply prevents the necessity of taking as change those small notes with which they are unacquainted. R. H.

## JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

### POINTS DECIDED IN ENGLISH COURTS.

**CARRIERS—LIABILITY OF RAILWAY COMPANY—SPECIAL CONTRACT.**—In the Court of Queen's Bench. Appeals from County Court.—Sittings in Banc after Michaelmas Term, November 26, 1851. *Chippendale vs. the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railroad Company.*

The plaintiff placed several heifers on a track of a railway company, to be conveyed by them from W. to B. The plaintiff paid for their carriage, and received a ticket with the following memorandum subscribed:—"This ticket is issued subject to the owner taking all risks of conveyance whatever, as the company will not be responsible for any injury or damage, however caused, occurring to live stock of any description traveling upon the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, or in their vehicles." Owing to the defective construction of the truck, three heifers escaped; two were killed, and the other was injured. The plaintiff sued the railway company in a county court for the value of the three heifers, and the judge directed the jury to find a verdict for the defendants:—Held on appeal, (affirming the judgment below,) that the ticket constituted a special contract, which absolved the defendants from liability for the injury to the heifers.

**FRAUD—EVIDENCE—POST-DATED CHECK.**—In the British Court of Exchequer. Appeal from County Court, December 1, 1851. *Watson vs. Poulson.*

If a man tells an untruth, knowing it to be such, in order to induce another to alter his condition, who does accordingly alter it, and thereby sustains damage, the party making the false statement is liable in an action for deceit, although in making the false representation no fraud or injury was intended by him.

A post-dated check on a bank is not absolutely void: if paid without knowledge of the false date the payment is good: and though not admissible in evidence to prove a contract, may be used to show fraud.

In Court of Common Pleas. Trinity Term, May 30, 1851. *Stainbank et al., vs. Fenning.*

**SHIP—HYPOTHECATION—POWERS OF THE MASTER—INSURABLE INTEREST.**—

1. The master of a ship borrowed money of the plaintiffs for repairs, and gave them, by way of security, bills drawn by him upon the owner of the ship and upon the consignee of the cargo, and also an instrument of hypothecation, by which he took upon himself and his owner the risk of the voyage, made the money repayable at all events, and the ship subject to seizure, and to process of the Admiralty Courts at any place, should the bills be not accepted or paid, the plaintiffs forbearing all interest beyond the amount necessary to insure the ship

to cover their advances:—Held, that a Court of Admiralty would not enforce this instrument; and, therefore, that the plaintiffs took no interest in the ship.

2. The master has no authority to hypothecate the ship to secure advances for repairs, unless repayment is made to depend on the arrival of the ship.

DESTRUCTION OF GOODS BY BLOWING THEM UP.

In the Court of Errors and Appeals of New Jersey. On error to the Supreme Court, November Term, 1851. *The American Print Works vs. Lawrence; Hale vs. same.*

*In Trespass against the Mayor of New York for destroying goods by blowing them up, the defendant pleaded:—*1. A statute of the State of New York imposing the duty upon the Mayor of New York, in order to stop the progress of any conflagration, with the concurrence of two Aldermen, to direct any buildings likely to take fire and convey fire to others, to be pulled down and destroyed. That the defendant, as Mayor, acting under such advice and concurrence, did destroy certain buildings for that purpose which were peculiarly exposed to the fire, and but for his action would have been immediately burned up with their contents, and would have communicated the flames to adjoining buildings unless instantly demolished. That the immediate destruction of these buildings was necessary, without waiting to remove the goods, in order to prevent the spread of the conflagration, &c., whereupon the defendant says he did necessarily and unavoidably blow up and destroy certain goods in plaintiffs' declaration mentioned, &c.:—Held to be a good plea.

2. The statute, under which the buildings were destroyed, being a constitutional and valid law, and the act by which they were destroyed being a lawful act, the defendant, as a public officer, was not liable personally for the necessary and unavoidable consequences of such act.

3. The defendant, secondly, set up a justification arising out of the common law doctrine of necessity. That to prevent the spread of the conflagration and the destruction of a large portion of the city, the immediate destruction of the buildings was necessary, without waiting to remove the goods therein: and that for this purpose the defendant, a resident citizen, &c., caused the said buildings to be blown up, and did thereby necessarily and unavoidably destroy the goods, &c.:—Held a good plea.

4. In order to justify the destruction of property under the plea of necessity, in order to prevent the spread of a conflagration, it is not necessary to show any individual or personal interest in the defendant in the property at stake.

5. The common law doctrine of necessity considered.

6. The exposition of the statutes of any State, by the courts of that State, ought to be regarded as of binding authority in the construction of such statutes by courts of other States.

CONSTITUTIONALITY OF THE PILOTAGE LAW OF THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

In the Supreme Court of the United States, December Term, 1851.

<p>AARON B. COOLEY, plaintiff in error,  <i>vs.</i>          The Board of Wardens of the port of Philadelphia, to the use of the Society for the Relief of Distressed Pilots, their Widows and Children.</p>	}	<p>In error to the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, for the Eastern District.</p>
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Mr. Justice CURTIS delivered the opinion of the Court.

These cases are brought here by writs of error to the Supreme Court of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

They are actions to recover half-pilotage fees under the 29th section of the act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, passed on the second day of March, 1803. The plaintiff in error alleges that the highest court of the State has decided

against a right claimed by him under the Constitution of the United States. That right is to be exempted from the payment of the sums of money demanded pursuant to the State law above referred to, because that law contravenes several provisions of the Constitution of the United States.

The particular section of the State law drawn in question is as follows:—

“That every ship or vessel arriving from or bound to any foreign port or place, and every ship or vessel of the burden of seventy-five tons or more, sailing from or bound to any port not within the river Delaware, shall be obliged to receive a pilot. And it shall be the duty of the master of every such ship or vessel, within thirty-six hours next after the arrival of such ship or vessel at the city of Philadelphia, to make report to the Master Warden of the name of such ship or vessel, her draught of water, and the name of the pilot who shall have conducted her to the port. And when any such vessel shall be outward bound, the master of such vessel shall make known to the Wardens the name of such vessel, and of the pilot who is to conduct her to the Capes, and her draught of water at that time. And it shall be the duty of the Wardens to enter every such vessel in a book to be by them kept for that purpose, without fee or reward. And if the master of any ship or vessel shall neglect to make such report, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of sixty dollars. And if the master of any such ship or vessel shall refuse or neglect to take a pilot, the master, owner, or consignee of such vessel shall forfeit and pay to the Warden aforesaid a sum equal to the half-pilotage of such ship or vessel, to the use of the Society for the Relief, &c., to be recovered as pilotage in the manner hereinafter directed: *Provided*, always, that where it shall appear to the Warden that, in case of an inward bound vessel, a pilot did not offer before she had reached Reedy Island; or, in case of an outward bound vessel, that a pilot could not be obtained for twenty-four hours after such vessel was ready to depart, the penalty aforesaid, for not having a pilot, shall not be incurred.” It constitutes one section of “an act to establish a Board of Wardens for the port of Philadelphia, and for the regulation of Pilots and Pilotage, &c.” and the scope of the act is in conformity with the title to regulate the whole subject of the pilotage of that port.

We think this particular regulation, concerning half-pilotage fees, is an appropriate part of a general system of regulations of this subject. Testing it by the practice of commercial States and countries legislating on this subject, we find it has usually been deemed necessary to make similar provisions. Numerous laws of this kind are cited in the learned argument of the counsel for the defendant in error; and their fitness, as a part of a system of pilotage, in many places, may be inferred from their existence in so many different States and countries. Like other laws, they are framed to meet the most usual cases, *quæ frequentius accidunt*; they rest upon the propriety of securing lives and property exposed to the perils of a dangerous navigation, by taking on board a person peculiarly skilled to encounter or avoid them; upon the policy of discouraging the commanders of vessels from refusing to receive such persons on board at the proper times and places; and upon the expediency and even intrinsic justice of not suffering those who have incurred labor, and expense, and danger, to place themselves in a position to render important service generally necessary, to go unrewarded, because the master of a particular vessel either rashly refuses their proffered assistance, or, contrary to the general experience, does not need it. There are many cases in which an offer to perform, accompanied by present ability to perform, is deemed by law equivalent to performance. The laws of commercial States and countries have made an offer of pilotage service one of those cases: and we cannot pronounce a law which does this to be so far removed from the usual and fit scope of laws for the regulation of pilots and pilotage, as to be deemed, for this cause, a covert attempt to legislate upon another subject under the appearance of legislating on this one.

It is urged that the second section of the act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania of the 11th of June, 1832, proves that the State had other objects in view than the regulation of pilotage. That section is as follows:—

“And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first day of July next, no health fee or half-pilotage shall be charged on any American vessel engaged in the Pennsylvania coal trade.”

It must be remarked that the fair objects of a law imposing half-pilotage when a pilot is not received, may be secured, and at the same time some classes of vessels exempted from such a charge. Thus, the very section of the act of 1803, now under consideration, does not apply to coasting vessels of less burden than seventy-five tons, nor to those bound to or sailing from a port in the river Delaware. The purpose of the law being to cause masters of such vessels as generally need a pilot to employ one, and to secure to the pilots a fair remuneration for cruising in search of vessels, or waiting for employment in port, there is an obvious propriety in having reference to the number, size, and nature of the employment of vessels frequenting the port; and it will be found, by an examination of the different system of these regulations which have from time to time been made in this and other countries, that the legislative discretion has been constantly exercised in making discriminations, founded on differences both in the character of the trade, and the tonnage of the vessels engaged therein.

We do not perceive any thing in the nature, or extent of this particular discrimination in favor of vessels engaged in the coal trade, which would enable us to declare it to be other than a fair exercise of legislative discretion, acting upon the subject of the regulation of the pilotage of this port of Philadelphia, with a view to operate upon the masters of those vessels, who, as a general rule, ought to take a pilot, and with the further view of relieving from the charge of half-pilotage, such vessels, as from their size, or the nature of their employment, should be exempted from contributing to the support of pilots, except so far as they actually receive their services. In our judgment, though this law of 1832 has undoubtedly modified the 29th section of the act of 1803, and both are to be taken together as giving the rule on this subject of half-pilotage, yet this change in the rule has not changed the nature of the law, nor deprived it of the character and attributes of a law for the regulation of pilotage.

Nor do we consider that the appropriation of the sums received under this section of the act, to the use of the Society for the Relief of Distressed and Decayed Pilots, their Widows and Children, has any legitimate tendency to impress on it the character of a revenue law. Whether these sums shall go directly to the use of the individual pilots by whom the service is tendered, or shall form a common fund to be administered by trustees for the benefit of such pilots and their families as may stand in peculiar need of it, is a matter resting in legislative discretion, in the proper exercise of which the pilots alone are interested.

For these reasons we cannot yield our assent to the argument, that this provision of law is in conflict with the second and third clauses of the tenth section of the first article of the Constitution, which prohibit a State, without the assent of Congress, from laying any imposts or duties on imports, or exports, or tonnage. This provision of the Constitution was intended to operate upon subjects actually existing and well understood when the Constitution was formed. Imposts and duties on imports, exports, and tonnage, were then known to the Commerce of the civilized world to be as distinct from fees and charges for pilotage, and from the penalties by which commercial States enforced their pilot laws, as they were from charges for wharfage, or towage, or any other local port charges for services rendered to vessels or cargoes; and to declare that such pilot fees or penalties are embraced within the words imposts or duties on imports, exports, or tonnage, would be to confound things essentially different, and which must have been known to be actually different, by those who used this language. It cannot be denied that a tonnage duty or an impost on imports or exports may be levied under the name of pilot dues or penalties; and certainly it is the thing and not the name which is to be considered. But having previously stated that in this instance the law complained of does not pass the appropriate line which limits

laws for the regulation of pilots and pilotage, the suggestion that this law levies a duty on tonnage, or on imports, or exports, is not admissible; and if so, it also follows that this law is not repugnant to the first clause of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution, which declares that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States; for if it is not to be deemed a law levying a duty, impost, or excise, the want of uniformity throughout the United States is not objectionable. Indeed, the necessity of conforming regulations of pilotage to the local peculiarities of each port, and the consequent impossibility of having its charges uniform throughout the United States, would be sufficient of itself to prove that they could not have been intended to be embraced within this clause of the Constitution; for it cannot be supposed uniformity was required, when it must have been known to be impracticable.

It is further objected that this law is repugnant to the fifth clause of the ninth section of the first article of the Constitution; namely, "No preference shall be given by any regulation of Commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels, to or from one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another."

But, as already stated, pilotage fees are not duties within the meaning of the Constitution; and certainly Pennsylvania does not give a preference to the port of Philadelphia, by requiring the masters, owners, or consignees of vessels sailing to or from that port, to pay the charges imposed by the 29th section of the act of 1803. It is an objection to and not a ground of preference of a port, that a charge of this kind must be borne by vessels entering it, and accordingly the interests of the port require, and generally produce such alleviations of these charges, as its growing Commerce from time to time renders consistent with the general policy of the pilot laws. This State, by its act of the 24th of March, 1851, has essentially modified the law of 1803, and further exempted many vessels from the charge now in question. Similar changes may be observed in the laws of New York, Massachusetts, and other commercial States, and they undoubtedly spring from the conviction that burdens of this kind, instead of operating to give a preference to a port, tend to check its Commerce, and that sound policy requires them to be lessened and removed as early as the necessities of the system will allow.

In addition to what has been said respecting each of these constitutional objections to this law, it may be observed that similar laws have existed, and been practiced on in the States since the adoption of the Federal Constitution; that by the act of the 7th of August, 1789, (1 Stat. at Large, 54,) Congress declared that all pilots in the bays, inlets, rivers, harbors, and ports of the United States, shall continue to be regulated in conformity with the existing laws of the States, &c., and that this contemporaneous construction of the Constitution, since acted on with such uniformity, in a matter of much public interest and importance, is entitled to great weight, in determining whether such a law is repugnant to the Constitution, as levying a duty not uniform throughout the United States, or as giving a preference to the ports of one State over those of another, or as obliging vessels to or from one State to enter, clear, or pay duties in another. *Stuart vs. Laird*, 1 Cranch, 299; *Martin vs. Hunter*, 1 Whea., 304; *Cohen vs. Commonwealth of Virginia*, 6 Whea. 264; *Prigg vs. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania*, 16 Peters, 621.

The opinion of the court is, that the law now in question is not repugnant to either of the above mentioned clauses of the Constitution.

It remains to consider the objection that it is repugnant to the third clause of the eighth section of the first article:—"The Congress shall have power to regulate Commerce with foreign nations and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes."

That the power to regulate Commerce includes the regulation of navigation, we consider settled. And when we look to the nature of the service performed by pilots, to the relation which that service and its compensations bear to navigation between the several States, and between the ports of the United States

and foreign countries, we are brought to the conclusion that the regulation of the qualifications of pilots, of the modes and times of offering and rendering their services, of the responsibilities which shall rest upon them, of the powers they shall possess, of the compensation they may demand, and of the penalties by which their rights and duties may be enforced, do constitute regulations of navigation, and consequently of Commerce, within the just meaning of the clause of the Constitution.

The power to regulate navigation is the power to prescribe rules in conformity with which navigation must be carried on. It extends to the persons who conduct it, as well as to the instruments used. Accordingly, the first Congress assembled under the Constitution, passed laws requiring the masters of ships and vessels of the United States to be citizens of the United States, and established many rules for the government and regulation of officers and seamen. (1 Stat. at Large, 55, 131.) These have been from time to time added to and changed; and we are not aware that their validity has been questioned.

Now, a pilot, so far as respects the navigation of the vessel in that part of the voyage which is his pilotage ground, is the temporary master charged with the safety of the vessel and cargo and of the lives of those on board, and intrusted with the command of the crew. He is not only one of the persons engaged in navigation, but he occupies a most important and responsible place among those thus engaged. And if Congress has power to regulate the seamen who assist the pilot in the management of the vessel, a power never denied, we can perceive no valid reason why the pilot should be beyond the reach of the same power. It is true, that according to the usages of modern Commerce on the ocean, the pilot is on board only during a part of the voyage between ports of different states, or between ports of the United States and foreign countries, but if he is on board for such a purpose and during so much of the voyage as to be engaged in navigation, the power to regulate navigation extends to him while thus engaged, as clearly as it would if he were to remain on board throughout the whole passage from port to port. For it is a power which extends to every part of the voyage, and may regulate those who conduct, or assist in conducting navigation in one part of a voyage as much as in another part, or during the whole voyage.

Nor should it be lost sight of, that this subject of the regulation of pilots and pilotage, has an intimate connection with, and an important relation to the general subject of Commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, over which it was one main object of the Constitution to create a national control. Conflicts between the laws of neighboring states, and discriminations, favorable, or adverse to Commerce, with particular foreign nations might be created by State laws regulating pilotage, deeply affecting that equality of commercial rights, and that freedom from State interference, which those who formed the Constitution were so anxious to secure, and which the experience of more than half a century has taught us to value so highly. The apprehension of this danger is not speculative merely, for in 1837, Congress actually interposed to relieve the Commerce of the country from serious embarrassment, arising from the laws of different States, situate upon waters which are the boundary between them. This was done by an enactment of the 2d March, 1837, in the following words:—

“Be it enacted, that it shall and may be lawful for the master or commander of any vessel, coming into or going out of any port situate upon waters which are the boundary between two States, to employ any pilot duly licensed or authorized by the laws of either of the States bounded on the said waters, to pilot said vessel to or from said port—any law, usage, or custom, to the contrary notwithstanding.”

The act of 1789, (1 Stat. at Large 54,) already referred to, contains a clear legislative exposition of the Constitution by the first Congress, to the effect that the power to regulate pilots was conferred on Congress by the Constitution; as does also the act of March the 2d, 1837, the terms of which have just been given. The weight to be allowed to this contemporaneous construction, and the prac-

tice of Congress under it, has, in another construction, been adverted to. And a majority of the court are of opinion, that a regulation of pilots is a regulation of Commerce, within the grant to Congress of the commercial power, contained in the third clause of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution.

It becomes necessary, therefore, to consider whether this law of Pennsylvania, being a regulation of Commerce, is valid.

The act of Congress of the 7th of August, 1789, sec. 4, is as follows:—

“That all pilots in the bays, inlets, rivers, harbors, and ports of the United States, shall continue to be regulated in conformity with the existing laws of the States, respectively, wherein such pilots may be, or with such laws as the States may respectively hereafter enact for the purpose, until further legislative provision shall be made by Congress.”

If the law of Pennsylvania, now in question, had been in existence at the date of this act of Congress, we might hold it to have been adopted by Congress, and thus made a law of the United States, and so valid. Because this act does, in effect, give the force of an act of Congress, to the then existing State laws on this subject, so long as they should continue unrepealed by the State which enacted them.

But the law on which these actions are founded was not enacted till 1803. What effect then can be attributed to so much of the act of 1789, as declares, that pilots shall continue to be regulated in conformity “*with such laws as the States may respectively hereafter enact for the purpose, until further legislative provision shall be made by Congress.*”

If the States were divested of the power to legislate on this subject by the grant of the commercial power to Congress, it is plain this act could not confer upon them power thus to legislate. If the Constitution excluded the States from making any law regulating Commerce, certainly Congress cannot regrant in any manner or reconvey to the States that power. And yet this act of 1789 gives its sanction only to laws enacted by the States. This necessarily implies a constitutional power to legislate; for only a rule created by the sovereign power of a State, acting in its legislative capacity, can be deemed a law enacted by a State; and if the State has so limited its sovereign power that it no longer extends to a particular subject, manifestly it cannot, in any proper sense, be said to enact laws thereon.

Entertaining these views we are brought directly and unavoidably to the consideration of the question, whether the grant of the commercial power to Congress, did *per se* deprive the States of all power to regulate pilots. This question has never been decided by this court, nor, in our judgment, has any case depending upon all the considerations which must govern this one, come before this court. The grant of commercial power to Congress does not contain any terms which expressly exclude the States from exercising any authority over its subject matter. If they are excluded it must be because the nature of the power, thus granted to Congress, requires that a similar authority should not exist in the States. If it were conceded on the one side, that the nature of this power, like that to legislate for the District of Columbia, is absolutely and totally repugnant to the existence of similar power in the States, probably no one would deny that the grant of the power to Congress, as effectually and perfectly excluded the States from all future legislation on the subject, as if express words had been used to exclude them.

And on the other hand, if it were admitted that the existence of this power in Congress, like the power of taxation, is compatible with the existence of a similar power in the States, then it would be in conformity with the contemporary exposition of the Constitution, (Federalist No. 32,) and with the judicial construction, given from time to time by this court, after the most deliberate consideration, to hold that the mere grant of such a power to Congress, did not imply a prohibition on the States to exercise the same power; that it is not the mere existence of such a power, but its exercise by Congress, which may be incompatible with the exercise of the same power by the States, and that the States

may legislate in the absence of Congressional regulations. *Sturgis vs. Crowinshield*, 4 Whea. 193, *Houston vs. Moore*, 5 Whea. 1, *Wilson vs. Blackbird Creek Co.*, 2 Peters, 251.

The diversities of opinion, therefore, which have existed on this subject, have arisen from the different views taken of the nature of this power. But when the nature of a power like this is spoken of, when it is said that the nature of the power requires that it should be exercised exclusively by Congress, it must be intended to refer to the subjects of that power, and to say they are of such a nature as to require exclusive legislation by Congress. Now the power to regulate Commerce, embraces a vast field, containing not only many, but exceedingly various subjects quite unlike in their nature; some imperatively demanding a single uniform rule, operating equally on the Commerce of the United States in every port; and some, like the subject now in question, as imperatively demanding that diversity, which alone can meet the local necessities of navigation.

Either absolutely to affirm, or deny that the nature of this power requires exclusive legislation by Congress, is to lose sight of the nature of the subjects of this power, and to assert concerning all of them, what is really applicable but to a part. Whatever subjects of this power are in their nature national, or admit of only one uniform system, or plan of regulation, may justly be said to be of such a nature as to require exclusive legislation by Congress. That this cannot be affirmed of laws for the regulation of pilots and pilotage is plain. The act of 1789 contains a clear and authoritative declaration by the first Congress, that the nature of this subject is such, that until Congress should find it necessary to exert its power, it should be left to the legislation of the States; that it is local and not national; that it is likely to be best provided for, not by one system or plan of regulations, but by as many as the legislative discretion of the several States should deem applicable to the local peculiarities of the ports within their limits.

Viewed in this light, so much of this act of 1789 as declares that pilots shall continue to be regulated "by such laws as the States may respectively hereafter enact for that purpose," instead of being held to be inoperative, as an attempt to confer on the States a power to legislate, of which the Constitution had deprived them, is allowed an appropriate and important signification. It manifests the understanding of Congress, at the outset of the government, that the nature of this subject is not such as to require its exclusive legislation. The practice of the States, and of the national government, has been in conformity with this declaration, from the origin of the national government to this time; and the nature of the subject when examined, is such as to leave no doubt of the superior fitness and propriety, not to say the absolute necessity, of different systems of regulation, drawn from local knowledge or experience, and conformed to local wants. How then can we say, that by the mere grant of power to regulate Commerce, the States are deprived of all power to legislate on this subject, because from the nature of the power the legislation of Congress must be exclusive. This would be to affirm that the nature of the power is in any case, something different from the nature of the subject to which, in such case, the power extends, and that the nature of the power necessarily demands, in all cases, exclusive legislation by Congress, while the nature of one of the subjects of that power, not only does not require such exclusive legislation, but may be best provided for by many different systems enacted by the States, in conformity with the circumstances of the ports within their limits. In constructing an instrument designed for the formation of a government, and in determining the extent of one of its important grants of power to legislate, we can make no such distinction between the nature of the power and the nature of the subject on which that power was intended practically to operate, nor consider the grant more extensive by affirming of the power, what is not true of its subject now in question.

It is the opinion of the majority of the court that the mere grant to Congress of the power to regulate Commerce, did not deprive the States of power to

regulate pilots; and that although Congress has legislated on this subject, its legislation manifests an intention, with a single exception, not to regulate this subject, but to leave its regulation to the several States. To these precise questions, which are all we are called on to decide, this opinion must be understood to be confined. It does not extend to the question what other subjects, under the commercial power are within the exclusive control of Congress, or may be regulated by the States in the absence of all Congressional legislation; nor to the general question how far any regulation of a subject by Congress, may be deemed to operate as an exclusion of all legislation by the States upon the same subject. We decide the precise questions before us, upon what we deem sound principles, applicable to this particular subject in the state in which the legislation of Congress has left it. We go no further.

We have not adverted to the practical consequences of holding that the States possess no power to legislate for the regulation of pilots, though in our apprehension these would be of the most serious importance. For more than sixty years this subject has been acted on by the States, and the systems of some of them created, and of others essentially modified during that period. To hold that pilotage fees and penalties demanded and received during that time, have been illegally exacted, under color of void laws, would work an amount of mischief which a clear conviction of constitutional duty, if entertained, must force us to occasion, but which could be viewed by no just mind without deep regret. Nor would the mischief be limited to the past. If Congress were now to pass a law adopting the existing State laws, if enacted without authority, and in violation of the Constitution, it would seem to us to be a new and questionable mode of legislation.

If the grant of commercial power in the Constitution has deprived the States of all power to legislate for the regulation of pilots, if their laws on this subject are mere usurpations upon the exclusive power of the general government, and utterly void, it may be doubted whether Congress could, with propriety, recognize them as laws, and adopt them as its own acts, and how are the legislatures of the States to proceed in future, to watch over and amend these laws, as the progressive wants of a growing Commerce will require, when the members of those legislatures are made aware that they cannot legislate on this subject without violating the oaths they have taken to support the Constitution of the United States.

We are of opinion that this State law was enacted by virtue of a power, residing in the State to legislate; that it is not in conflict with any law of Congress, that it does not interfere with any system which Congress has established by making regulations, or by intentionally leaving individuals to their own unrestricted action; that this law is therefore valid, and the judgment of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in each case must be affirmed.

LOSS OF A BAGGAGE CHECK BY A PASSENGER DOES NOT RELIEVE A RAILROAD COMPANY FROM LIABILITY.

In the First District Court, (New York City, 1852.) Judge Green presiding. Patrick Cass *vs.* The New York and New Haven Railroad Company.

This was an action to recover \$100 00, the value of a trunk and contents placed in possession of the baggage-keeper, in June last, but not delivered. It appears that Bedura Ann Kelley took the cars at Stamford, Connecticut, for New York, gave her trunk to the agent of the cars and received a check for it, but lost the check on the road; and the agent on the arrival of the cars at Canal street, refused to deliver the trunk to her, although she pointed it out to him and told him she had lost the ticket; also, that she could not read and did not know the number of the ticket. She again demanded the trunk, but he refused, and she asked him to keep it for her till she called for it. She being sick was subsequently taken to Bellevue Hospital, and did not leave there for five months. When she came out she sold and assigned the trunk and contents to plaintiff, who went with her to the depot and demanded the trunk of the managing agent, but on search being made it could not be found.

The Judge held that in common law, the railroad company is liable for the loss of baggage intrusted to their care, and the giving a check to a passenger designating the number of the baggage was intended to furnish the passenger with additional security, and the loss of the check does not relieve the company from liability, unless some other person presents the check, and in good faith and without notice the baggage is delivered to the party so offering the check. Nothing of the kind was shown here, and the plaintiff is entitled to judgment for \$100 (being amount of claim) and costs.

ACTION FOR BREACH OF CONTRACT TO DELIVER PART OF A CARGO OF GUM.

When a contract is made between two firms to purchase goods on joint account, but bought in the name of only one of them, the original terms of purchase cannot be varied without consent—and the silent party is entitled to his proportion of the gross bulk, at the price and upon the terms originally contracted for.

Court of Common Pleas, New York, before Judge Woodruff, May, 1852. *Davenport vs. Tilden and Blodgett*, in action for a breach of contract to deliver to plaintiff part of a cargo of gum copal.

The transaction occurred in September, 1850, at which time a cargo of gum copal, belonging to Grinnell, Minturn & Co., was on board the ship *Emily*, lying at this port. The defendants and a Mr. Gillespie, agent for the plaintiff, both wished to purchase it, and thinking it might be got on better terms if but one of the parties offered for it, the defendants entered into a written contract with the plaintiff, through his agent, Gillespie, by which they agreed that, if they bought the cargo, they would sell to Davenport & Co. from 30,000 lbs. to 40,000 lbs. of it, at the same price, and on the same terms and proportion, as they would pay for it themselves. From the evidence for the defendants, it appeared that when Gillespie was negotiating the contract for the plaintiff, he informed the defendants that Davenport & Co. were a house in this city, which was not the fact, Mr. Davenport having no partner, nor ever intimated that he had one. As the parties did not wish Grinnell & Co. to know that the cargo was purchased on their joint account, it was agreed that the plaintiff should not be delivered his part of it on shipboard, and the whole cargo was brought on shore and stored by the defendants. From the time the purchase was thus consummated by the defendants, until early in the following December, various interviews took place between the plaintiff and defendants in relation to his claim for half the cargo, which the defendants would not deliver, except on terms which the plaintiff would not accede to. The defendants alleged that they had contracted to sell the gum not to the plaintiff alone, or on his credit only, but to the firm of Davenport & Co., and that they would not take his paper for it. The defendants also alleged that in their bargain with Grinnell, Minturn & Co., although they were to have a credit of six months, they also had the option of paying cash and receiving a discount, and that they would pay cash, and the plaintiff must do so also. After various negotiations on the subject, the defendants, early in December, notified Davenport & Co., that they were ready to deliver the gum on received approved paper for it, and if Davenport & Co. did not comply with this offer, they would consider the contract at an end. The defendants purchased the gum at 10½ cents, and it appeared that from September to February good gum could be purchased for 9½ cents, at six and eight months, but shortly after it rose 10 per cent.

The Court charged the jury. The first question which they had to determine was whether the defendants made the contract as set forth in the complaint. It was not denied by defendants that they had signed the paper which was read in evidence. But it is denied that by this writing the defendants entered into a contract with plaintiff alone. On the contrary, it is said that it was made with two persons at least, and on the credit of more than one individual.

If the contract was made with Davenport and another, the plaintiff cannot maintain his action in his own sole name, in the absence of a transfer to him of the interest of his co-contractor. On this part of the case, the court had to let in evidence in order to see if Davenport & Co. meant only J. D. Davenport and no one else; add whether J. D. Davenport was in fact the only party for whom

the agreement had been made; or whether putting in the word "company" was a mistake of which he could avail himself in carrying out the contract. The testimony of the plaintiff, to which there is no contradiction, shows that whatever may have been the representations of Mr. Gillespie, or however it was understood by Tilden, in point of fact, the plaintiff had no partner, and the agreement was only for his own benefit, and not that of any one else. And if so, although the defendant may not be bound by it if there was any misrepresentation, still, if it is a fact that Davenport had no partner, he is, therefore, a proper party to stand here in court and assert his right to the performance of this agreement. But if the defendants contracted on the credit of a firm, and on the representations of plaintiff's agent that he or other persons were partners of Davenport, the defendants were not bound to deliver the property on the credit of one person only. And I do not understand that defendant ever refused to deliver the gum on a demand made in the name of Davenport & Co., or that the plaintiff ever claimed it on the credit of Davenport & Co. But if your reflections lead you to the conclusion that from the position of Davenport's agent, Gillespie, and the knowledge which Tilden had on the subject, the agreement was intended and understood by the parties, to be between the defendants and plaintiff alone, then it is my duty to say that the defendants, on effecting a purchase of the cargo, were bound to sell not less than 30,000 lbs. of it to the plaintiff, on the same terms as they paid for it; and also, that the plaintiff was entitled to an equal proportion of it in respect to quality, and on the same terms of sale as the defendants made with Grinnell, Minturn & Co., from whom they purchased it. And the subsequent agreement between Tilden and Grinnell, that Tilden might pay cash and receive a discount, could not affect the plaintiff's right. It was said that Tilden could make an after arrangement, by which he was to pay cash, and then say to Davenport that he should also pay cash; but, according to the terms of the contract, if the sale was made at six months' credit on the purchaser's own note, then the plaintiff was entitled to receive his portion of the cargo from Tilden, at six months' credit on his own note. Because it was the duty of the seller, before he made the agreement, to inquire whether Davenport was entitled to have it on his own note. If you come to the conclusion that Tilden was entitled to have the notes of Davenport & Co., and that Davenport did not comply with the contract by offering such notes, then you must find for the defendants. If you find for the plaintiff, you will give him the difference between the price at which the defendants agreed to sell, and the market value of gum of like quality and quantity at the time it was deliverable according to the contract.

The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff—damages \$184.

#### SUIT FOR COLLISION.

In the United States District Court, May 22d, 1852. Before Judge Judson. Charles E. Kelsey and another, vs. the schooner William Kallahan.

The schooner Archelaus, Charles E. Kelsey master, on the night of the 13th of October, 1851, that being a bright and clear moonlight night, was beating her way down the North River, W. S. W., flood tide, close hauled on her starboard tack, five points on the wind, full and by. At the same time the schooner W. Kallahan, P. M'Dermot master, was laying her course up the river, with the wind free, heading rather towards the New Jersey shore. The two vessels were seen by each at the distance of about half a mile. The collision took place west of the middle of the river, at a point about two-thirds over from the east shore. The Archelaus was struck on her lee bow, between her stem and fore rigging, going down immediately, and proved a total loss.

Two questions have arisen:—1st. Has the court jurisdiction of the subject matter of the controversy? On this point the facts are admitted, and out of this admission the question is raised. The collision occurred on the North River, within the Southern District of New York. At the precise time when the libel was filed in the clerk's office, the schooner W. Kallahan was on a voyage from Albany to Philadelphia, and was not within the Southern District of New York

—and that, at a subsequent day, she came within the district, and was here attached by the process on this libel, and is now responding to the libel.

The time of service of process is the true period of the commencement of a suit, and the jurisdiction attaches to the case from that day. The cause is therefore properly here.

2d. On whom shall the loss fall is the next question. After ascertaining the position of each vessel, as above stated, there is one important fact proved to the entire satisfaction of the court, which must be deemed a controlling fact in the case.

At the time of the collision, the schooner *William Kallahan* had no sufficient look-out. The man placed forward was part way down the ladder of the fore-castle, and did not descry the *Archelaus*, and gave no order to the man at the wheel of the approach of danger. It was peculiarly his duty and business, in a place like that, to have remained at his post, and there is no doubt that if he had been at his post, the collision would not have occurred.

As a strong corroborating fact, it appears that the man at the helm, immediately upon the accident, found fault with the look-out because timely notice had not been given him, and in his testimony he adds, that the sails of his vessel prevented his seeing the *Archelaus* until she was about being struck.

The rule of law is well settled, that a vessel with the wind free must give way in time to a vessel close hauled on the wind, and that a vessel so sailing should not only have a look-out, but that he should do his proper duty.

The evidence in the case shows that the fault rests with the *William Kallahan*, and she must stand responsible for the consequences.

Decree for libellants, with reference to a commissioner to ascertain the damage.

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#### DAMAGES FOR INJURIES RECEIVED IN RAILROAD CARS.

An action was brought before Judge Campbell, in the New York Superior Court, by Patrick Carroll against the New York and New Haven Railroad Company, to recover damages for injuries received while riding in the cars of that company.

It appeared that, on the 25th of October, 1851, the plaintiff took his seat in the express train, with a ticket for New Rochelle, but as that train did not stop there, he was carried on to Stamford; and the conductor gave him a free ticket back to New Rochelle. Plaintiff got into the return train, which came into collision with a freight train, running out of time. Some of the brakemen on the forward part of the train were killed, and the plaintiff, being in the baggage car, was severely injured.

The defendants admit their negligence in running their trains out of time, but they also charge negligence upon the part of the plaintiff, in leaving the seat in the passenger car, which had been provided for him, and going into the baggage car, a place of danger, contrary to the rules in the printed notices in the cars. They also rely upon the fact that the plaintiff was a passenger gratuitously.

The court charged the jury that the defendants were bound to carry their passengers with safety, using the utmost care and diligence, so far as human foresight could provide. If the plaintiff was in the cars as a free passenger, that will qualify the responsibility; still, if he was there with license, they are responsible. The defendants' negligence is not denied, but if both parties are alike guilty of negligence, the plaintiff cannot recover. But the negligence of the plaintiff must concur directly with the injury; it must contribute directly, not remotely, not consequentially, to produce the injury. For instance, if the baggage had fallen upon him, and injured him, while in the baggage car, he would have been guilty of negligence. You will consider whether there was negligence on the part of the plaintiff. Admitting, also, that he was in an unsafe place, contrary to the rules of the company, you will consider whether he was not in there with the assent and knowledge of the conductor; if so, he was not there wrongfully. If you find that the plaintiff was not guilty of any negligence

which concurred to produce this injury, the defendants are liable. Verdict for plaintiff, \$4,000.

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ACTION TO RECOVER MERCHANDISE WRONGFULLY DETAINED.

In the Superior Court, New York, May 4th, 1852, before Judge Oakley. David Dows and Ira B. Carey vs. James B. Perrin and M. M. Caleb.

This was an action to recover possession of 4,822 bushels of corn wrongfully detained by defendants, as alleged in complaint.

The defendants answer, denying any title to the property in the plaintiffs, but affirming that it belonged to one L. W. Brainard, and that defendant Perrin was captain of the canal-boat, on board of which the corn was shipped.

It appeared that, August 7th, 1848, one Bloss negotiated with Niles & Wheeler, produce and forwarding merchants at Buffalo, for this corn, agreed upon the terms, and obtained the refusal of it for a few days. Soon, Bloss returned to the store with one J. F. Mack, and took from the clerk of Niles & Wheeler bills of lading of the corn, in the name of Mack, and consigned to the plaintiffs. The corn was shipped to New York in the boat of defendant Perrin, and the bills of lading were transmitted to the plaintiffs, who thereupon made advances to Mack, to the amount of the value of the property, upon the agreement that the same had been forwarded to them. Soon after Mack, who had for ten years before been engaged in business in Rochester, and dealing with plaintiffs, absconded. Niles & Wheeler then telegraphed to plaintiffs that the corn had not been paid for, and, requesting them to hold the same to their account, immediately resold it to P. Durfee & Co., and gave them the bill of lading, which by intermediate indorsements came into the hands of Brainard, whom defendants claim to be the owner. The defendant, Caleb, is the partner of Niles & Wheeler, in New York.

It was contended that the clerk of Niles & Wheeler had no authority to make out the bills of lading, and consequently the sale to Mack was invalid.

The Court charged the jury that Niles and Wheeler, by giving these bills of lading, transferred the property to Mack; and that as the plaintiffs had made advances upon these papers, the sale was to be deemed valid if the clerk had the power to sign the papers. The jury were, therefore, to consider whether the act of the clerk, in signing the papers and delivering them to Mack, was done by authority of Niles and Wheeler, either express or implied. No express authority is shown; but if he was held out to the world as an agent, in doing acts countenanced by the principal; if he was in the habit of signing and delivering such papers, the law implies an authority. Again, the law implies an authority where there is a recognition of an act after it is done. Niles & Wheeler, in this case, telegraphed to plaintiffs that they had stopped the corn, and that it had not been paid for. The jury will consider whether this amounts to a recognition of the right of the clerk to ship the corn, and make the proper papers to the plaintiffs. If, from all the facts in the case, you conclude the authority existed, you will find for the plaintiffs.

Verdict for the plaintiffs, \$2,794 for amount, and \$723 damages for detention.

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PROMISSORY NOTES—INDORSERS.

In the Superior Court, May 24, 1852, before Judge Sanford. John D. Williams vs. Isaac T. Storm and others.

This was an action upon five promissory notes, made by the Empire Mills, December 10, 1850, amounting to \$10,000, payable to defendant, indorsed by defendant and Austens & Spicer, to plaintiff.

The defendants contend that the notes were indorsed for the accommodation of the makers, without consideration, and that they were negotiated at usurious rates of interest.

It appeared in evidence that there had been previous dealings between the

makers and indorsers; the makers having consigned to the indorsers large quantities of wool, for which the indorsers of these notes had given their acceptances to the Empire Mills, the makers in this case; that at length the indorsers had told them that they could not take any more, and thereupon charged the balance on hand to them. The Empire Mills then made these notes, declaring on the face of them, that they were given for this wool, and got them discounted at 12 per cent.

Upon this evidence the Court directed a verdict for plaintiff, subject to the opinion of the Court.

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COMMON CARRIER—BILL OF LADING.

In the Supreme Court, New York, April 26, 1852. Before Judge Roosevelt. *Henry Gilbert vs. Charles Folger and others.*

The plaintiff alleges that he delivered to defendants twenty-seven packages of goods to be forwarded by them to Buffalo, and shows a bill of lading, signed by defendants, acknowledging their receipt; but alleges that only twenty-five reached their destination. He brings suit to recover for the value of the two missing packages, and damages.

The defendants answer that only twenty-five packages were in fact received by them, and aver that they gave a bill of lading for twenty-seven by mistake.

The court instructed the jury that the bill of lading was not conclusive, but between the parties, was open to explanation and alteration. But it is incumbent on the defendants to show that it was made by mistake; and it is for you to consider whether they have conclusively explained it. You have the testimony of the carman that he delivered twenty-seven packages; while opposed to this is the written evidence of the pass-books and the manifest, together with that of the captain of the barge, showing that there were only twenty-five. It further appears that plaintiff requested defendants to enter twenty-seven instead of twenty-five in the bill of lading, although in fact the remaining two had not been brought down to them, as he was in haste to leave that evening. If you conclude that the bill of lading is wrong, the defendants are not liable. Verdict for defendants.

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LIABILITIES OF HUSBANDS FOR DEBTS, ETC., OF THEIR WIVES.

The following are sections of an "act in relation to the liabilities of husbands for the debts and contracts of their wives contracted before marriage," passed at the last session of the Legislature of Maine, and approved by the Governor April 26, 1852.

SEC. 1. Hereafter when any man shall marry, his property shall be exempt from any and all liabilities for the debts or contracts of his wife made or contracted before marriage; but an action to recover the same may be maintained against such husband and wife, and the property of said wife held in her own right, if any, shall alone be subject to attachment, levy, or sale on execution, to satisfy all liabilities for such debts and contracts, in the same manner as if she were unmarried.

SEC. 2. In any such action the wife may defend alone or jointly with her husband, but no arrest of the person of such husband or wife shall be authorized upon any writ or execution arising under this act.

SEC. 3. Any married woman under the age of twenty-one years shall have, and may exercise, all the rights, privileges and powers enumerated in the several acts now in force, securing to married women their rights in property, in the same manner, and with the same effect, as though she were of full age.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its approval by the Governor.

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**COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.**

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ABUNDANCE OF CAPITAL AND GENERAL PROSPERITY—SALE OF RAILROAD BONDS—EFFECT OF THE INCREASED PRODUCTION OF THE PRECIOUS METALS UPON THE COMMERCIAL VALUE OF OTHER COMMODITIES—PRICES OF PRODUCE IN THE PAST HAVE NOT BEEN DEPENDENT UPON THE SUPPLY OF COIN—ILLUSTRATIONS OF THIS STATEMENT BY COMPARATIVE TABLES—EXPLANATION OF THE CAUSE OF SUCH FLUCTUATIONS—THE TRUE SOURCE OF NATIONAL PROSPERITY—FREE TRADE AND PROTECTION—PROFITABLE EMPLOYMENT FOR THE PEOPLE THE OBJECT OF BOTH PARTIES—MOVEMENTS IN FOREIGN EXCHANGE—SHIPMENTS OF SPECIE—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES—IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FOR MAY, AND COMPARATIVE TOTAL FROM JANUARY 1ST FOR THREE YEARS—STOCK IN WAREHOUSE—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR SAME PERIODS—RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR MAY AND FROM JAN. 1ST—EXPORTS OF PRODUCE—CAUSES OF FLUCTUATIONS IN SHIPMENTS—DISBURSEMENT OF JULY DIVIDENDS AND INTEREST.

The past month has been characterized by unusual commercial activity, considering the lateness of the season, and by a general buoyancy in monetary affairs. Capital continues abundant, and even under the increased demand from parties wishing to arrange their liabilities previous to their summer recreation, there has been no advance in rates of interest. This ease in the money-market has led to less recklessness in business than was generally expected. Real estate has advanced in price, not only near all the great centers of business, but generally throughout the country. This advance, however, has been very different from that usually seen during the fever of speculation, when all sections have improved indiscriminately, or the highest price has been paid for fictitious investments. The sales of late, particularly near the large cities, have been to more discriminating purchasers, and few large prices have been paid except for a corresponding value. It is true that some property has improved more than others equally eligible, but there have been no active movements in "water lots" or fancy building sites in "cities" not yet incorporated. If any investments have gone beyond the bounds of prudence, the most noticeable are the purchases of railroad bonds, large amounts of which have been placed either by public auction, or by receiving proposals from competing bidders. Where a road has become established, and the money borrowed forms but a part of the saleable value of the property mortgaged for its security, the investment would seem to be a safe one, even if the net income were not immediately sufficient to pay the interest upon the bonds. But where the original subscription has all been sunk in unproductive labor, and the bonds issued represent nearly the whole saleable value of the road, then the prospect of an immediate permanent income becomes important, and a careful examination of the claims of the borrower would seem a matter of common prudence.

The problem of the effect the increased production of gold is likely to have upon the value of property has become still more interesting since the contribution of Australia has been added to the golden tide. We have never felt the same anxiety which has prevailed in other quarters, because we have believed that the increase of capital, under present circumstances, would so far augment the facilities of trade, and stimulate production, that the present balance between supply and consumption would not be greatly disturbed. Were gold so readily supplied without effort, that the mass of the people could secure a fortune in

idleness, then the increased consumption would tend to enhance prices. This result, however, is not at all likely to follow recent discoveries, and there is little reason to fear for any undue advance in prices of productive property. Even in the past, the highest prices of breadstuffs or of real estate, either here or abroad, have not been realized at the period of the greatest stock of the precious metals on deposit or in circulation. A single stormy day in harvest time has more effect on the price of flour than the arrival of millions of gold dust; at this very moment, with a production of gold from California up to this time of over \$200,000,000, good flour is selling in New York at about \$4 00 per barrel. The same absence of any general connection between the values of the necessities of life and the supply of the precious metals, will be found on reference to statistics in Europe. The following will show the comparative population of Great Britain, the stock of gold and silver coin, and the price of wheat per quarter:—

Year.	Population.	Gold & silver coin.	Price of wheat.
1500.....	3,000,000	£34,000,000	8 shillings.
1600.....	3,600,000	130,000,000	27 "
1700.....	5,500,000	226,000,000	36 "
1809.....	10,000,000	380,000,000	115 "
1829.....	12,800,000	313,000,000	82 "
1849.....	18,000,000	315,000,000	44 "
1852.....	18,500,000	405,000,000	42 "

The high price in 1809 was owing to the combined influence of political troubles and unfruitful seasons, and in 1829 the latter cause, together with the sliding scale, produced a similar result, although not to the same extent.

There appears to be but little doubt, whatever the popular opinion may be upon this subject, that other causes have done far more to depress or inflate prices, since the year 1700, than the relative supply of the precious metals. The real source of a nation's prosperity is found in the blessing which attends upon national industry. A working people, where each is left free to enjoy the product of his own toil, need no "fostering" to become wealthy. In this, the friends of a high tariff and the advocates of free trade both agree, and from this point their views diverge. The latter believe that the people should be left free to choose their own pursuits and objects of toil; the former would compel them, as far as possible, to produce all they consume. If a man can earn two dollars in the business of his choice, during the time he can make a hat, which would cost him one dollar if made abroad, free trade would give him the privilege. Tariff objects to this, because while the man is making the hat he can consume his neighbor's butter and beans, and pay the latter a good price for it. In all this, Tariff loses sight of the fact that while the man is earning his two dollars at some other employment, he still consumes the produce and is in a better condition to pay for it. The only force in the high tariff argument would be found in the fact, if it existed, that the business of producing butter and beans was overdone, and that some must be driven out of it, and compelled to make hats. This is not true either in hypothesis or fact, for no business is overcrowded for want of protection, and if it were, partial legislation would not afford the remedy.

There has been little fluctuation in foreign exchange during the month, and the demand in all sections of the Union has been less than anticipated. The fact that the portion of the cotton crop to be shipped has about all gone forward, and that but a limited quantity of new exchange could be made before next

autumn, has kept up prices to about the specie point, but has not led, as herein-after noticed, to any very large shipments of coin. Some farther exports will doubtless follow weekly, but the supply is fully equal to the demand.

The following will show the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints for the month of May:—

DEPOSITS FOR MAY.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold .....	\$374,260	\$384,167	\$4,151,000	\$4,336,000
Silver .....	2,340	11,081	20,000	20,000
Total deposits .....	\$376,600	\$395,148	\$4,171,000	\$4,356,000

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles .....	23,000	\$460,000	167,332	\$3,346,640
Eagles .....	.....	.....	13,505	135,050
Half eagles .....	.....	.....	32,445	162,225
Quarter eagles .....	.....	.....	108,120	270,300
Gold dollars.....	.....	.....	218,140	218,140
Total gold coinage.....	23,000	\$460,000	539,542	\$4,132,355

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars .....	60,000	\$30,000	21,500	\$10,750
Dimes .....	.....	.....	100,000	10,000
Three-cent pieces.....	.....	.....	1,820,600	54,618
Total silver coinage .....	60,000	\$30,000	1,942,100	\$75,368

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents .....	.....	.....	263,280	\$2,632
Total coinage.....	83,000	\$490,000	2,744,922	\$4,210,355

We predicted that the deposits of gold up to the first of June would reach \$20,000,000; the above, added to our previous report, shows an aggregate of \$20,500,000. Since the first of June, about \$4,000,000 have been received in addition to the above, so that the total coinage of California gold for the year will probably exceed \$50,000,000.

The imports into this country from foreign ports for the month of May show a large decline from the corresponding month of last year, and a still greater decline from the same period of the preceding year. This falling off is seen more or less at all of the ports, but is most noticeable at the port of New York, where the difference will be seen in the following comparison:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF MAY.

	Entered direct.	Ent'd warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852 .....	\$6,096,996	\$453,109	\$789,046	\$380,584	\$7,719,735
1851 .....	8,942,711	1,148,428	788,326	111,443	10,987,908
1850 .....	7,492,958	2,344,780	808,216	2,883,623	13,529,577

In the item of specie for May, 1850, a portion of the aggregate is made up of California gold received from Chagres, as from a foreign port. Exclusive of specie, the above table shows a decline in the imports from last year of \$3,537,314. The withdrawals from warehouse continue in excess of the amount stored, so that the stock of goods in bond is now much reduced. The following will show the a ctuations at New York in this particular:—

	1852.		1851.		1850.	
	Entered warehouse.	Withd'wn from warehouse.	Entered warehouse.	Withd'wn from warehouse.	Entered warehouse.	Withd'wn from warehouse.
January.....	\$1,281,594	\$1,584,652	\$1,611,847	\$1,024,246	\$950,753	\$902,965
February.....	1,003,383	1,788,997	1,240,329	899,438	717,662	856,157
March.....	916,519	1,605,849	1,181,925	1,068,437	1,013,485	561,653
April.....	732,422	1,255,429	1,238,313	1,144,068	1,498,293	586,260
May.....	453,109	1,380,371	2,148,428	858,519	2,344,780	742,914
Total.....	4,387,027	7,615,298	6,420,842	4,994,708	6,524,973	3,649,949

This shows the withdrawals for the first five months of the current year to be \$3,500,000 in excess of the entries, which would leave the stock very small, as will be seen by the following calculation of the business since the 1st of January, 1850:—

## WAREHOUSE AT NEW YORK.

	Entered warehouse.	Withdrawn.
For the year 1850.....	\$15,099,750	\$10,922,946
For the year 1851.....	13,903,152	13,898,526
Five months of 1852.....	4,387,027	7,615,298
Total.....	\$33,389,929	\$32,436,770

The stock in warehouse on the 1st of April, which commenced the current quarter, amounted to only \$6,199,630, including breadstuffs in bond.

The falling off in the imports for May, as noticed above, added to the deficit for the four months previously given, leaves the total imports at New York since January 1st, nearly \$11,000,000 behind the amount for the same period of the previous year, and about \$7,000,000 less than the corresponding amount for 1850, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

## TOTAL IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR FIVE MONTHS, ENDING MAY 31ST.

	Entered direct.	Ent'd wareh'se.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	\$39,418,731	\$4,387,027	\$6,281,838	\$1,448,434	\$51,536,030
1851.....	50,290,562	6,420,842	4,468,928	1,278,099	62,458,431
1850.....	41,217,862	6,524,973	4,946,991	5,902,099	58,591,925

Of this decline from last year, \$4,353,368 consists of dry goods, of which \$504,349 has been realized since the first of May, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

## IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE MONTH OF MAY.

## ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$768,810	\$586,350	\$397,305
Manufactures of cotton.....	556,829	237,349	277,351
Manufactures of silk.....	1,030,895	918,399	518,368
Manufactures of flax.....	367,677	268,986	263,607
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	52,528	124,013	246,796
Total.....	\$2,776,739	\$2,135,097	\$1,763,427

## WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$28,095	\$76,800	\$70,584
Manufactures of cotton.....	40,507	52,646	37,902
Manufactures of silk.....	46,720	49,343	138,717
Manufactures of flax.....	37,506	28,980	40,355
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	6,083	28,615	26,705
Total.....	\$158,911	\$236,334	\$314,263
Add entered for consumption..	2,776,739	2,135,097	1,763,427
Total thrown upon market..	\$2,935,650	\$2,371,481	\$2,017,690

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$243,543	\$107,244	\$109,736
Manufactures of cotton.....	199,548	92,118	39,519
Manufactures of silk.....	49,368	111,418	111,309
Manufactures of flax.....	56,004	59,032	26,580
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	4,926	9,777	19,817
Total.....	\$553,389	\$379,639	\$306,961
Add entered for consumption..	2,776,739	2,135,097	1,703,427
Total entered at the port....	\$3,330,128	\$2,514,736	\$2,010,387

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR FIVE MONTHS, ENDING MAY 23.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$5,744,476	\$5,513,126	\$4,588,869
Manufactures of cotton.....	5,532,648	5,355,438	4,295,267
Manufactures of silk.....	7,025,638	10,296,506	8,156,557
Manufactures of flax.....	4,211,341	3,291,168	2,643,389
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	933,610	1,742,901	1,858,522
Total.....	\$23,447,713	\$26,199,139	\$21,542,604

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$346,837	\$474,886	\$779,610
Manufactures of cotton.....	608,095	822,057	1,004,230
Manufactures of silk.....	514,153	520,655	1,163,650
Manufactures of flax.....	202,023	332,322	566,149
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	75,215	220,667	219,324
Total.....	\$1,746,323	\$2,370,087	\$3,732,968
Add entered for consumption..	23,447,713	26,199,139	21,542,604
Total thrown upon the market.	\$25,194,036	\$28,569,226	\$25,275,567

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$587,385	\$589,053	\$633,435
Manufactures of cotton.....	825,023	763,854	536,073
Manufactures of silk.....	496,309	861,037	1,434,510
Manufactures of flax.....	321,539	322,561	187,772
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	50,529	190,080	187,967
Total.....	\$2,280,785	\$2,726,590	\$3,029,757
Add entered for consumption..	23,447,713	26,199,139	21,542,604
Total entered at the port ...	\$25,728,498	\$28,925,729	\$24,572,361

The receipts for duties also exhibit a decline from last year:—

RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

	1852.	1851.	1850.
For the month of May.....	\$1,952,110 86	\$2,504,640 16	2,311,900 68
Previously reported.....	10,065,521 79	11,842,839 82	9,213,325 61
Total since January 1....	\$12,017,632 65	\$14,347,479 98	\$11,525,226 29

Notwithstanding the decrease in the imports, the exports from this country to foreign ports, will compare favorably with the shipments for the corresponding period of any former year. The following will show the clearances from the port of New York:—

## EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR MAY.

	Domestic produce.	For'n dutiable.	For'n free.	Specie.	Total.
1852 .....	\$4,249,924	\$545,973	\$106,818	\$1,834,893	\$6,737,608
1851 .....	4,402,052	361,015	113,371	4,506,135	9,382,573
1850 .....	3,610,977	310,231	36,401	741,735	4,699,344

In the above it will be seen that the shipments of specie show a large decrease, while the amount of merchandise is about the same. The following is a comparison for five months:—

## EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR FIVE MONTHS, ENDING MAY 31ST.

	Domestic produce.	For'n dutiable.	For'n free.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	\$18,579,452	\$1,936,981	\$395,719	\$9,067,654	\$29,979,806
1851.....	18,678,550	1,716,462	314,910	12,631,148	33,341,060
1850.....	14,945,666	1,555,414	375,083	1,573,290	18,449,461

We continue our monthly statement of the comparative exports of some of the leading articles of produce from New York to foreign ports, from January 1st to June 21st.

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots... bbls.	10,415	6,794	Naval stores... bbls.	167,990	199,590
Pearls.....	1,007	315	Oils—		
Beeswax..... lbs.	159,740	123,596	Whale..... galls.	704,538	26,722
Breadstuffs—			Sperm.....	236,577	243,541
Wheat flour .. bbls.	324,418	525,527	Lard.....	178,218	18,075
Rye flour .....	4,385	6,683	Linseed.....	3,137	7,084
Corn meal.....	20,276	23,731	Provisions—		
Wheat..... bush.	215,788	656,873	Pork..... bbls.	24,698	18,307
Rye.....	234,996		Beef.....	15,182	24,314
Oats.....	2,001	3,630	Cut meats... lbs.	2,602,344	1,056,498
Barley.....		347	Butter.....	1,450,945	295,366
Corn.....	943,370	521,160	Cheese.....	2,537,163	395,288
Candles—Mould. bxs.	22,035	30,382	Lard.....	2,739,601	1,140,954
Sperm.....	1,285	1,604	Rice..... tcs.	16,950	20,453
Coal..... tons.	3,043	16,372	Tallow..... lbs.	1,210,560	259,537
Cotton..... bales.	193,848	247,434	Tobacco—crude pkgs.	9,989	11,725
Hay.....	2,541	5,691	manu'd lbs.	1,843,925	1,754,496
Hops.....	113	452	Whalebone.....	728,727	204,598

This table exhibits many items of much interest. It will be seen that the exports of wheat, rye, flour, cotton, naval stores, and beef have largely increased, while our shipments of Indian corn, oils, cut meats, butter, cheese, lard, tallow and whalebone have largely declined. The increase in rye is owing to the demand for the continent, whither over 200,000 bushels have been sent within the last three months. Cotton has of course gone forward more freely owing to a larger crop here, and increased production abroad. The shipments of corn have declined, this article not suiting the foreign taste as well as wheat. Oils have been high and scarce, but are now going forward more freely under recent orders. Beef is more in demand, and if our countrymen could be persuaded to take the proper pains to prepare it for a foreign market, would soon become one of our most profitable articles of export.

There will be a large amount of money disbursed for dividends and interest on the 1st of July, which will tend to keep down the rates of interest in our larger Eastern cities to 4 a 5½ per cent; while the large amount of railroad bonds and the like securities sold, and the money received for cereals and cotton, will make capital more abundant throughout the interior.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

FLUCTUATIONS OF STOCKS IN THE BOSTON MARKET.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for June, 1852, (vol. xxvi, page 727,) we gave a table of the fluctuations of forty different stocks in the Boston market, showing their highest and lowest points, and the date, with the market value, gain or loss for the month of April, 1852, &c., derived from the carefully prepared "money article" of the *Boston Commonwealth*. We now subjoin, from the same reliable source, a similar table for the month of May, 1852. This table shows the unusual feature of every stock having advanced or held its own, with the exception of the Vermont Central. The advance in dividend securities has been very large.

FLUCTUATIONS FOR MAY IN FORTY DIFFERENT STOCKS, SHOWING THEIR HIGHEST AND LOWEST POINTS, AND THE DATE, WITH THE PRESENT MARKET VALUE, GAIN OR LOSS FOR THE MONTH, AND NUMBER OF SHARES SOLD IN EACH.

Stocks.	Highest sales.	Day mo.	Lowest sales.	Day mo.	Value 31.	From May Gain.	From April 30. Loss.	Shares sold.
Boston and Lowell.....	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	24	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	110	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	22
Boston and Providence.....	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	90	1	93 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	558
Boston and Worcester.....	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	18	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	476
Boston and Maine.....	110	28	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	110	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	202
Michigan Central.....	101	13	99 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	..	666
Manchester and Lawrence.....	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	25	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	100	6	..	209
Vermont and Canada.....	104	27	100	10	104	4	..	208
Fitchburg.....	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	27	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	107	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	438
Eastern.....	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	24	96 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	187
Western.....	108	18	105	5	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	500
Northern.....	68 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	31	63 $\frac{3}{4}$	2	..	1,044
Concord.....	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	52	5	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	121
Concord and Montgomery.....	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	17	45 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	401
Cheshire, (old stock).....	45	3	45	3	45	0	..	1
Cheshire, (preferred).....	65	27	60	7	65	6	..	143
Old Colony.....	66	22	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	75
Rutland.....	38	25	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	..	137
South Shore.....	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	..	259
Sullivan.....	20 $\frac{3}{8}$	1	20 $\frac{3}{8}$	20	20 $\frac{7}{8}$	..	..	396
Reading, (par 50).....	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	..	811
Wilmington, (par 50).....	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	32 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	1,472
Norfolk County.....	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	704
Ogdensburg.....	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	19	26	1	29	3	..	4,703
Vermont Central.....	19 $\frac{3}{8}$	3	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	8	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	39,063
Vermont and Massachusetts.....	24	6	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	22	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	2,432
Pittsburg Copper Co.....	107	17	107	17	108	5	..	7
Edgeworth Co.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	8	4	8	0	..	2,663
East Boston Co.....	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	19	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	24 $\frac{3}{8}$	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	..	10,859
Canton Co.....	84	18	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	81	$\frac{3}{8}$	..	1,102
Essex Co.....	118 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	105	1	115 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	1,260
Bank of Commerce.....	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	103 $\frac{3}{8}$	1	104 $\frac{3}{8}$	1	..	241
Bank of North America.....	105	21	103 $\frac{1}{4}$	3	104 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	..	32
Faneuil Hall Bank.....	104	27	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	104	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	39
Exchange Bank.....	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	8	108	1	..	32
Traders' Bank.....	..	..	..	..	105 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	none
Ogdensburg 7's.....	100	11	98	4	100	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	\$39,800
Vermont Central 7's.....	91	2	87 $\frac{3}{4}$	8	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	..	\$254,800
Do. 6's, 1856.....	76 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	73	15	76	..	..	\$11,500
Rutland 7's.....	99 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	95	3	99 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	..	\$51,800
Norfolk County Bonds.....	77	12	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	75 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{3}{8}$	..	\$17,100

It will be seen, by referring to the table in the June number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, that the amount of business in the fancies has not been so large as in the month of April, transactions being more confined to dividend-paying securities, which have been in active request, more particularly about the middle of the month. Northern now (June 1) sells, dividend off, at half a dollar per share less than on the 30th of April, but including the dividend, the actual gain for the month has been \$2 per share. Essex Company has been very active throughout the month; May 1st it sold for 105, but reached 117 on the 7th, and then fell off to 108 May 13th. Again it started up, and touched 118 on the 19th, since which time it has been moving about between 115 and 118, sometimes varying \$2 to \$3 in one day.

#### OF THE INCREASED AND INCREASING SUPPLIES OF GOLD.

The following article on the increased supplies of gold from California and Australia, is condensed from a late number of the London *Athenæum*. Although many of the "facts and figures" it contains have already appeared in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, their repetition in this place is necessary for the purpose of elucidating the conclusions of the writer of the article in the *Athenæum*.

"The estimates of the values of the quantity of gold and silver existing in Europe and America, at the commencement of the year 1848, are taken from the work of M. Chevalier, on money, published in 1850.

"No supplies had been received from California till late in 1848. The total stock of gold and silver in the year 1500, when America was discovered, is computed at £40,000,000 sterling, of which the amount of gold was only £12,000,000. This sum, compared with the large amount received from the mines of America, subsequent to 1500, accounts for the great revolution in the value of gold, which took place soon after the voyage of Columbus.

"In 1848, however, there was a large accumulation of gold and silver in the world, on which the new and large supplies could operate but slowly in any alteration of value, compared with the immediate effect produced in the value of money at the time of the discovery and first working of the South American mines.

"In 1848, there was a mass of £1,727,000,000 sterling of both metals.

ESTIMATE OF THE VALUE OF THE TOTAL QUANTITY OF GOLD AND SILVER EXISTING IN VARIOUS FORMS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE YEAR 1848.

	Silver.	Gold.
America.....	£1,087,000,000	£401,000,000
Europe.....	90,000,000	25,000,000
Russia.....	13,000,000	44,000,000
Africa and other places.....	.....	100,000,000
Total.....	£1,180,000,000	£570,000,000
As existing A. D. 1500.....	28,000,000	12,000,000
Total.....	£1,208,000,000	£582,000,000
Add silver.....	.....	1,208,000,000
Total pounds sterling.....	.....	£1,790,000,000
Deduct for exportation, wear and tear, and losses by casualties.....	.....	64,000,000
Leaving.....	.....	£1,726,000,000

"A third part of this was gold. And if we suppose, as we have reason to believe, that the new produce yielded by the sources of supply in California and Australia will amount annually to £20,000,000 sterling, or \$100,000,000, a few years will lead to an important alteration in the present exchangeable value of gold. The new supply would then be at the annual increase of  $\frac{3}{8}$  per cent on the stock existing in 1848. In 1850 and in 1851 the increase was actually at the rate of 2 to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent on the stock of gold in 1848.

"The annual supply of the precious metals in 1800 and 1848 is stated as follows:

ESTIMATED VALUE OF THE ANNUAL QUANTITIES OF GOLD AND SILVER PLACED IN THE MARKETS OF THE WORLD AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY—SAY IN THE YEAR 1800:—

	Silver.	Gold.
America.....	£7,000,000	£1,920,000
Europe, excluding Russia, but including Turkey. . . .	560,000	140,000
Russia.....	200,000	88,000
Africa.....	.....	280,000
Archipelago of Asia.....	.....	650,000
Divers other sources.....	80,000	180,000
Total.....	£7,840,000	£3,258,000
Silver.....	.....	7,840,000

Total gold and silver..... £11,098,000

ESTIMATED VALUE OF THE ANNUAL QUANTITIES OF GOLD AND SILVER PLACED IN THE MARKETS OF THE WORLD IMMEDIATELY BEFORE THE DISCOVERY OF THE CALIFORNIAN MINES, OR SAY IN THE EARLY PART OF 1848.

	Silver.	Gold.
America.....	£6,200,000	£2,100,000
Europe, excluding Russia, but including Turkey.....	1,320,000	360,000
Russia.....	210,000	4,012,000
Africa.....	.....	550,000
Asia, excluding Russia and Turkey.....	900,000	2,800,000
Total.....	£8,630,000	£9,910,000
Silver.....	.....	8,630,000

Total gold and silver..... £18,540,000

“Comparing these two statements, the results are as follows:—

YEAR 1848 COMPARED WITH 1800.

	Silver.		Gold.	
	Less.	More.	Less.	More.
America.....	£800,000	.....	.....	£180,000
Europe.....	.....	£760,000	.....	240,000
Russia.....	.....	10,000	.....	4,012,000
Africa.....	.....	.....	.....	270,000
Asia, &c.....	.....	820,000	.....	1,970,000
Total.....	£800,000	£1,590,000	.....	£6,672,000
Less.....	.....	800,000	.....	.....
More.....	.....	£790,000	.....	£6,672,000

“Comparing the two periods in the most general manner, we find that the annual supply had increased in forty-eight years thus:—

Gold in 1800.....	£3,260,000	
Gold in 1848.....	9,910,000	
Increase.....	.....	£6,650,000
Silver in 1800.....	£7,840,000	
Silver in 1848.....	8,630,000	
Increase.....	.....	£790,000

“The greater increase in the annual supply of gold than in that of silver before 1848, arose almost wholly from the Russian supplies. These supplies had proceeded at the rate of about £4,000,000 a year for about ten years prior to 1848; so that, generally, for nearly ten years prior to the discovery of California, the annual supplies of gold had been far greater in proportion than the annual supplies of silver.

“The produce of California, up to the end of 1851, has been fully £30,000,000 sterling, or \$150,000,000; of which £14,000,000 sterling was obtained in 1851.

“The produce of Australia, to the end of 1851, during six months only, was not less than £500,000 sterling, and most likely £1,000,000 sterling.

“The disposal of all this produce becomes the important and interesting question.

STATEMENT FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES OF THE VALUE OF THE COINAGE OF GOLD, THE PRODUCE OF THE UNITED STATES TERRITORY, AT THE FOUR MINTS OF THE UNITED STATES, (PHILADELPHIA, NEW ORLEANS, CHARLOTTE, AND DAHLONEGA,) DURING THE YEARS AS UNDER.

	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
1848.....	£9,000	£170,000	£179,000
1849.....	1,230,000	185,000	1,415,000
1850.....	7,255,000	133,000	7,388,000
1851.....	10,540,000	86,000	10,626,000
	£19,034,000	£574,000	£19,608,000
From the establishment of the oldest of the mints in 1792 to the end of 1847, 55 years.....		2,561,000	2,561,000
Total.....		£3,135,000	£22,169,000

STATEMENT FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES OF THE VALUE OF THE COINAGE OF GOLD AND SILVER AT PARIS DURING THE YEARS AS UNDER.

	Silver.	Gold.	Total.
1849.....	£7,360,000	£1,090,000	£8,450,000
1850.....	3,000,000	4,600,000	7,600,000
1851.....	2,270,000	9,640,000	11,910,000
Total.....	£12,630,000	£15,330,000	£27,960,000

NOTE. It is important to bear in mind that the £15,330,000 of gold coinage shown above was not derived wholly from new supplies of gold, but was obtained to a considerable extent by the conversion into coin of a part of the gold bullion previously existing in the markets of Europe, and especially in France. The published accounts do not enable us to state precisely what portion of the £15,330,000 was old and what new gold bullion; but perhaps more than half or even three-fourths was old.

The general effect of the evidence furnished by these two tables is as follows:—

In the United States there has been actually coined and added to the circulation of that country since 1848.....	gold	£19,000,000
In France there has been a similar coinage of.....		15,000,000
Making together.....		34,000,000
Deduct for French gold coin obtained from old stock of bullion already in Europe prior to 1848, say.....		10,000,000
		24,000,000
California supply.....		39,000,000
Surplus added to floating stock in market.....		6,000,000

“Judging from the present amount (£20,000,000) of bullion in the Bank of England it is probable that these figures are not very far from the truth.

“The amount of metallic money in France has, for the last two hundred years, been enormous. Paper money never took root there. In 1843, the amount, as estimated by M. Leon Faucher, was thus:—

Gold coin.....	£14,000,000 stg.
Silver coin.....	120,000,000
Total.....	£134,000,000

“Both metals are legal tender in France, as in the United States. Until 1850, silver was the cheaper metal, and therefore silver was mostly sent to the French mint to be coined, and gold coin was withdrawn from circulation as soon as issued. Since 1850, this state of things disappeared. The agio on gold ceased; and in and from 1851, gold has been at a discount in Paris, compared with silver. This gave rise to the enormous increase in the gold coinage of France, or, in other words, gold became the cheaper metal. Gold will take the place of silver, independently of any aid from government, while the existing mint regulations are continued. It is so in the United States, where, since the act of Congress in 1834, gold has been overvalued as compared with silver, and hence the strong tendency to introduce gold into the currency, in place of silver. The conclusion drawn from these facts is this:—

"That so long as the process, which has been going on so extensively since 1849, in the United States and France, of introducing a gold coinage in replacement of silver continues, the effect will be to lessen very much the effect of the new supplies, both (1) upon the relative values of gold and silver, and (2) upon the general state of trade and prices.

"And this position is readily illustrated. For, if instead of £24,000,000 stg. of gold having been absorbed for coin (out of £30,000,000 produced) since 1848, leaving only £6,000,000 of gold to operate by way of positive addition to the previous stock of that metal, the whole £30,000,000 had been left so to operate, it is tolerably plain that the effects would have been much more serious and startling than any which have hitherto been observed.

"We may, perhaps, reckon with certainty on the continuance of the present absorption of gold as coin, at the rate of £20,000,000 a year, for some time to come; but then no change must take place in the mint legislation of the countries at present having a double standard."

"It is stated, on good authority, that Australia will supply this year £10,000,000 stg.; and California £15,000,000 stg.

"The immediate effect of this supply, caused by its accumulation at the fountain-head of circulation, the commercial capitals of the world, is to lower the rate of interest until the bulk of it be taken thoroughly into the circulation of the world, displacing other currency—silver and paper.

"The increased amount of gold will greatly stimulate production, which, in the opinion of practical men of eminence and ability, will at first lower the prices of commodities, notwithstanding the large supplies of gold, before they can be rendered higher, which can only be the result of a very large demand and consumption, which will, however, ensue. Where there is a large and excessive amount of floating capital, the tendency is always towards its conversion, more or less gradual, into fixed capital. Any sudden conversion of this kind would change an easy money market into a comparatively tight one."

PRODUCTION OF THE PRECIOUS METALS FROM 1492 TO 1852.

An officer of the United States Treasury Department at Washington, in answer to a semi-official inquiry made at the Department, has presented an elaborate report, estimating the production of the precious metals from 1492 to 1852. The writer, after an examination of the standard authors upon the subject, Humboldt, McCulloch, and Jacobs, estimates the total product of the world, exclusive of Australia, as follows:—

America, exclusive of the United States.....	\$6,877,833,800
California, received at Mint.....	\$98,408,000
California, foreign exports, manufactured, etc.....	51,592,000
Other United States gold at Mint.....	15,855,000
Ditto not brought to Mint.....	1,145,000

Total United States..... 167,000,000

Total America.....	\$7,044,833,800
Europe and Asia, exclusive of Russia.....	1,755,000,000
Russia.....	213,581,000

Total production, 1492 to 1852..... \$9,013,414,800

The present annual product of the precious metals, the writer estimates as follows:

All South America.....	\$30,710,000
Add for any probable increase, according to the best authorities.....	3,290,000
Hungary, Saxony, and Northern Asia.....	4,000,000
Russia, at the highest estimate of late years.....	20,000,000
Africa and South Asia (a rough estimate).....	1,000,000
Carolina, Georgia, etc.....	500,000
California.....	64,500,000

Total..... \$124,000,000

The compiler of the estimate remarks:—"It is not clearly expressed by any of the authorities quoted, whether the amounts of the precious metals stated to have been produced at different periods, applies to the amount coined or to the entire production, but the inference is strongly in favor of the latter.

"The limited production of gold and silver in the last years of the fifteenth century, may be very naturally accounted for in the limited number of people who at first ventured to explore the New World, and in the scarcity of those metals in the lands first occupied by Columbus; but it will, perhaps, excite surprise to find that the first deposits of California gold in the mints of the United States, in the year 1851, exceed the highest annual production of gold and silver in Mexico and South America by nearly 40 per cent."

#### CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN NEW YORK.

We give below a statement of the capital and dividends of the several banks in the city of New York for the first half of the year 1852, as compared with the same time in 1851. The capital which paid dividends last year averaged  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent for the preceding six months. This year \$4,592,500 of new capital pays dividends, and the average is slightly less.

Banks.	1851.		1852.		
	Capital.	1st div.	Amount.	1st div.	Amount.
American Exchange .....	\$1,500,000	5	\$75,000	5	\$75,000
Bank of America .....	2,001,200	4	80,048	4	80,048
Bank of Commerce .....	5,000,000	4	183,256	4	183,956
Bank of New York .....	1,000,000	4	40,000	5	50,000
Bank of North America .....	1,000,000	new.		$3\frac{1}{2}$	35,000
Bank of the Republic .....	1,000,000	new.		$3\frac{1}{2}$	35,000
Bank of the State of N. York.	2,000,000	4	80,000	4	80,000
Bowery .....	365,650	4	17,266	4	17,266
Broadway .....	500,000	4	20,000	4	20,000
Butchers' and Drovers' .....	500,000	5	25,000	10	50,000
Chatham .....	300,000	new.		4	12,000
Chemical .....	300,000	6	18,000	6	18,000
Citizens' .....	350,000	new.		4	15,000
City .....	720,000	5	36,000	5	36,000
Fulton .....	600,000	5	30,000	5	30,000
Greenwich .....	200,000	5	10,000	5	10,000
Hanover .....	500,000	new.		$3\frac{1}{2}$	17,500
Irving .....	300,000	new.		$3\frac{1}{2}$	10,500
Leather Manufacturers' .....	600,000	4	24,000	4	24,000
Manhattan .....	2,050,000	4	82,000	4	82,000
Mechanics' .....	1,440,000	5	72,000	5	72,000
Mechanics' Banking Associat'n	632,000	4	25,280	4	25,000
Mechanics' and Tradesmen's..	200,000	5	12,000	6	12,280
Mercantile .....	600,000	new.		5	30,000
Merchants' .....	1,490,000	5	74,500		.....
Merchants' Exchange .....	1,235,000	5	61,750	4	49,400
Metropolitan .....	2,000,000		.....		.....
National .....	750,000	5	37,500	5	37,500
New York Dry Dock .....	240,000	5	10,000	5	10,000
New York Exchange .....	130,000	new.		4	5,200
North River .....	655,000	5	32,250	5	32,250
Ocean .....	1,000,000	5	50,000	4	40,000
Pacific .....	422,000	4	16,908		.....
People's .....	412,500	new.		$3\frac{1}{2}$	14,406
Phoenix .....	1,200,000	4	48,000	4	48,000
Seventh Ward .....	500,000	$6\frac{1}{4}$	50,000	$6\frac{1}{4}$	50,000
Tradesmen's .....	400,000	5	20,000	5	20,000
Union .....	1,000,000	5	50,000	5	50,000
Total .....	\$35,044,350	$4\frac{1}{2}$	1,281,458	4.15	1,378,206

For the sake of comparison, we give the aggregate capital and dividends of the banks in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, as follows:—

	1851.			1852.		
	Capital.	Dividend.	Rate.	Capital.	Dividend.	Rate.
Boston .....	\$21,760,000	\$884,298	4.06	\$24,410,000	\$1,021,250	4.11
New York.....	30,451,850	1,281,458	4.28	35,044,350	1,378,206	4.15
Philadelphia.....	7,725,000	314,750	4.07	7,755,000	378,250	5.00

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for September 1851, (vol. xxv., page 353.) we published under our "JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE" a detailed statement of the condition of each bank in South Carolina, from the official copy of their returns, made to the Controller-General, for June 30th, 1851; and in the number for November, 1851, (same volume, page 615,) and also in the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1852, (vol. xxvi., p. 475,) we gave the aggregate condition of all the banks in the State, the former for the 31st of August, 1851, and the latter for the 31st of December, 1851. We now subjoin a similar aggregate statement of their Auditor for the 31st of March, 1852:—\*

DEBTS DUE BY THE SEVERAL BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA ON THE 31ST OF MARCH, 1852.

Capital stock .....	\$5,991,885 73
Bills in circulation.....	3,933,779 12
Net profits on hand .....	647,948 25
Balances due to banks in this State.....	1,253,914 69
Balances due to banks in other States.....	328,894 87
All other moneys due which bear interest .....	13,675 00
State Treasury, for balance, Current Fund .....	29,543 39
State Treasury for balance, Sinking Fund.....	522,909 30
State Treasury, for loan for rebuilding the city .....	1,759,160 11
Cash deposited†.....	2,543,449 41
<b>Total liabilities.....</b>	<b>\$17,025,159 87</b>

RESOURCES OF THE SEVERAL BANKS ON THE 31ST OF MARCH, 1852.

Specie on hand.....	\$682,912 62
Real estate.....	224,765 77
Bills of other banks in this State.....	416,111 47
Bills of banks in other States.....	20,765 00
Balances due from banks in this State.....	106,981 94
Balances due from banks in other States.....	165,737 51
Notes discounted on personal security.....	7,024,718 90
Loans secured by pledge of its own stock.....	221,660 77
Loans secured by pledge of other stock .....	486,849 81
Domestic exchange.....	2,452,896 86
Foreign Exchange .....	568,828 45
Bonds.....	906,705 61
Money invested in stock.....	837,938 67
Suspended debt and debt in suit .....	491,385 66
State Treasury.....	87,087 50
Branches and agencies.....	1,519,121 92
Bonds under law for rebuilding Charleston.....	320,833 79
Interest and expenses of State loan.....	50,793 10
Money invested in every other way.....	439,064 53
<b>Total resources of the banks.....</b>	<b>\$17,025,159 87</b>

\* This statement embraces the Bank of the State of South of Carolina, and the Branch of the same at Columbia; the South-Western Railroad Bank; the Planters' and Mechanics' Bank; Union Bank of Charleston; State Bank of South Carolina; and the Bank of South Carolina.

† And all other moneys due, exclusive of bills in circulation, profits on hand, balances due other banks, and money bearing interest.

## STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES POST OFFICE.

The United States Senate passed, on the 25th of March, 1852, a resolution requesting the Postmaster-General "to report to the Senate the whole number of letters which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1851; distinguishing the paid from the unpaid, those paid by stamps from those paid in cash," together with certain other matters.

From the communications of the Postmaster-General and the Auditor of the Department, we condense the subjoined statistics:—

## POSTAGE COLLECTED IN THE LEADING CITIES.

The postages collected during the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1851, were as follows:—

New York.	Philadelphia.	Boston.	New Orleans.	Baltimore.	Cincinnati.	St. Louis.
\$531,830	\$197,019	\$176,756	\$117,886	\$99,670	\$82,333	\$53,062

## DEAD LETTERS CONTAINING MONEY, ETC.

The number of dead letters received during the fiscal year is estimated by the officer in charge of that department at 2,750,000. During the same period the number of dead letters containing money, opened, registered, and sent out for delivery, was 645.

The aggregate amount of money found in the same .....	\$40,336 73
The number of such letters delivered .....	5,347
The amount of money therein .....	\$36,090 61
The number of letters returned unclaimed .....	1,106
The nominal amount of money in the same.....	\$4,246 12

A few of the unclaimed letters have been restored to their owners since the close of the fiscal year, and the remainder are yet on hand in the dead letter office.

There is also another class of dead letters which contain articles of value other than money, such as bonds, notes of hand, drafts, bills of exchange, checks, certificates of deposit, certificates of stock, and other papers having a value capable of being expressed in dollars and cents. During the same year the number of letters of this class registered and sent out for delivery was 10,088. Their inclosures having a nominal value of \$1,292,125.

Of these 6,631 were restored to their owners; 3,263 were returned unclaimed, and 194 remained in the hands of postmasters to whom they had been sent for delivery.

## LETTERS PASSED THROUGH THE POST OFFICE IN 1851.

By calculation, the Auditor estimates the whole number of paid and unpaid letters which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the year aforesaid (exclusive of California, foreign and dead letters) at .....	71,185,285
Deduct number estimated to have been prepaid by stamps.....	1,270,088
Leaves paid by cash and unpaid.....	69,915,197
Then estimating the number paid by cash to have been 3-64th of this amount, we have as paid letters.....	19,207,471
Leaving as unpaid letters.....	50,707,726
Paid by stamps .....	1,270,088
Free.....	3,646,016
Drop.....	715,428
Conveyed by European steamers.....	3,909,186
Conveyed by Havana steamers.....	56,903
Conveyed by California steamers.....	1,323,367
Dead letters.....	2,416,250
Total .....	83,252,735

Letters which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1851.

The amount of postage due on dead letters for the same year was \$165,125, by estimate.

The number of free letters is computed from the returns of postmasters for a single quarter, and may be regarded as rather below the actual amount, as in some cases postmasters fail to enter in their returns the free letters delivered from their office, upon which by law they are allowed a commission of two cents.

PRINTED MATTER PASSED THROUGH THE POST OFFICE IN 1851.

The number of newspapers and pamphlets chargeable with postage which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the year ended June 30, 1851, was .....	82,695,872
According to a calculation made by Mr. Bradley, of the Washington city Post Office, the free printed matter passing through his Office during the same period was.....	3,460,050
Exchange newspapers and documents franked by Governors of States, &c., estimated.....	5,000,000
<b>Total printed matter.....</b>	<b>91,155,922</b>

It is proper to remark that in computing the number of free letters no allowance is made for such free printed matter as is mailed at other offices than Washington city; and as it is never entered on way-bills by postmasters, and no returns are made therefor, this office has no data upon which to base even a calculation.

COST OF TRANSPORTATION AND POSTAGES COLLECTED IN THE SEVERAL STATES, ETC.

The following table shows the amounts actually credited for the transportation of mails, by States, and differs slightly from the amounts actually paid. It also shows the amounts by postage collected in the several States:—

	Transportation.	Postages col'd.		Transportation.	Postages col'd.
Maine .....	\$47,690 25	\$161,891 57	Mississippi....	\$81,189 93	\$99,388 23
N. Hampshire..	27,662 00	100,784 21	Tennessee ....	74,142 59	115,441 97
Vermont .....	48,643 93	103,700 68	Missouri .....	101,313 28	138,623 31
Massachusetts..	132,164 84	540,686 65	Arkansas.....	61,244 90	32,528 72
Connecticut....	62,176 19	177,592 38	Iowa.....	24,850 05	48,787 90
Rhode Island..	12,088 20	59,220 44	Louisiana.....	66,546 89	165,802 66
New York.....	321,251 60	1,351,373 63	Texas.....	107,977 20	50,162 35
New Jersey....	56,813 37	106,049 71	Minnesota ....	1,192 89	3,550 36
Maryland.....	143,150 97	174,290 72	Kentucky.....	37,121 70	148,404 67
Delaware.....	8,717 85	20,503 45	Indiana.....	76,225 82	154,269 77
Pennsylvania..	146,105 64	595,070 86	Illinois.....	156,685 71	209,063 20
Virginia.....	169,425 21	244,229 13	Ohio.....	138,543 88	485,758 78
North Carolina	154,126 10	84,288 34	Michigan.....	36,720 22	116,799 50
South Carolina	107,281 74	113,918 30	Wisconsin.....	34,434 77	102,540 74
Georgia.....	144,262 86	170,054 59	California.....	111,515 87	302,247 33
Florida.....	31,701 55	23,831 58	Oregon.....	9,875 80	6,847 95
Alabama.....	139,349 30	133,391 63	New Mexico....	350 00	441 03
Utah.....					1,171 48
Nebraska.....					42 96
District of Columbia.....					42,039 86
New York to Bremen.....				166,416 68	
New York to Havre.....				73,550 00	
Bremen postage .....					19,308 76
Miscellaneous entries.....					274 25
Charleston to Havana.....				50,000 00	19,308 76
Across the Isthmus of Panama, under treaty with New Grenada.....				45,318 86	6,404,373 65

The above table of transportation embraces (with the exception of what is paid for the sea service) only such items as are classified by States upon the books of this office. A portion of the expenses of the Department charged to transportation, consisting of river mails, route agents, irregular service, and some cases of recognized service, are consequently not included.

The number of letters conveyed by the Cunard, Collins, Bremen, and Havre lines for the same period is as follows, viz:—

By the Cunard line, whole number .....	2,613,771
By the Collins line.....	843,144
By the Havre line.....	139,030
By the Bremen line.....	313,241
	<hr/>
	3,909,186
Unpaid by the Cunard line .....	1,515,860
Paid by the Cunard line.....	1,097,911
Unpaid by Collins line .....	497,165
Paid by Collins line.....	345,979
Unpaid by Bremen line.....	206,032
Paid by Bremen line.....	107,209
Unpaid by Havre line.....	91,072
Paid by Havre line .....	47,958
	<hr/>
	3,909,186

Number of newspapers conveyed by same lines, respectively, and the amount of postage collected on the same:—By Cunard line, 637,168; By Collins line, 224,278; by Bremen line, 7,180; by Havre line; 3,920; total, 872,546; at two cents each, \$17,450 92.

Amount of postage on letters by Cunard and Collins lines, respectively, collected in the United States and Great Britain, and the amount of commissions paid to our postmasters on the balance due and paid to the British Government:—

By Cunard line collected in United States.....	\$309,494 44
By Cunard line collected in Great Britain.....	226,543 17
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$536,037 61
By Collins line collected in United States.....	131,127 85
By Collins line collected in Great Britain .....	74,713 86
	<hr/>
Total .....	\$205,841 71
The balance due and paid to the British Government was.....	\$59,490 78

It is estimated that three-fourths of the postages by the Cunard and Collins lines collected in the United States have been collected in the large offices, at which the commissions are  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, and that the average rate of commissions paid on the remaining one fourth has not exceeded 30 per cent. According to this calculation, the commissions paid to our postmasters on the balance due and paid to Great Britain amounts to \$10,039 06; to say, \$44,618 09, at  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, \$5,577 26; \$14,872 69, at 30 per cent, \$4,461 80; total, \$10,039 06.

A portion of this sum is returned to the Department in the shape of surplus commissions at the large offices.

The amount received from the British Government on closed mails was \$45,279 41. The amount paid to the British Government on closed mails was \$6,306 80.

The number of letters conveyed between New York and California, and New York and Oregon, via Chagres and Panama, and the amount of postages collected thereon, are as follows:—

Number of letters sent and received.....	1,323,667
Amount of postage thereon.....	\$529,341 04
Unpaid (estimated) .....	\$443,848 57
Paid “ .....	85,492 47
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$529,341 04

The post bills sent to this office from New York do not distinguish between the California and Oregon letters; nor do they state the number of newspapers sent and received by the same line, nor the number of free letters.

The number of letters and newspapers conveyed by the Charleston and Havana steamers, and the amount of postage collected thereon, are as follows:—Letters, 56,903; newspapers, 24,664; amount of letter postage, \$9,156 87; amount of newspaper postage, \$759 92; total, \$9,896 79.

## REVENUES OF THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION IN 1851.

For the following copy of a paper received at the Department of State, from J. G. FLUGEL, Esq., United States Consul at Leipsic, the editor is indebted to the Consular Bureau, at Washington. The information it contains will be interesting to readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* :—

AN ACCOUNT SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF THE REVENUES OF THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION RAISED IN THE DIFFERENT STATES RESPECTIVELY, IN THE YEAR 1851, AND THE DISTRIBUTION THEREOF ACCORDING TO POPULATION.—COMPILED FROM THE OFFICIAL "CENTRALBLATT DER ABGABEN," ETC., BERLIN, 1852.—TRANSMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, BY J. G. FLUGEL, UNITED STATES CONSUL, LEIPSIC.

States.	Population.	Amount of common gross receipts.	Import duties. Amount of common net receipts for distribution.	Amount payable to each State, according to its population.	Export and transit duties payable to each State, according to its population.	Import, export, and transit duties payable to each State, according to its population.	Balance due to or from the common fund which each State has had.	To pay.	To receive.
Prussia.....thalers <sup>a</sup> with which	16,669,153	15,572,929	14,347,476	11,211,383	244,203	11,455,586	3,111,161	.....	.....
Luxemburg.....	189,783	77,114	*10,445	127,645	2,241	129,886	.....	.....	136,011
Bavaria.....	4,526,650	1,210,539	904,991	3,044,546	53,463	3,098,009	.....	.....	2,166,021
<sup>7</sup> Saxony.....	1,894,431	2,119,847	1,995,287	1,274,161	29,736	1,303,897	786,761	.....	.....
Wurtemberg.....	1,805,558	348,527	330,237	1,214,387	21,325	1,235,712	.....	.....	899,766
Baaden.....	1,360,599	652,625	353,482	915,115	16,070	931,185	.....	.....	534,069
Hesse Cassel.....	731,584	433,046	342,256	492,051	8,641	500,692	.....	.....	157,434
Hesse Darmstadt.....	862,917	412,803	402,501	580,383	10,192	590,575	.....	.....	191,371
Thuringian States.....	1,014,954	391,793	391,793	682,640	15,931	698,571	.....	.....	306,489
Brunswick.....	247,070	390,143	229,523	166,175	3,534	169,709	63,289	.....	.....
Nassau.....	425,686	74,829	71,310	286,309	5,028	291,339	.....	.....	219,591
Frankfort <i>b</i> .....	.....	861,492	636,884	.....	.....	.....	649,541	.....	.....
Total.....	29,728,335	22,545,687	20,005,240	19,994,795	410,364	20,405,159	4,610,752	.....	4,610,762
		* Less	10,445 <sup>c</sup>						
			19,994,795						

<sup>a</sup> The thaler, 69 cents American currency. <sup>b</sup> Frankfort is regulated by a specific arrangement, and not by population. <sup>c</sup> A special payment by Prussia, on account of the Union.

## CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN PHILADELPHIA.

The annexed table of capital, par and market value of stock, per cent and amount of dividends of certain banks in Philadelphia is derived from the *Ledger*—

Banks	Capital.	Per cent.	Market value.	Per cent.	Amount paid.
Philadelphia.....	\$1,150,000	100.00	\$140 00	5	\$57,500
Farmers' and Mechanics'.....	1,250,000	50.00	70 09	7	87,500
Guard.....	1,250,000	12.50	12 75	3	37,500
Commercial.....	1,000,000	50.00	59 00	4	40,000
Mechanics'.....	800,000	20.00	29 00	6	48,000
Western.....	500,000	50.00	64 00	5	25,000
Northern Liberties.....	350,000	35.00	55 00	5	17,500
Manufacturers' and Mechanics'.....	300,000	25.00	27 50	4	12,000
Southwark.....	250,000	50.00	70 09	5	12,500
Kensington.....	250,000	50.00	63 00	5	12,500
Bank of Commerce.....	250,000	50.00	67 00	5	12,500
P. Township.....	225,000	22.50	52 00	5	11,250
Tradesmen's.....	150,000	50.00	52 00	3	4,500
Total.....	\$7,175,000				\$378,250

The above amount of dividends on the same amount of capital is \$13,000 more than was declared by the same banks at the semi-annual period in November, 1851, and \$1,000 less than in May, one year ago. It will be seen that the dividends average a trifle less than 5 per cent for the half year.

## THE PENNSYLVANIA LOAN BILL.

We publish below, for the benefit of our European as well as American capitalists, who refer to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, passed May 3d, and approved May 4th, 1852, authorizing a loan of five millions of dollars, and the issue of the bonds of the Commonwealth for the same. The acts passed by Pennsylvania are justly denominated "Omnibus Bills," as they frequently embrace a great variety of distinct subjects. The present act, for instance, commences with section 101, all the sections preceding it relating to topics of a totally different nature, and not having the remotest bearing upon the Loan Bill. We do hope that the great State of Pennsylvania, which has redeemed its public credit, will follow the example of New York, and other States in the Union, by devoting one bill to one object, or in other words, by abolishing a disgraceful system of "log rolling"—

PASSED MAY 3d, AND APPROVED MAY 4th, 1852.

SECTION 101. That the Governor and State Treasurer be and they are hereby authorized and empowered to borrow, on the faith of the Commonwealth, during the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, at such times and in such amounts as they may deem best for the interest of the State, any sum not exceeding five millions of dollars, and issue bonds of the Commonwealth for the same, bearing a rate of interest not exceeding 5 per cent per annum, payable semi-annually; which bonds shall not be subject to taxation for any purpose whatever, and shall be reimbursable in twenty-five years from their date; and the sum so borrowed shall be applied to the payment of the 6 per cent loans that are payable at the option of the Commonwealth after the years one thousand eight hundred and forty-six and forty-seven, to the cancellation of the certificates issued to domestic creditors and the outstanding and unclaimed interest certificates, in the manner hereinafter provided. And the balance of said five millions shall be applied to the extinguishment of any of the 5 per cent bonds of the State now outstanding and for no other purpose.

SEC. 102. That the bonds for said loan shall be issued in sums of either one thousand, five thousand, or ten thousand dollars each, with coupons or interest certificates attached in sums equal in amount to the semi-annual interest thereon; which certificates shall be redeemable in gold and silver, or an equivalent, on the first days of

February and August in each and every year, at such place as may be designated by the Governor and State Treasurer; and said officers shall procure the engravings for such bonds and certificates, and cause the same to be signed and countersigned as hereinafter directed, and take such other steps as may be necessary to carry out the true intent and meaning of this act. And the Governor is hereby authorized to draw warrants on the State Treasurer for such sums as may be necessary to pay the proper expenses incident to the negotiation of such loan, and said warrants shall be paid out of any moneys in the treasury.

SEC. 103. That the State Treasurer shall advertise for at least two months in one newspaper in Boston, one in New York, and one in Philadelphia, and one paper in London, one in Amsterdam, and one in Paris, in Europe, inviting sealed proposals for loan herein authorized, or any parts thereof; which proposals shall state the price intended to be paid in gold and silver, or its equivalent, by the bidder for each thousands dollars of such loan; and at noon on the day appointed for that purpose the State Treasurer and Auditor General, in the presence of the Governor and Secretary of the Commonwealth, and of such other persons as may attend, shall proceed to open said proposals and allot the loan to the highest and best bidder or bidders, whereupon bonds shall be issued to the person or persons entitled to said loan as hereinbefore provided, which bonds or certificates of loan shall be signed by the Governor and countersigned by the State Treasurer and Auditor General, and the State Treasurer shall sign or authorize said coupons or certificates of interest to be signed; *Provided*, That in making proposals for the loan authorized by this act, the holder or holders of any of the bonds of the Commonwealth of certificates for interest, and the holders of domestic creditor certificates, shall be authorized to bid for any part of said loan to the full amount of such certificate or certificates, together with the unpaid interest thereon; *Provided also*, That at the time of making proposals for the said loan, application may be made for any part thereof, at an interest of 4 per cent, or a less rate, upon condition that the loan shall be for a greater period, and not exceed thirty-five years, exempt from taxation, with the interest thereon payable semi-annually, the Governor is hereby authorized and empowered to entertain and carry into effect such proposition, should he deem it advisable for the best interest of the Commonwealth; *Provided further*, That the notice to be issued in Europe for proposals shall precede the notice in this country at least one month.

SEC. 104. That immediately after the negotiations of the loans herein provided for, the State Treasurer shall give notice in one newspaper in Boston, one in New York, and one in Philadelphia, to the holders of all certificates of loan then due, and to the holders of certificates issued to domestic creditors, to present the same at his office at Harrisburg, or at such place as he may designate in Philadelphia, for final payment; and in case such holders shall refuse or neglect to surrender the certificates aforesaid, the interest thereon shall cease to be paid by the State within sixty days of the time of payment fixed in such notice; *Provided*, That it shall be lawful for the Governor and State Treasurer, in addition to gold and silver, to receive at par, in payment for the loan herein authorized, any of the bonds of the State, domestic creditor certificates, and the certificates issued for unpaid interest; the certificates of loan paid and cancelled under the provisions of this act, after having been copied into a book to be kept in the office of the State Treasurer for that purpose, shall be destroyed by the State Treasurer and Auditor General, in the presence of the Governor and Secretary of the Commonwealth.

SEC. 105. That when the loan provided in this act shall have been negotiated, and the indebtedness cancelled as aforesaid, it shall be the duty of the State Treasurer to ascertain as near as possible the aggregate amount of interest saved to the Commonwealth by the provisions of this act, as compared with the interest now paid, deducting all contingent expenses; and shall, at the time of making the then next semi-annual payment of interest, and semi-annually thereafter, pay over to the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund a sum equal to the amount so saved; and all premiums which may be received under the provisions of this act, and all unclaimed balances, if any, shall be also paid over to the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, to be applied to the cancellation of the public debt, in the same manner that all other receipts to that fund are applied.

SEC. 106. That the Governor and State Treasurer be and they are hereby authorized and empowered to issue certificates of loan in the manner and form provided for in the foregoing section of this act, reimbursable at a period not exceeding thirty-five years from their date, to any and all of such holders of the 5 per cent loan of the

Commonwealth as may signify their willingness to receive new certificates of loan, bearing an interest of 4 per cent or a less rate per annum, exempted from taxation, with coupons or interest certificates attached, payable semi-annually in gold and silver; and they shall further have the right to give the necessary notice and take such other steps as may be proper to accomplish the true intent and meaning of this section; and it shall be the duty of State Treasurer to communicate to the next Legislature a detailed statement of the proceedings under this act, showing the bids received for the loan, the names of the parties making such bids, and such other matters as may be deemed interesting and useful; *Provided*, That the certificates of loan authorized by an act "to provide for the immediate completion of the North Branch extension of the Pennsylvania Canal," approved the second day of April, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, shall not be subject to taxation for any purpose whatever; and it shall be the duty of the Governor to cause coupons to be attached to said certificates in the same manner and form as those required to be attached to the bonds to be issued under the provisions of this act; *And provided*, That no bids below par shall be entertained for any of said loans; *And provided further*, That proposals for the loan to complete the North Branch Canal shall be forthwith published for at least thirty days in one newspaper in Philadelphia, one in New York, and one in Boston.

#### COST OF LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The legislature of Massachusetts meets annually on the 1st Wednesday in January. The Senate is composed of forty members, and the House of some four hundred. The pay of members is two dollars per day, and traveling expenses. The Governor receives a salary of \$2,500, and is chosen annually.

The *Commonwealth* furnishes the following statement of the expenses of the Legislature for the last two sessions—that is, for the sessions of 1851 and 1852. The session for 1851 commenced January 1st, and ended May 26. The session for 1852 commenced January 7th, and closed May 24th.

##### EXPENSES OF SESSION OF 1852.

Senate .....		\$11,672 00
House of Representatives.....		114,126 00
Clerks .....		4,550 00
Messengers, door-keepers, &c.....		3,265 50
Chaplains and election sermon .....		250 00
Resolves in favor of sick members.....		466 70
		<hr/>
		\$124,330 20
Pay of Council, old board.....	\$355	
Pay of Council, new board.....	2,992	
		<hr/>
		3,347 00
Newspapers, about.....		5,000 00
		<hr/>
Total, 1852 .....		\$142,177 20

##### EXPENSES OF SESSION OF 1851.

Senate .....		\$12,158 00
House of Representatives.....		118,124 00
Clerks .....		4,804 00
Door-keepers, &c.....		250 00
Members per resolves .....		712 20
		<hr/>
		\$139,469 20
Pay of Council, old board.....	\$461	
Pay of Council, new board.....	2,953	
		<hr/>
		3,414 00
		<hr/>
		\$142,883 20
Newspapers, about.....		5,000 00
		<hr/>
Total, 1851 .....		\$147,883 20

RECEIPTS OF BULLION, ETC., AT PANAMA, ON ENGLISH ACCOUNT.

The annexed statement exhibits the amount of specie and bullion received at Panama by the British Consul from California and Mexico, and from Peru and Chili, for each month in each of the past two years:—

	1850.		1851.	
	California and Mexico.	Peru and Chili.	California and Mexico.	Peru and Chili.
January.....	\$137,254	\$747,861	\$773,662	\$591,109
February.....	212,769	578,803	610,280	616,618
March.....	228,189	611,530	310,377	963,547
April.....	268,992	595,005	525,806	619,860
May.....	317,601	572,716	109,727	828,224
June.....	412,992	739,479	368,460	844,000
July.....	402,439	728,994	245,155	696,912
August.....	570,674	440,207	415,191	772,931
September.....	401,596	582,100	512,324	869,528
October.....	414,392	699,826	503,735	780,837
November.....	495,126	797,333	542,603	708,811
December.....	754,098	756,090	661,089	792,398
Total.....	\$4,616,722	\$7,849,944	\$5,578,420	\$9,080,565
Total amount received at Panama, as above, in 1850.....				\$12,466,666
Total amount received at Panama, as above, in 1851.....				14,658,995
Total in two years.....				\$27,125,661

A portion of this went to England direct from Chagres, and the balance by way of New York. Of the above aggregate, \$10,195,142 was from California and Mexico. Since, soon after the first discovery of gold in California, several large English banking houses have had agents in San Francisco and in the mining regions, buying up gold dust, and shipping it to London. A large amount of dust has been drawn from California in the way of Commerce, in payment for cargoes of merchandise sent out direct from English ports.

SALE OF INDIANA CENTRAL RAILWAY BONDS.

The bids for the two hundred thousand dollars of the 7 per cent convertible bonds of the Indiana Central Railway Company were opened at the office of Winslow, Lanier & Co., New York, in June, 1852. There were bids for \$535,000, more than \$500,000 of which were at over 90 per cent. The \$200,000 offered were awarded at prices varying from 95-10-100 to 97-72-100, making an average sale at 95-53-100 per cent, which is the best price yet obtained for a Western Railway loan. The successful bids were as follows:—

	Average net'g.		Average net'g.
\$4,000...at 97.72	\$3,998 80	5,000.... 95.55	4,777 50
5,000.... 96.75	4,837 50	34,000.... 95.52	32,470 80
5,000 .... 96.56	4,828 00	4,000.... 95.51	3,820 40
5,000.... 96.35	4,667 00	5,000.... 95.50	4,775 00
2,000.... 95.92	1,918 40	5,000.... 95.35	4,767 50
1,000.... 95.91	959 10	10,000.... 95.31	9,531 00
5,000.... 95.86	4,793 00	9,000.... 95.30	8,577 00
7,000.... 95.81	6,706 70	10,000.... 95.26	9,526 00
5,000.... 95.80	4,790 00	21,000.... 95.25	20,002 50
5,000.... 95.75	4,787 50	5,000.... 95.15	4,757 50
5,000.... 95.67	4,783 50	8,000.... 95.10	7,608 00
20,000.... 95.65	19,130 00		
15,000.... 95.56	14,334 00	\$200,000...at 95.53	\$191,062 70

The successful bidders for the bonds were Clark, Dodge & Co., Norwich Savings Institution, Clinton Gilbert, Charles S. Francis, W. & J. O'Brien, Mervin & Gould, De Coppatt & Co., John Ferguson, Peter McMartin, John Thompson, A. Wylie, jr., C. T. Cromwell, Thomas McKenzie, and Chubb Brothers.

## IDENTITY OF INDORSERS.

In a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, we published a few remarks on this subject. Those remarks have elicited from a correspondent of the *Evening Bulletin* the subjoined statement of facts, which are of great importance to Banks and Bankers:—

A person traveling from one part of the country to another, provides himself with funds in the shape of drafts drawn to his order, on banks and brokers. He cannot take gold, because it is inconvenient on account of its weight to carry it about his person, and it is dangerous to put it in his trunk. It is unsafe to carry bank-notes, because of the exposure to pick pockets, to say nothing of the discount on such funds at different points. So, for his own convenience and security, he obtains drafts. These he knows cannot be cashed without his indorsement. If his pocket-book is stolen, he can obtain duplicate drafts, and the only inconvenience is loss of time.

He presents his draft at the counter of the bank where they are made payable, and is politely informed that he is not known to be the person represented in the draft, and that it will be necessary for him to identify himself. He will probably reply, by assuring the teller that he *is* the proper person, and that there can be no mistake about it. The teller replies that it is very probably so, but there must be some evidence shown before the draft can be paid. If the stranger is an unreasonable man, his face will be flushed with mortification and anger, and he will inquire haughtily for the cashier. When shown into his room the same scene is gone over, only that by this time the stranger, by the delay, begins to think that he is suspected of being a swindler or forger. The cashier lays aside his pen and very patiently endeavors to show him the necessity for this caution. After some time thus spent, the stranger is convinced of one thing at least; namely, that unless he carries some evidences of his identity about him, such as his attested signature or other proof, he must find a reference; and he goes away mortified to comply with what he thinks, in *his* case at least, is unnecessary precaution.

Some time ago a person went to the post-office, in our city, and inquired for a letter. One answering to his description was delivered to him, which he opened. It contained a draft drawn in favor of the party to whom the letter was addressed. He wrote that name upon it and presented it at the bank, on which it was drawn for payment. Being a stranger to the teller, payment was refused, unless the party could identify himself. He then took from his pocket the letter which contained the draft, and exhibited *that* as proof, that he was the person represented. This seemed conclusive evidence to the teller, and the money was paid.

The real owner, not receiving his remittances, wrote to his correspondents that he had received no letter from them as he expected. They replied and gave a description of the draft. On inquiry at the bank, it was found that the indorsement was a forgery; and the bank was, of course, obliged to pay the amount to the true owner.

Only a few weeks ago, the cashier of a bank in the city of New York was thus imposed upon. A person who was lodging at one of the hotels, requested the proprietor to go with him to the bank and introduce him, that he might get a certificate of deposit cashed, which was made payable to his order. The polite landlord did so, and the money was paid. When the certificate was forwarded for payment to the bank which issued it, answer was returned that the indorsement was forged. The bank which cashed it must of course lose the amount.

Is it to be wondered at, that banks and brokers are cautious in dealing with strangers? Let travelers and strangers, in visiting places where they have no acquaintance, get such evidence of their identity as can easily be secured by their hand-writing properly attested.

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 THE SMALL NOTE CURRENCY.

New York has provided, and after the experience of fourteen years under the General Banking system, perfected, as near as may be, a reliable small note currency for the people. New England had preceded us, under what is known as the Suffolk system. The first is secured by stock collaterals and made redeemable at Albany or in this city, at the uniform rate of not exceeding one-quarter of one per cent. The last, without collaterals, is made redeemable at par at the Suffolk Bank in Boston. The New York plan, for ultimate security, is the best. The other, owing to popular opinion throughout New England, which rejects all small notes not provided for at the

Suffolk Bank, is substantially as convertible. The New York plan is quite as profitable, if not more so, to the honest banker as the other, for while collateral security is required, the security is taken in interest-paying stocks, and a charge equal to fifteen days interest allowed on redemption at Albany and New York.

The Metropolitan Bank of New York has made both systems uniform in trade. The New York small notes, whether redeemed at Albany or New York City, are deposited at one-quarter of one per cent off. The New England notes, redeemable in Boston, at fifteen cents off each hundred dollars. Under this management, every way unobjectionable to the banker, who aims only at a fair interest on his business, there would seem to be nothing wanting to a safe and convertible system of small notes. Yet attempts have not been withheld to defeat this purpose, and, if possible, supersede our own State currency, simply because a few of the makers of it, keeping no offices of general banking business in the interior, are not content with the shave to which they have been reduced by legal regulation. First, resort was had to the Banking Law of New Jersey, but the recent Legislature of that State, sensible of the abuse, ordered par redemption at points contiguous to New York and Philadelphia. Next, a bank in Michigan, based, for the sake of plausibility, on government securities, was used to the extent of some four hundred thousand dollars, and its notes shaved at three-fold the usual rate, by their own makers, in Wall-street. The Metropolitan Bank has corrected this dodge, and, after a fierce contest of a single week, in Michigan, has brought the bankers to terms. Another project is now started. A "National Bank" at Washington, owned in part or altogether in New York, is to be used for circulating small notes of inferior value to our own currency. This is announced as based on State stocks deposited at Washington, with whom, or by whom, does not appear, nor ought the question to weigh with the public, unless the notes are made as good in New York as New York small notes.

The chief objection to all these schemes is, that they aim to defeat our own salutary currency laws, and for this should be discountenanced by the public. They are the entering wedge to a general system of irredeemable "shin-plasters." The purpose is, to issue the notes at par to the money-borrower, and redeem them at the largest shave practicable, from the public who receive them in ordinary trade. The makers presume largely on the indifference of the latter to a fractional discount, in good times, and a yet larger loss by redemption when money grows scarce. The scheme is a vicious one. It aims to abrogate our own laws, and to supplant our own currency. It is without apology in this State, where the banker is allowed interest on his collaterals at Albany, and receives interest on his issues paid out on paper discounted.

Should the "National" issue be driven to its nominal home—which we trust will be the case through the Metropolitan or some other agency—it is quite possible the Free Banking Laws of the remoter States in the West will be resorted to. Indeed, a "State Stock Bank" at Cairo, Illinois, is already announced, and if under the semblance of "security" and the promise of 1 or 2 per cent redemption here, the notes can be forced into New York circulation, the scheme may soon be tried.—*Times*.

#### DEMAND FOR MONEY.

We are requested by the editors of the *Dubuque Herald* to call the attention of our capitalists to the facts contained in the following paragraph from the editorial columns of that Journal.

"Capitalists abroad will be better able to appreciate the state of our money market from a few facts we will present, than from any speculative disquisition we could write on the subject. By a reference to our advertising column it will be perceived that the only banking houses in the place, offer from 6 to 10 per centum for money placed with them on deposit. This speaks more than could a large treatise, and we trust it is sufficiently significant in its importance to induce capitalists from abroad to bring hither some of their surplus wealth for investment."

#### FINANCES OF CONNECTICUT.

The message of Governor Seymour, of Connecticut, states, that the financial affairs of the State are in a most prosperous condition. Its ordinary expenses for the fiscal year ending on the 31st of March, were \$109,847 53, which with \$26,892 paid to the School Fund, and \$646 76 unpaid taxes, made a total of \$137,326 18. The receipts for the year, including the balance of \$26,266 22 on hand, were \$176,456 21, leaving

a remainder of \$39,103 03 beyond the expenditures. \$8,000 of this has been appropriated to the payment of the indebtedness to the School Fund, which is now discharged in full, and the State commenced its present fiscal year entirely free from debt, and with \$31,000 in its Treasury. Under these circumstances, the Governor recommends that the State tax be reduced from one to three-fourths of one per cent. The Governor reiterates his recommendation in favor of the adoption of the system of free banking in Connecticut.

#### ADULTERATION OF COINS IN PARIS.

The Paris correspondent of the *National Intelligencer* says, that remarkable ingenuity has been shown in Paris recently in the adulteration of money; and if the coins thus put in circulation were only used in the purchase of the corresponding coffee, there would not be much cause of complaint. The worthies engaged in this branch of forgeries are not so much counterfeiters of money as money alterers, or, to use the words literally, money *changers*. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—They take a genuine five-franc piece, and go to work as if they were about to manufacture a veritable snuff box out of it. The process is obvious. One side of the coin is carefully removed by the use of a very thin fine saw; as much of the interior as possible is then cut out; the space left vacant is filled with a composition having the same weight, and nearly the same sound or *ring* as silver; then the side is carefully soldered on again, and the coin has of course the same outward appearance as before. Most of the pieces thus altered bear the effigy either of Louis XVIII, Charles X., or Louis Philippe. The fraud was first detected at the Bank of France. The deterioration of the coins thus altered is about seven-tenths.

#### OF BONDS ISSUED BY RAILROAD CORPORATIONS IN MAINE.

The following "act in relation to bonds issued by railroad corporations," was approved by the Governor of Maine, January 30th, 1852, and is now in force.

##### AN ACT IN RELATION TO BONDS ISSUED BY RAILROAD CORPORATIONS.

SECTION 1. Every railroad corporation within this State, shall have power to issue its bonds for the purpose of building or furnishing its road, or paying any debts contracted in the building and equipment of the same; bearing interest not exceeding six per cent per annum; and secured in such manner as they may deem expedient.

SECT. 2. Bonds issued under the provisions of this act, shall not be for sums less than one hundred dollars; and all bonds issued by any company under this act, shall be binding on said company and collectable in law, notwithstanding such bonds are negotiated and sold by such corporation at less than the par value thereof.

SECT. 3. This shall take effect on and after its approval by the governor.

#### RICH MEN IN MASSACHUSETTS.

It is estimated that there are in Massachusetts 1,496 persons worth \$50,000 and upwards. Of this number, 26 persons are worth a million or more, 45 a half million. Of the whole list, 705, or nearly half, began life poor or nearly so. Two hundred and eighty-two received their wealth by marriage. Of the whole list, 90 are farmers, 53 manufacturers of cotton, woolen, &c., 463 are merchants, 75 lawyers, 31 physicians, 12 clergymen, 46 brokers and speculators, 11 publishers, 4 editors, 50 shoemakers and shoe dealers, 10 tailors and clothes dealers, 15 carpenters, 9 masons, 23 butchers and provision dealers, 14 distillers. Those put down as benevolent are 375. Old bachelors 68.

#### THE MERCHANT THAT KEPT TWO BANK ACCOUNTS.

The *Wall Street Journal* gives the following dialogue between two merchants in Wall-street:—

A.—Where do you keep your account? B.—I keep two; one in the Bank of New York, and the other in the Metropolitan Bank. A.—Why do you keep two? B.—Why, I have been in the habit of getting all the discounts I required from the good old New York, and I always keep a small balance in the Metropolitan, in order to get rid of my uncurrent money. Comment is unnecessary.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

### FOREIGN COMMERCE OF PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES COMPARED.

The following statement, showing the amounts of revenue from customs, collected at forty-three of the principal ports of the United States, from the 1st of July, 1851, to the 31st of March, 1852, and the comparison with that of the corresponding period of the preceding year, is interesting, as exhibiting the comparative foreign Commerce of the principal ports of entry in the United States. It will be observed that there is a decrease in the ports of New York and Boston, and a slight increase in those of Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans. The greatest proportionate increase is in San Francisco. The inland ports generally exhibit a very large increase.

	1850-51.	1851-52.		1850-51.	1851-52.
New York.....	\$24,375,012	\$32,121,112	Sandusky .....	\$19,913	\$33,580
Boston.....	4,924,400	4,711,112	Eastport .....	18,305	14,163
Philadelphia....	2,830,899	2,890,043	Gloucester, Mass.	17,244	14,085
New Orleans....	1,777,682	1,806,471	New Bedford...	15,832	16,763
Baltimore.....	776,380	800,772	Providence.....	30,849	22,423
Charleston, S. C.	501,387	455,263	Bristol.....	17,209	11,991
San Francisco...	596,931	1,779,945	New London...	15,604	7,781
St. Louis.....	142,406	197,990	Rochester.....	11,284	9,377
Portland.....	142,169	180,321	Lewiston.....	11,595	18,215
Savannah .....	159,602	113,632	Ogdensburg .....	12,320	16,878
Salem.....	117,976	89,429	Detroit .....	23,545	23,921
Mobile.....	62,398	90,729	Nashville.....	10,085	55,844
Alburg, Vt.....	57,684	28,422	Pittsburg, Pa....	2,177	12,386
Oswego.....	56,259	59,746	Chicago.....	4,861	2,168
Buffalo.....	51,240	78,021	Bath .....	11,214	6,683
Richmond .....	55,468	48,901	Wilmington....	11,270	19,174
New Haven .....	49,454	57,722	Cape Vincent....	6,144	15,521
Norfolk.....	45,158	34,853	Newburyport ...	3,061	12,530
Cleveland.....	51,578	80,052	Georgetown, D. C.	9,935	13,022
Cincinnati.....	78,712	87,517	Alexandria, Va..	5,724	27,686
Louisville .....	48,897	41,605	Sackett's Harbor.	1,950	12,483
Plattsburg.....	40,396	48,585			

### IMPORTATION OF EGGS INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

It appears from the annual returns relating to trade and navigation that in the year ending the 5th of January, 1852, the number of eggs imported was 115,526,236, being an increase on the preceding, when the number was 105,689,060. In the year ending the 5th of January, 1851, the duty was £38,577, and in the year ending the 5th of January, 1852, £42,149.

### THE BANK AND COD FISHERY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

JOHN GILLEY, Esq., Collector of the Marblehead District in Massachusetts, has sent us the tabular statement on the following page, showing the tonnage employed and product of the Bank and Cod Fishery in the District of Marblehead, which includes the ports of Marblehead and Lynn, for the year ending December 31st, 1851. The statement is official, and the most complete that has ever before been published. It will be found, in connection with the series of papers on "The Fisheries of the United States," published in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, quite interesting, as well as useful, in illustrating the importance of this important branch of productive industry:—

AMOUNT OF THE TONNAGE EMPLOYED AND PRODUCT OF THE BANK AND COD FISHERY DURING THE FISHING SEASON ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1851.

Vessel's name.	Owner's name.	Master's name.	Fish landed & cured.		Oil.		Tonnage. Crew. Am't of			Bounty.	Total fish, oil & bounty.		
			Quin's. Price.	Amount.	Bbls.	Galls.	Price.	Amount.	Tons. ft.			Men.	fish & oil.
Schr'r Eric...	John H. Gregory	Thomas Chapman	815 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 50	\$2,038 75	12	360 17 00	\$204 00	83 03	9	\$2,242 75	\$332 13	\$2,574 88
" Ceres...	John Quiner	J. T. Dissmore	1,420	2 50	3,500 00	19	570 17 00	323 00	88 26	7	3,873 00	353 09	4,226 09
Mary Susan...	H. F. Pitman	J. Gilley, 2d	1,400	2 62	3,668 00	15	450 17 50	262 50	77 62	9	3,930 50	310 61	4,241 11
Zac. Taylor...	John Quiner	N. Warren	1,412	2 50	3,580 00	19	570 17 00	323 00	76 60	7	3,853 00	306 53	4,159 53
Ben. Franklin...	G. Knight	R. B. Ireson	1,519	2 50	3,797 50	20	600 16 00	320 00	83 30	7	4,117 50	333 26	4,450 76
Barnard...	G. Knight	D. Symonds, jr.	1,298	2 50	3,245 00	16	480 16 00	256 00	72 37	7	3,501 00	289 56	3,790 56
Martha...	G. Cloutman	T. Tindley, jr.	1,140	2 62	2,986 80	18	540 17 00	306 00	71 51	8	3,292 80	286 15	3,578 95
Alciopie...	G. Knight	J. Bridgeo	1,800	2 50	4,500 00	16	480 16 00	256 00	92 47	10	4,756 00	360 00	5,116 00
S. Knight...	G. Knight	T. J. Peach	1,434	2 50	3,585 00	16	480 16 00	256 00	78 50	7	3,841 00	314 11	4,155 11
Atlantic...	T. Wooldridge	E. Dixey	1,337 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 62	3,504 25	16	480 17 00	272 00	86 37	7	3,776 25	345 56	4,121 81
Gazelle...	G. Cloutman	J. S. Bailey	1,353	2 62	3,544 86	18	540 17 00	306 00	73 49	7	3,850 86	294 06	4,144 92
W. Franklin...	S. H. Brown	J. Glass, jr.	1,270	2 70	3,429 00	14	420 16 00	224 00	80 26	8	3,653 00	321 09	3,974 09
Decatur...	R. Courtis	A. H. Missewey	1,396	2 70	3,769 00	16	480 17 00	272 00	85 45	7	4,041 20	341 89	4,383 09
Essex...	S. Standley	J. Clothey	539 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 87	1,548 37	3	90 17 50	52 50	78 26	9	1,600 87	313 09	1,913 96
Beverly...	R. Courtis	T. B. Pedrick	1,193	2 70	3,221 10	14	420 17 00	238 00	74 72	7	3,459 10	299 03	3,758 13
Robin...	R. B. Ramsdell	R. B. Ramsdell	1,417	2 70	3,825 90	14	420 17 00	238 00	84 61	7	4,063 90	338 57	4,402 47
Rose...	J. Hidden	F. F. Swett	1,200	2 60	3,120 00	12	360 17 00	204 00	87 33	7	3,324 00	349 39	3,673 39
Bird...	W. Bowler	R. Ireson	1,303 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 65	3,453 61	16	480 17 00	272 00	82 18	7	3,725 61	328 76	4,054 37
Gen. Jackson...	S. H. Brown	W. C. Anthony	974	2 75	2,678 50	12	360 16 00	192 00	80 37	7	2,870 50	323 66	3,194 16
Eliza Ann...	G. Barker, 2d.	T. Barker	483	2 50	1,207 50	4	120 17 00	68 00	70 19	7	1,275 50	230 81	1,506 31
Rebecca...	K. Martin, 2d.	W. Frost, 2d.	1,517	2 62	3,974 54	15	450 17 50	262 50	96 45	7	4,237 04	360 00	4,597 04
Elizabeth...	H. F. Pitman	B. Rose	1,178	2 65	3,121 70	14	420 17 00	238 00	71 58	7	3,359 70	286 44	3,646 14
Odd Fellow...	J. O. Bowden	A. J. Bowden	700	1 40	980 00	10	300 15 00	150 00	35 44	6	1,130 00	141 85	1,271 85
Amy Knight...	G. Knight	B. Knight	1,078	2 62	2,824 36	14	420 16 00	224 00	93 50	7	3,048 36	360 00	3,408 36
Emeline...	W. Humphreys	J. Chadwick	1,500	2 70	4,050 00	14	420 15 00	210 00	107 37	7	4,260 00	360 00	4,620 00
Ariel...	J. P. Turner	L. Turner	1,100	2 50	2,750 00	11	330 17 50	192 50	104 15	7	2,942 50	360 00	3,302 50
Colonel Orne...	J. B. Topham	J. B. Ellwell	961 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 40	1,345 75	14	420 15 00	210 00	54 06	5	1,555 75	216 25	1,772 00
Botanick...	W. Goodwin	W. Goodwin	170	1 40	238 00	4	120 15 00	60 00	11 00	5	298 00	48 59	346 59
Lavanha...	J. Glass	J. Glass	150	1 40	210 00	3	90 15 00	45 00	10 75	3	255 00	37 76	292 76
Cadet...	J. White	J. White	579	1 40	810 60	5	150 15 00	75 00	25 48	5	855 60	89 27	944 87
Balance...	K. Martin, 2d.	E. B. Thompson	1,377	2 62	3,607 74	15	450 17 50	262 50	89 32	7	3,870 24	357 35	4,227 59
Total at Marblehead...			35,015	...	88,116 03	409	12,270	6,774 50	2,310 53	217	94,890 53	9,038 86	103,929 39
At the port of Lynn...			13,104	3 00	33,302 00		15 237	10,878 00	700 82	111	49,975 00	2,512 87	52,487 87
Total amount in the district of Marblehead...			48,119	...	127,418 03		27,507	17,447 50	3,011 40	328	144,865 53	11,551 73	156,417 26

## IMPORTS OF IRON INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1851.

A STATEMENT OF THE IMPORT OF VARIOUS KINDS OF IRON INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN EACH MONTH DURING YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1851.

	Sheets and plates. Tons.* cwt. qr. lbs.	Hoops and rods. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Bars. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Railroad iron. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Pig iron. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Rus. Sw. & Nor. iron. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Total each month. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.
January.....	511 2 3 10	354 0 0 21	2,278 6 0 2	772 0 1 18	3,247 10 0 0	1,495 0 2 14	8,658 0 0 9
February.....	650 17 2 1	422 7 1 5	2,555 12 1 4	1,133 19 1 1	883 0 0 0	118 13 1 18	5,764 9 3 1
March.....	512 19 1 14	919 1 0 13	5,279 6 1 5	3,922 1 1 14	3,815 0 0 0	1,191 8 3 24	15,639 17 0 14
First quarter.....	1,674 19 2 25	1,795 8 2 11	10,113 4 2 11	5,828 1 0 5	7,945 10 0 0	2,805 3 0 0	30,062 6 3 24
April.....	1,079 10 2 6	814 12 1 0	6,157 4 0 20	5,667 10 2 3	3,774 5 0 0	368 5 1 5	17,861 7 3 6
May.....	1,332 4 1 26	1,407 9 3 12	5,999 17 1 20	17,097 18 3 18	7,546 4 2 7	1,296 17 1 26	34,680 12 2 25
June.....	1,072 7 1 19	977 7 3 14	4,441 0 1 1	11,415 4 3 15	6,080 16 0 0	628 10 1 16	24,605 6 3 8
Second quarter.....	3,484 2 1 22	3,299 9 3 26	16,588 1 3 13	34,180 14 1 8	17,401 5 2 7	2,293 13 0 19	77,861 7 1 11
First 6 months.....	5,159 2 0 19	5,094 18 2 9	26,701 6 1 24	40,008 15 1 13	25,346 15 2 7	5,098 16 0 19	107,209 14 1 7
July.....	792 18 2 10	947 19 2 21	3,907 14 3 2	9,512 13 3 27	6,379 11 1 26	1,189 16 0 11	22,910 14 2 12
August.....	1,012 17 3 13	615 3 2 15	4,242 4 3 3	22,852 12 1 17	4,072 0 0 0	608 13 0 0	33,403 11 2 20
September.....	1,075 7 3 27	930 8 3 9	3,630 14 3 11	29,020 8 2 13	3,910 12 0 3	2,363 17 0 21	40,741 9 1 20
Third quarter.....	3,061 4 1 22	2,293 12 0 6	11,780 14 1 16	61,395 15 0 1	14,362 4 2 1	4,162 6 1 4	97,055 15 2 25
October.....	1,398 13 3 24	982 7 1 0	4,183 2 0 21	17,367 8 0 18	2,372 15 0 0	2,519 2 0 24	29,823 8 3 3
November.....	700 13 1 10	768 1 2 21	2,674 8 0 12	14,998 18 0 9	5,835 6 0 0	972 6 0 8	25,941 13 1 4
December.....	296 10 1 23	391 14 1 23	1,930 3 1 23	7,468 0 0 12	2,066 2 1 17	1,798 0 2 21	13,950 11 2 7
Fourth quarter.....	2,395 17 3 1	2,142 3 1 16	8,787 13 3 0	39,826 6 1 11	11,274 3 1 17	5,289 8 3 25	69,715 13 2 14
Second 6 months...	5,457 2 0 3	4,435 15 1 25	20,568 8 0 16	101,222 1 1 12	25,636 7 3 18	9,451 15 1 1	166,771 9 1 11
Total in 1851.....	10,616 4 0 22	9,530 14 0 6	47,269 14 2 12	141,230 16 2 25	50,983 3 1 25	14,550 11 1 20	273,981 3 2 18
Total in 1850.....	9,575 19 1 23	3,618 11 2 26	50,919 12 3 2	70,032 14 1 25	38,951 15 2 2	12,993 1 3 18	186,091 15 2 20
Excess in 1851....	1,040 4 2 27	5,612 2 1 8	3,649 18 0 18	71,19 82 10	12,031 7 3 23	1,557 9 2 2	87,889 7 3 26

\* All tons of 2,224 lbs.

## THE CHEESE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The *Cincinnati Price Current*, in accordance with its custom, gives a brief review of the cheese trade for the season of 1851-52, from which we derive the subjoined statements. The following table shows the monthly average price for good merchantable Western Reserve Cheese in the months of each year, from 1848 to 1852:—

	'48-9.	'49-50.	'50-1.	'51-2.		'48-9.	'49-50.	'50-1.	'51-2.
April . . . . .	8½	6¾	6½	6¾	November . . .	6½	5¾	6½	6½
May . . . . .	6¼	6½	5¾	6¼	December . . .	6½	6	6½	6½
June . . . . .	6	6	6	6	January . . . .	6¾	6¼	6¾	6½
July . . . . .	5¾	6	6	6½	February . . . .	6	6¾	7	6¾
August . . . . .	5¾	6¾	6	6¼	March . . . . .	6½	7½	7½	7
September . . .	5¾	6¼	6	6¼	Yearly av . . .	6¼	6½	6½	6
October . . . . .	6	6½	6	6½					

It is seen the average prices for the past season are better than for either of the three preceding years.

The receipts at the port of Cincinnati during the last five years ending March 31, were, in boxes, as follows:—

1847-8.	1848-9.	1848-50.	1850-1.	1851-2.
139,878	152,373	124,755	189,494	253,844

Estimating the average weight of boxes at 35 pounds, and the amount received would be as follows in pounds:—

1847-8.	1848-9.	1849-50.	1850-1.	1851-2.
4,895,730	5,333,055	4,466,425	6,622,180	8,884,540

Thus, it is seen, the receipts since 1847-8 have increased very nearly 100 per cent.

With regard to the *future* of this trade, we may say there is every prospect that the increase for years to come will be even more rapid than heretofore, and it is very safe, we think, to predict that in ten years, *i. e.*, in 1861-2, the receipts at this port will be 30,000,000 pounds, which amount is 13,000,000 less than the present yearly receipts at the port of New York.

Cincinnati is the distributing point for a vast extent of territory, where the consumption of cheese is rapidly increasing. The following States are now supplied, in a great measure, from this point; namely, Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Tennessee, and Texas, besides a portion of Ohio. The free population of these States, according to the last census, was about eight millions, leaving twelve millions for the remainder of the United States. Now let us see by whom the cheese is produced. The amount of cheese produced by each State during the year ending June 30, 1850, was as follows:—

Maine . . . . .	lbs.	2,201,195	Alabama . . . . .	lbs.	30,423
New Hampshire . . . . .		3,196,568	Mississippi . . . . .		20,314
Vermont . . . . .		6,755,006	Louisiana . . . . .		1,148
Massachusetts . . . . .		7,124,461	Texas . . . . .		92,018
Rhode Island . . . . .		296,748	Arkansas . . . . .		28,440
Connecticut . . . . .		4,513,019	Tennessee . . . . .		179,577
New York . . . . .		49,785,905	Kentucky . . . . .		228,744
New Jersey . . . . .		500,819	Michigan . . . . .		1,042,551
Pennsylvania . . . . .		2,395,279	Ohio . . . . .		21,350,478
Delaware . . . . .		3,187	Indiana . . . . .		666,986
Maryland . . . . .		3,925	Illinois . . . . .		1,283,858
District of Columbia . . . . .		none.	Missouri . . . . .		201,597
Virginia . . . . .		434,850	Iowa . . . . .		198,444
North Carolina . . . . .		95,043	Wisconsin . . . . .		440,961
South Carolina . . . . .		4,810			
Florida . . . . .		18,324	Total . . . . .		35,765,539
Georgia . . . . .		46,391			
Total . . . . .		77,375,527			

Thus, it is seen, the States containing a population of about twelve millions produce over seventy-seven million pounds of cheese annually, while the Western and

Southern States, with a free population of eight millions, produce only thirty-five million pounds. Of the former, New York produces forty-nine million, and of the latter, Ohio produces twenty-one million. The Southern States produce a very small quantity in proportion to their population, and as it is not now, nor is not likely to become a profitable business in those States, the consumptive demand must be supplied from Ohio, and hence we may look for a steady increase in the trade at this point, Cincinnati being, as already remarked, the distributing market for the South and West, and as railroads are extended, the area of country supplied from this place will increase. Before many years elapse, North and South Carolina and Georgia will be connected by railroads with Cincinnati, and, indeed, already the merchants of that city are receiving orders from Georgia, the Chattanooga Railroad having connected some portions of that State with the western rivers.

When the statistics of this trade in the United States are fully considered in connection with the facts presented, our prediction that the yearly trade at the port of Cincinnati will in ten years have increased to thirty million pounds, will not be regarded as too large an estimate. This increase would be greatly less than that experienced in New York. The receipts at that port in 1834 were 6,340,000 pounds; in 1844, 29,672,000; and in 1850, 43,097,000.

#### COMMERCE OF SWEDEN.

The following table of the Commerce of Sweden during the year 1850, is derived from official tables just published. It will be seen from this table that Sweden imports more from Brazil than any other country, and that her exports to Great Britain and Ireland are double what they are to any other country. The trade of Sweden with the United States, in exports and imports, amounts to Rd. bko. 4,157,000.

	Imported.	Exported.
Norway.....Rd. bko.	2,317,000	778,000
Finland.....	422,000	691,000
Russia.....	1,698,000	272,000
Denmark.....	1,733,000	3,673,000
Prussia.....	451,000	1,374,000
Mecklenburg.....	51,000	452,000
Lubeck.....	4,083,000	1,313,000
Hamburg.....	647,000	111,000
Bremen.....	243,000	186,000
Hanover and Oldenburg.....	1,000	89,000
Netherlands.....	561,000	468,000
Belgium.....	74,000	266,000
Great Britain and Ireland.....	3,332,000	7,741,000
France.....	479,000	2,074,090
Spain.....	245,000	342,000
Portugal.....	153,000	839,000
Gibraltar and Malta.....	.....	52,000
Italy.....	152,000	248,000
Austria.....	.....	82,000
Egypt.....	.....	11,000
Algiers.....	.....	298,000
Rest of North Africa.....	.....	5,000
United States.....	1,639,000	2,518,000
West Indies.....	161,000	.....
Brazil.....	4,330,000	299,000
Plata States, rest of North and South America.....	.....	31,000
Cape of Good Hope.....	.....	131,000
East Indies and Australia.....	1,215,000	211,000
Total Bho. Rd.....	23,987,000	24,505,000

The import of coffee was, in 1841, 5,300,000 lbs.; in 1850, it was about 8,000,000 lbs. Raw sugar was imported in 1841 in the quantity of 14,500,000 lbs.; in 1850, it reached 25,000,000 lbs. Arrac, rum, and cognac, in 1846, 290,000 cans; in 1850, 390,000 cans.

The commercial fleet consisted, in 1840, of 2,171 vessels, of 175,558 tons; in 1850, of

2,744 vessels, of 225,966 tons. The merchant fleet of Stockholm decreases annually, while that of Gothenburg and Gefle increases rapidly. In 1850, 841 vessels were engaged in foreign trade, with a burden of 141,746 tons, their crews amounted to 1,283 officers, and 8,050 men, an increase, since 1840, of 283 officers and 1,106 men.

The Navigation act was used in Sweden in 1850 by 7 English ships, of 2,522 tons; in England, by 112 Swedish vessels, of 26,032 tons.

#### MARINE DISASTERS ON THE NORTHERN LAKES.

JOHN C. DODGE, Esq., agent for the New York Board of Underwriters, has sent us a tabular statement of marine disasters, losses to vessels, &c., on the Northern Lakes in 1851, and also a comparative statement for the years 1848 to 1851, inclusive, a summary of which we here subjoin:—

Date.	Loss of life.	Damage to vessels.		Damage to cargoes.		Total.
		English.	U. States.	English.	U. States.	
March.....	..	.....	\$350	.....	.....	\$350
April.....	10	\$30,300	30,770	\$1,350	\$5,000	67,420
May.....	16	3,000	47,580	...	24,350	74,930
June.....	..	500	11,309	1,500	14,350	27,450
July.....	1	2,500	19,750	1,500	8,650	32,400
August.....	1	400	12,570	...	8,200	21,170
September...	2	9,000	25,650	10,000	4,350	49,000
October.....	39	12,000	70,350	6,000	92,600	180,950
November...	1	3,800	75,000	1,500	102,350	182,650
December....	5	500	73,100	1,000	4,000	78,600
	75	\$62,000	\$366,420	\$22,850	\$263,650	\$714,920
Tot'l dam'e to Eng. cargoes		22,850	Tot'l dam'e to Amer. ves'ls	366,420		
		\$84,850		\$630,070		

#### GENERAL COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	Grand Total.
Loss of life.....	40	46	430	75	591
Loss to American vessels.....	\$230,963	\$189,750	\$397,580	\$366,420	\$1,184,713
Loss to American cargoes.....	106,700	161,250	114,850	263,650	646,450
Loss to English vessels.....	31,600	11,000	26,700	62,000	131,300
Loss to English cargoes.....	23,000	6,500	2,500	22,850	54,850
Grand totals.....	\$392,263	\$368,500	\$541,630	\$714,920	\$2,017,313

#### TIMBER TRADE OF QUEBEC.

The timber forming this trade consists of white pine, red pine, oak, elm, tamarac and spruce. White pine forms three-fourths of all the timber received at Quebec. The aggregate amount of all kinds, in cubic feet, exported from there to Great Britain, for two seasons, has been as follows:—

1850.	1851.	Increase.
22,128,203	23,951,393	1,823,195

The vast amount of commerce made by this amount of timber, with the staves, sawed lumber, and articles of produce exported from Quebec, is indicated by the arrivals at that port. The arrivals by sea at Quebec have been, for two seasons, as follows:—

1850.		1851.		Increase.	
Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1,078	536,379	1,185	505,024	107	68,655

COMMERCE OF CEYLON.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS INTO AND FROM THE ISLAND OF CEYLON, ALSO THE TOTAL REVENUE DERIVED THEREFROM IN THE SHAPE OF CUSTOM DUTIES, TOGETHER WITH THE NUMBER OF VESSELS WHICH ENTERED INWARDS AND CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Year.	Vessels inward. Tons.	Vessels outward. Tons.	Total revenue. £	Value of imports. £	Value of exports. £
1836 .....	71,232	68,483	140,106	411,167	308,703
1837 .....	81,345	83,563	137,564	595,888	326,860
1838 .....	96,292	95,667	107,538	547,501	293,315
1839 .....	105,838	100,166	134,010	661,920	375,698
1840 .....	103,005	104,015	116,943	733,513	409,947
1841 .....	109,606	109,187	110,250	879,070	368,383
1842 .....	130,327	124,692	192,745	794,758	463,445
1843 .....	140,853	139,622	125,700	1,034,531	421,083
1844 .....	169,128	162,953	155,096	1,367,504	582,367
1845 .....	196,364	189,815	148,519	1,494,824	583,100
1846 .....	211,946	212,424	141,771	1,372,701	679,286
1847 .....	223,738	228,998	150,326	1,421,737	961,119
1848 .....	229,155	233,842	119,365	1,235,443	1,448,901
1849 .....	234,135	232,836	119,192	1,367,549	1,206,149
1850 .....	242,264	248,398	129,457	1,488,678	1,246,956

STATEMENT SHOWING THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF COLONIAL PRODUCE DURING THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS.

EXPORTS OF PRODUCE.

Year.	Coffee.		Cinnamon.		Cocoa-nut Oil.		Coir.	
	Cwts.	Lbs.	Gallons.	Casks.	Cwts.	Coils & bundles.		
1836 .....	60,320	724,364	409,012	....	10,482½	17,923		
1837 .....	34,164	553,110	630,677	8,976	36,737½	....		
1838 .....	49,541	398,198	242,680	284	24,895½	....		
1839 .....	41,863	596,592	357,543	....	22,195½	....		
1840 .....	68,296	389,373	475,742	....	23,441	....		
1841 .....	80,584	317,919	321,966	....	21,643½	....		
1842 .....	119,805	121,145	475,967	....	26,131	....		
1843 .....	94,847	662,704	726,206	....	20,187½	....		
1844 .....	133,957	1,057,841	443,301	....	25,976½	....		
1845 .....	178,693	408,211	282,186	....	19,540½	....		
1846 .....	173,892	401,656	123,981	....	23,197½	....		
1847 .....	293,221	447,369	197,851	....	23,520½	....		
1848 .....	280,010	491,688	311,526	8	25,199½	10		
1849 .....	273,593	733,782	513,279	....	23,422	2		
1850 .....	278,473	644,857	407,960	....	39,886½	120		

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The following table will show the amount of tonnage which entered the ports of Great Britain and the United States for nine years:—

	UNITED STATES.			GREAT BRITAIN.		
	American.	Foreign.	Total.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
1842 .....	1,510,111	732,755	2,242,866	1,680,838	974,769	2,655,607
1843 .....	1,113,523	531,752	1,648,275	2,919,523	1,005,894	3,925,422
1844 .....	1,977,438	916,992	2,894,430	3,087,437	1,143,896	4,231,333
1845 .....	2,035,486	910,563	2,946,049	3,689,353	1,353,735	4,043,588
1846 .....	2,221,028	969,178	3,189,206	3,022,808	1,407,963	4,430,771
1847 .....	2,101,358	1,120,346	3,221,704	4,238,056	1,552,096	4,790,152
1848 .....	2,393,402	1,405,191	3,798,593	4,020,415	1,519,046	4,539,461
1849 .....	2,658,321	1,770,515	3,368,836	4,390,375	1,680,894	5,071,269
1850 .....	2,573,016	1,779,623	3,352,639	4,070,544	2,055,152	6,125,696
1851 .....	3,054,349	1,939,091	4,993,440	4,388,245	2,599,938	6,988,243

## RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

### COMMERCE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following tables, derived from the official report of the Canal Commissioners, show the the total quantity of each article which came to tide-water on all of the canals, and the estimated value of each article during the years 1849, 1850, and 1851:

STATEMENT SHOWING THE TOTAL QUANTITY OF EACH ARTICLE WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER ON ALL THE CANALS DURING THE YEARS 1849, 1850, AND 1851.

#### THE FOREST.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Fur and peltry .....	554,531	656,000	484,160

#### PRODUCT OF WOOD.

Boards and scantling.....	297,431,140	425,095,442	457,288,982
Shingles .....	51,258	1,868,083	57,706
Timber .....	1,497,627	1,666,262	3,189,179
Staves .....	154,159,359	202,224,000	157,261,190
Wood .....	11,977	12,411	12,640
Ashes, pot and pearl.....	31,289	52,237	23,198

#### AGRICULTURE.—PRODUCT OF ANIMALS.

Pork.....	73,985	46,618	45,013
Beef.....	105,492	97,259	77,798
Bacon.....	8,477,754	9,680,000	10,901,923
Cheese.....	42,097,818	32,584,000	25,598,945
Butter.....	20,880,409	17,102,000	9,564,268
Lard.....	9,083,062	8,278,000	10,814,940
Lard oil .....		67,460	240,768
Wool.....	12,731,402	11,986,000	10,517,408
Hides.....	596,364	458,000	571,743
Tallow.....		578,000	267,310

#### VEGETABLE FOOD.

Flour .....	3,263,087	3,256,077	3,358,465
Wheat.....	2,734,389	3,670,754	3,163,682
Rye .....	322,942	472,305	302,608
Corn.....	5,121,270	3,228,056	7,670,345
Corn meal .....		11,983	7,335
Barley.....	1,400,194	1,744,867	1,881,101
Oats.....	2,407,895	2,469,637	3,634,682
Bran and shipstuffs.....	2,022,031	402,464,000	45,476,249
Peas and beans.....	160,234	79,515	129,502
Potatoes.....	242,211	230,699	600,182
Dried fruit.....	780,369	1,468,000	1,426,350

#### ALL OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Cotton.....	316,094	1,114,000	237,330
Unmanufactured tobacco.....	1,896,056	796,000	3,698,690
Hemp.....		66,000	1,161,040
Clover and grass seed.....	2,473,098	1,418,000	559,400
Flax seed.....	1,381,684	1,146,000	156,500
Hops.....	1,877,805	860,000	550,886

#### MANUFACTURES.

Domestic spirits .....	2,107,595	1,517,095	2,810,498
Beer.....		95	63
Linseed oil.....		908	100

Railroad, Canal, and Steamboat Statistics.

113

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Oil meal and cake.....lbs.	.....	6,392,000	6,814,000
Starch.....	.....	2,744,000	2,556,932
Leather.....	5,632,610	7,176,000	8,203,605
Furniture.....	1,116,300	1,102,000	1,056,719
Agricultural implements.....	.....	16,000	316,840
Bar and pig lead.....	11,167	88,000	16,400
Pig iron.....	9,636,166	5,276,000	6,756,400
Castings.....	.....	1,580,000	2,470,780
Machines, and parts thereof.....	.....	280,000	153,810
Bloom and bar iron.....	27,906,016	22,126,000	33,449,234
Iron ware.....	1,737,690	.....	3,700
Domestic woolsens.....	1,055,513	1,018,000	824,840
Domestic cottons.....	2,498,425	1,868,000	2,249,835
Domestic salt.....	283,333	13,164,000	12,962,156
Foreign salt.....	.....	1,326,600	1,195,000

OTHER ARTICLES.

Live cattle, hogs, and sheep.....lbs.	.....	1,578,000	869,350
Stone, lime, and clay.....	51,323,818	87,916,000	104,167,030
Gypsum.....	2,551,600	6,950,000	9,669,600
Eggs.....	.....	3,280,000	3,678,264
Mineral coal.....	25,169,939	32,146,000	40,622,220
Fish.....	.....	458,000	277,515
Copper ore.....	.....	104,000	417,780
Flint enameled ware.....	.....	2,000	.....
Sundries.....	110,244,928	94,112,000	111,020,090

STATEMENT SHOWING THE AGGREGATE, IN TONS, UNDER THE DIVISIONS AS SPECIFIED IN THE ABOVE TABLE.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
The forest.....	665,547	947,768	921,337
Agriculture.....	796,600	926,048	895,096
Manufactures.....	44,288	39,669	53,553
Merchandise.....	5,873	7,105	5,349
Other articles.....	94,638	113,273	135,365
Total.....	1,579,946	2,033,863	2,010,700

STATEMENT SHOWING THE ESTIMATED VALUE OF EACH ARTICLE WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER, ON ALL THE CANALS, DURING THE YEARS 1849, 1850, 1851.

THE FOREST.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Fur and peltry.....lbs.	\$692,864	\$818,845	\$605,200

PRODUCT OF WOOD.

Boards and scantling.....feet	4,459,157	6,365,724	7,226,127
Shingles.....M.	153,774	202,668	205,399
Timber.....cubic feet	119,598	440,490	697,465
Staves.....lbs.	693,701	908,612	745,482
Wood.....cords	56,892	60,743	58,855
Ashes, pot and pearl.....bbls.	1,016,800	1,518,035	841,731

AGRICULTURE.—PRODUCT OF ANIMALS.

Pork.....bbls.	758,421	512,798	663,940
Beef.....	1,244,360	866,789	661,300
Bacon.....lbs.	514,666	580,922	980,956
Cheese.....	2,736,211	1,955,122	1,663,606
Butter.....	2,923,832	2,391,863	1,333,997
Lard.....	635,814	620,868	973,340
Lard oil.....gallons	.....	42,506	168,537
Wool.....lbs.	4,072,358	4,372,578	4,101,416
Hides.....	59,637	54,891	68,432
Tallow.....	.....	40,524	18,712

## VEGETABLE FOOD.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Flour.....bbls.	16,315,435	16,280,425	13,436,542
Wheat.....bushels	2,993,160	3,937,763	3,051,110
Rye.....	187,545	315,928	198,099
Corn.....	2,970,482	2,000,890	4,447,682
Corn meal.....bbls.	.....	35,949	20,172
Barley.....bushels	868,115	1,417,827	1,484,541
Oats.....	868,084	1,014,678	1,363,352
Bran and shipstuffs.....lbs.	242,755	927,853	366,691
Peas and beans.....bushels	160,234	89,882	143,299
Potatoes.....	117,918	123,269	342,275
Dried fruit.....lbs.	78,007	132,019	114,108

## ALL OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Cotton.....lbs.	29,240	153,239	25,520
Unmanufactured tobacco.....	237,007	159,005	813,712
Hemp.....	.....	4,960	75,469
Clover and grass seed.....	148,746	92,106	41,817
Flax seed.....	30,556	27,745	3,130
Hops.....	162,893	159,647	146,380

## MANUFACTURES.

Domestic spirits.....gallons	526,938	394,301	632,489
Beer.....	.....	475	315
Linseed oil.....gallons	.....	591	66
Oil meal and cake.....lbs.	.....	79,859	85,155
Starch.....	.....	144,054	135,734
Leather.....	885,080	1,148,068	1,230,572
Furniture.....	111,631	110,180	105,672
Agricultural implements.....	.....	777	15,840
Bar and pig lead.....	503	4,300	820
Pig iron.....	96,362	52,769	67,563
Castings.....	.....	47,428	74,350
Machines and parts.....	.....	27,895	15,331
Bloom and bar iron.....	558,120	442,508	668,985
Iron ware.....	52,131	.....	111
Domestic woollens.....	895,991	891,204	725,419
Domestic cotton.....	698,816	558,532	539,312
Domestic salt.....	73,666	52,612	56,975
Foreign salt.....	.....	5,311	1,196

## OTHER ARTICLES.

Live cattle, hogs, and sheep.....lbs.	.....	47,349	26,100
Stone, lime, and clay.....	74,060	118,482	139,882
Gypsum.....	5,742	14,949	19,339
Eggs.....	.....	197,544	220,945
Mineral coal.....	56,633	90,951	102,282
Fish.....	.....	14,319	12,547
Copper ore.....	.....	15,747	62,667
Flint enameled ware.....	.....	240	.....
Sundries.....	2,183,548	1,823,914	2,205,495

STATEMENT SHOWING THE AGGREGATE VALUE OF THE PROPERTY WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER, ON ALL THE CANALS, DURING THE YEARS 1849, 1850, 1851, UNDER THE DIVISIONS AS SPECIFIED IN THE ABOVE TABLE.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
The forest.....	\$7,192,796	\$10,315,117	\$10,380,259
Agriculture.....	38,455,456	38,311,546	36,520,296
Manufactures.....	3,899,238	3,960,854	4,355,907
Merchandise.....	508,048	563,615	406,711
Other articles.....	2,319,983	2,323,495	2,789,257
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>\$52,375,521</b>	<b>\$55,474,637</b>	<b>\$54,452,430</b>

GALENA AND CHICAGO UNION RAILROAD.

The Galena and Chicago Union Railroad now extends from Galena to Cherry Valley, a distance of 84 miles, and has two branch roads. It is among the most profitable roads in the west, from an advertisement in the *Chicago Democrat* we learn that this road has declared a half-yearly dividend of eight per cent on the capital stock paid in of the first division of the road. This makes the entire dividend for the fiscal year 1851-2, equal to fifteen per cent, beside leaving a large surplus of cash on hand.

The following table shows the earnings of the entire road and branches for the past three fiscal years. In the month of May, 1849, are included the earnings of March and April preceding. The cars commenced running in March, 1849.

	1849-50.	1850-51.	1851-52.
May .....	\$1,231 83	\$10,826 01	\$16,122 14
June .....	913 35	9,253 40	18,886 20
July.....	1,602 52	9,715 62	19,096 68
August.....	2,743 13	7,777 28	14,360 96
September.....	4,267 43	14,058 85	19,443 26
October .....	7,106 03	17,641 40	24,918 14
November.....	5,899 48	12,653 11	19,301 10
December.....	5,008 21	12,520 96	18,632 48
January.....	5,356 46	11,593 39	18,667 38
February.....	5,132 62	6,172 34	21,859 15
March.....	4,985 81	14,523 66	24,559 50
April.....	6,008 67	13,096 96	20,825 35
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$50,225 54	\$140,533 08	\$236,672 28

TOLLS, TRADE, AND TONNAGE OF THE CANALS.

The following statement, condensed from the late report of the Auditor of the Canal Department, presents an exhibit for several years of the average tonnage of the boat, of the time necessary to make a passage, and the cost to bring a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany, of the lockages at Alexander's lock, and the total tons delivered at tide-water from the Erie Canal, and of the total tolls, is as follows:—

Years.	Average tonnage of boat.	Days betw'n Albany & Buffalo.	Ft on a bbl. flour. Cents.	Lockages at Alexander's Lock.	Tons delivered at tide-water from Erie Canal.	Total tolls.
1841....	41	9	71	30,320	532,520	\$2,034,882
1844....	49	7½	60	28,219	790,816	2,446,374
1847....	67	10½	77	43,957	1,431,252	3,639,381
1848....	71	9	58	34,911	1,184,337	3,262,212
1849....	68	8¼	56	36,918	1,266,724	3,268,226
1850....	76	9	58	38,444	1,554,675	3,273,896
1851....	78	8½	49	40,396	1,507,677	3,329,737

A comparison of the results of the last year's business with that of 1841, ten years ago, shows that while the boat has nearly doubled its capacity, the time necessary to make a passage from Buffalo to Albany is diminished half a day, transportation is cheapened 30 per cent, or 22 cents on a barrel of flour; and that while the lockages at Alexander's Lock have increased only 33 per cent, the tons arriving have increased 200 per cent. And that though the tons arriving from the Erie Canal last year are 77,000 more than in 1847, the lockages are 3,600 less.

THE PHILOSOPHICAL RAILROAD ENGINEER.

George Stanford, an engineer on the Michigan Central Railroad, at the time of a late accident on that road, had his head cut badly and his back bruised. Before the collision took place, but when it was too late to obviate it, he exclaimed: "This is all carelessness, and if I am killed, it will serve me right—I will not jump off." That engineer was an honest man, and an intelligent believer in that beautiful Providence that works no miracle to save men from the consequences of transgressing wise laws.

## MAINE LAW CONCERNING RAILROADS.

The following act concerning railroads passed by the Legislature of Maine, was approved by the Governor on the 13th of April, 1852, and takes effect from and after October 13th, 1852.

## AN ACT CONCERNING RAILROADS.

SEC. 1. It is hereby declared that no railroad company has or shall have the right to assign its charter or any of its privileges, immunities or franchises, without the express authority of the legislature therefor; nor shall any railroad company, without such express authority, lease its road or any portion thereof, or grant the use and enjoyment thereof or any portion of the same, to any other person or corporation, or in any way grant the use, possession or control of the same to any other party or corporation, or in any way place the control and management of the said road in the hands of any other officers or parties than those contemplated by the charter. And any such lease, contract, agreement, assignment or transfer, heretofore or hereafter made, is hereby declared to be null and of no effect; and it shall be the duty of the Attorney General, on suggestion or request of any person complaining of a violation of the provisions of this act, by any such corporation, to file an information, in the nature of a quo warranto, against said corporation before the Supreme Judicial Court; and said court is authorized to pass such judgment, order, or decree, as to justice and equity may appertain in all such cases. *And provided*, that nothing in this act shall extend to any agreement for the lease of the Somerset and Kennebec Railroad to the Kennebec and Portland Railroad, on the terms mutually agreed on by the stockholders in both of said companies; nor to effect any mortgage made for securing the debts of any corporation, or with any portion of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railroad which lies within the States of New Hampshire and Vermont.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect in six months from and after its approval by the Governor.

## A PROFITABLE RAILROAD IN GEORGIA.

The last report of the Georgia Railroad Company gives the same encouraging assurance of the value of the railway system, that all their previous reports have done.

Their road is 171 miles long, with 48 miles of branches, and they declare dividends on a capital stock of \$4,000,000. They also have a debt, created by subscriptions to other railroad companies. These subscriptions amount to \$570,890, and consist of the stocks of the Georgia and East Tennessee, Nashville and Chattanooga, Montgomery and West Point, Atlanta and Lagrange, and Rome Railroad Companies, and the Augusta and Nashville Telegraph Company. After paying interest on these debts, \$52,691 55, the net profit remaining was \$431,087 93, or 10.78 per cent on the capital. The company paid a dividend of 7 per cent, and devoted \$151,087 93 to the payment of the debts. It is evident that without this debt created to aid other works calculated to benefit their road, the company might have declared a dividend of nearly 13 per cent. In fact, the business of this road has exhibited an actual profit of about 13 per cent for years past. The company have pursued the policy of subscribing to the stock of other roads, leading from their road to the interior. The debt created by these subscriptions will be paid off out of the profits of their road, in less than four years, and the company will enjoy largely increased profits, while their markets will command the tribute of Alabama and Tennessee.

## THE FIRST AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE.

The Charleston *Mercury* says the first locomotive built in this country was constructed for and used on the South Carolina railroad.

"This engine would be a curiosity if placed alongside of one of Norris's or Baldwin's last improvements. It was named the 'Best Friend,' and was built under the direction of Mr. E. L. Miller, of Walterboro', at the West Point Foundry of Messrs. Kemble, New York. The engine had no tender, but carried its own wood and water. The wheels were of wood, with spokes like a wagon, and the wheel armed with a wrought-iron tire.

"The engineer who ran the first locomotive that was used on this or any other road in the United States, was N. K. Darrell, an apprentice brought up in Dotterer's Machine shop. He is now, and has been for many years past, the well-known and efficient master of the company's workshops in Charleston.

"After a few trips, the wooden wheels of the 'Best Friend' gave way, and were replaced by cast iron ones, the pattern for which was made, and the wheels cast by another of Dotterer's apprentice boys, J. D. Petsch, then the foreman of that well known establishment. These, it is believed, were the first cast-iron wheels used on railroads in this country.

"The 'Best Friend' blew up after a brief career, and from its wreck another engine was built by Mr. Petsch, at the company's workshop, of which he was then in charge. It was called the "Phenix." Previous to this the crank axle had been used; but in the reconstruction of this engine, Mr. Petsch introduced the straight axle with outside connections, and also wrought iron tires on the cast-iron driving wheels, neither of which, it is believed, had before been tried in this country. Mr. Petsch is now the able and efficient superintendent of the motive-power and transportation department of the South Carolina railroad, in which important position he has rendered valuable service, by the many improvements he has embodied in the plan and construction of locomotives, machinery, workshops, etc."

#### HAMILTON, EATON, AND RICHMOND RAILROAD.

From a recent statement of the president of this company, it appears that the cost of the road from Hamilton to Richmond, Ind., 44 miles, including water and other stations, will be \$713,103 35, of which the sum of \$532,767 has been provided, requiring only \$280,335 35 to finish the whole line. The estimate of the work remaining to be done is \$178,548 11. The road is to be finished as a first class road in every respect, and will open a great thoroughfare into Indiana. Arrangements have been made with the Cincinnati and Hamilton Company to run the road as soon as ready; and it is supposed cars will run out some distance to Eaton, the middle of the present month, (June, 1852,) and to Richmond in the fall of 1852.

#### THE RIGHT OF WAY OVER LAND BELONGING TO THE STATE.

Judge Hurd, of the Supreme Court of Ohio, has decided that the State of Ohio, by granting a charter for a railroad from Columbus to Zanesville, very clearly granted the right of way over the canal, which, of necessity, must be crossed in making the road. The judge held that if the legislature had the power to grant the right of way for a railroad over the lands of private individuals who derived their title from the United States government, they had the power to grant the same right of way over the land belonging to the State. It will be recollected that the Board of Public Works of Ohio enjoined this road from proceeding with the work on the ground of the unconstitutionality of the charter which authorized it to cross the canal.

#### VALIDITY OF A PATENT FOR IMPROVEMENT IN CARS.

An action was recently brought before the United States District Court (Judge Kane) by Ross Winans *vs.* the York and Maryland Railroad Company, to recover damages for the infraction of a patent granted to the plaintiff for an improvement in the construction of cars, rendering them better adapted to American railroads.—The object of the invention is, among other things, to make such an adjustment of the wheels, axles, and connection with the body as shall cause the car to pursue a more smooth, even and safe course, than it does as they are ordinarily constructed. It was proved to be indispensable to comfort and safety at the speed now run by passenger trains. The jury brought in a verdict for \$5,400 damages and costs.

#### PROFITABLE RAILROAD STOCKS.

The Utica and Schenectady Railroad Company have probably done the most profitable business of any railroad corporation in the world. This road, seventy-eight miles in length, was constructed and put into operation for a million and a half of dollars. The total receipts in about fourteen years have been \$6,856,046. Expenditures for the same period, \$2,637,842. Excess of earnings over current expenses during that time, \$4,218,204—reimbursing the whole cost of the road and yielding a clear net profit of \$2,718,204 or over 18½ per cent per annum.

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## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

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### COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND COSTA RICA.

The following is a correct copy of the "*Treaty of Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation between the United States of America and the Republic of Costa Rica*," concluded and signed in the city of Washington on the 10th of July, 1851, and duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications exchanged at Washington on the 26th day of May, 1852:—

#### TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, COMMERCE, AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE REPUBLIC OF COSTA RICA.

*In the name of the Most Holy Trinity*:—Commercial intercourse having been for some time established between the United States and the Republic of Costa Rica, it seems good for the security as well as the encouragement of such commercial intercourse, and for the maintenance of good understanding between the United States and the said republic, that the relations now subsisting between them should be regularly acknowledged and confirmed by the signature of a treaty of amity, Commerce, and navigation.

For this purpose they have named their respective plenipotentiaries, that is to say :  
The President of the United States, Daniel Webster, Secretary of State ;

And his Excellency the President of the Republic of Costa Rica, Senor Don Felipe Molina, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of that republic to the United States ;

Who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, found to be in due and proper form, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:—

ART. 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the United States and their citizens, on the one part, and the government of the Republic of Costa Rica and its citizens on the other.

ART. 2. There shall be, between all the territories of the United States and the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica, a reciprocal freedom of Commerce. The subjects and citizens of the two countries, respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are or may be permitted to come ; to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part thereof respectively ; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their Commerce ; and generally the merchants and traders of each nation, respectively, shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their Commerce, subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

In like manner the respective ships of war and post-office packets of the two countries shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbors, rivers, and places to which foreign ships of war and packets are or may be permitted to come ; to enter into the same to anchor there and refit ; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

By the right of entering the places, ports, and rivers mentioned in this article, the privilege of carrying on the coasting trade is not understood ; in which trade national vessels only of the country where the trade is carried on are permitted to engage.

ART. 3. It being the intention of the two high contracting parties to bind themselves, by the preceding articles, to treat each other on the footing of the most favored nation, it is hereby agreed between them that any favor, privilege, or immunity whatever, in matters of Commerce and navigation, which either contracting party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant to the subjects or citizens of any other State, shall be extended to the subjects or citizens of the other high contracting party gratuitously, if the concession in favor of that other nation shall have been gratuitous ; or in return for a compensation, as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect, to be adjusted by mutual agreement, if the concession shall have been *conditional*.

ART. 4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of the United States of any article being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Costa Rica, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed

on the importation into the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica of any article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, than are or shall be payable on the like articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed in the territories of either of the high contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation or importation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, or of the Republic of Costa Rica, to or from the said territories of the United States, or to or from the Republic of Costa Rica, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

ART. 5. No higher or other duties of payment, on account of tonnage of light or harbor dues, of pilotage, of salvage in case either of damage or shipwreck, or on account of any other local charges, shall be imposed in any of the ports of the Republic of Costa Rica, on vessels of the United States, than those payable in the same ports by Costa Rican vessels; nor in any of the ports of the United States on Costa Rican vessels, than shall be payable in the same ports on vessels of the United States.

ART. 6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica of any article being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, whether such importation shall be made in Costa Rican or in vessels of the United States; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of the United States of any article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Costa Rica, whether such importation shall be made in United States or Costa Rican vessels.

The same dues shall be made, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation to the Republic of Costa Rica of any articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, whether such exportations shall be made in Costa Rican or in United States vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Costa Rica to the territories of the United States, whether such exportation shall be made in United States or in Costa Rican vessels.

ART. 7. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, citizens of the United States, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other persons in those capacities than those employed by Costa Ricans, nor to pay them any other salary or remuneration than such as is paid in like cases by Costa Rican citizens; and absolute freedom shall be allowed in all cases to the buyer and seller to bargain and fix the price of any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into or exported from the Republic of Costa Rica as they shall see good, observing the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the territories of the United States by the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica under the same conditions.

The citizens of the high contracting parties shall reciprocally receive and enjoy full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice in the said countries respectively, for the prosecution and defense of their just rights; and they shall be at liberty to employ in all cases the advocates, attorneys, or agent of whatever description, whom they may think proper, and they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges therein as native citizens.

ART. 8. In whatever relates to the police of the ports, the lading and unlading ships, the safety of the merchandise, goods, and effects, the succession to personal estates by will or otherwise, and the disposal of personal property of every sort and denomination, by sale, donation, exchange, testament, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also the administration of justice, the citizens of the two high contracting parties shall reciprocally enjoy the same privileges, liberties, and rights as native citizens, and they shall not be charged in any of these respects with any higher imposts or duties than those which are paid or may be paid by native citizens; submitting, of course, to the local laws and regulations of each country respectively.

If any citizen of the two high contracting parties shall die without will or testament in any of the territories of the other, the consul general or consul of the nation to which the deceased belonged, or the representative of such consul general or consul in his absence, shall have the right to nominate curators to take charge of the

property of the deceased, so far as the laws of the country will permit, for the benefit of the lawful heirs and creditors of the deceased, giving proper notice of such nomination to the authorities of the country.

ART. 9. The citizens of the United States residing in the Republic of Costa Rica, and the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica residing in the United States, shall be exempted from all compulsory military service whatsoever, either by sea or by land, and from all forced loans or military exactions or requisitions; and they shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay other ordinary charges, requisitions, or taxes, greater than those that are paid by native citizens of the contracting parties respectively.

ART. 10. It shall be free for each of the two high contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in any of the territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and either of the high contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as they judge fit to be excepted. The Costa Rican diplomatic agents and consuls shall enjoy in the territories of the United States whatever privileges, exemptions, and immunities are or shall be granted to agents of the same rank belonging to the most favored nation; and in like manner the diplomatic agents and consuls of the United States in the Costa Rican territories, shall enjoy, according to the strictest reciprocity, whatever privileges, exemption, and immunities are or may be granted in the Republic of Costa Rica, to the diplomatic agents and consuls of the most favored nation.

ART. 11. For the better security of Commerce between the citizens of the United States and the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica, it is agreed that, if at any time any interruption of friendly intercourse, or any rupture should unfortunately take place between the two high contracting parties, the citizens of either of the two high contracting parties, who may be within any of the territories of the other, shall, if residing upon the coast, be allowed six months, and if in the interior, a whole year to wind up their accounts and dispose of their property; and a safe conduct shall be given them to embark at the port which they themselves may select; and even in the event of a rupture, all such citizens of either of the two high contracting parties, who are established in any of the territories of the other, in the exercise of any trade or special employment, shall have the privilege of remaining and of continuing such trade and employment therein without any manner of interruption, in the full enjoyment of their liberty and property as long as they behave peaceably, and commit no offense against the laws; and their goods and effects of whatever description they may be, whether in their own custody or intrusted to individuals or to the State, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, nor to any other charges or demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to the native citizens of the country in which such citizens may reside. In the same case debts between individuals, property in public funds, and shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, nor detained.

ART. 12. The citizens of the United States and the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica respectively, residing in any of the territories of the other party, shall enjoy in their houses, persons, and properties, the protection of the government, and shall continue in possession of the guaranties which they now enjoy. They shall not be disturbed, molested, or annoyed in any manner on account of their religious belief, nor in the proper exercise of their religion, either within their own private houses, or in the places of worship destined for that purpose, agreeably to the system of tolerance established in the territories of the two high contracting parties; provided they respect the religion of the nation in which they reside, as well as the constitution, laws, and customs of the country. Liberty shall also be granted to bury the citizens of either of the two high contracting parties who may die in the territories aforesaid, in burial places of their own, which in the same manner shall be freely established and maintained; nor shall the funerals or sepulchers of the dead be disturbed in any way or upon any account.

ART. 13. In order that the two high contracting parties may have the opportunity of hereafter treating and agreeing upon such other arrangements as may tend still further to the improvement of their mutual intercourse, and to the advancement of the interests of their respective citizens, it is agreed that at any time after the expiration of seven years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, either of the high contracting parties shall have the right of giving to the other party notice of its intention to terminate articles 4, 5, and 6 of the present treaty; and that, at the expiration of twelve months after such notice shall have

been received by either party from the other, the said articles, and all the stipulations contained therein, shall cease to be binding on the two high contracting parties.

ART. 14. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington or at San José de Costa Rica within the space of one year, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at Washington this tenth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one.

DANIEL WEBSTER. [L. s.]  
F. MOLINA. [L. s.]

#### RECIPROCAL TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

The following act proposing a reciprocal trade between the Hawaiian Islands and the United States, has been officially published in the *Polynesian*, the organ of that government. It only remains for the congress of the United States, in order to secure a free import into the Hawaiian Islands, of flour, fish, coal, lumber, staves and heading, the produce or manufacture of the United States, to pass an act admitting the sugar, syrup, molasses, and coffee of the Hawaiian Islands into all the ports of the United States.

##### AN ACT PROVIDING FOR RECIPROCAL DUTIES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

Be it enacted by the King, the Premier, and Chiefs of the Hawaiian Islands, in council assembled:—

SEC. 1. All flour, fish, coal, lumber, stave and heading, the produce or manufacture of the United States, shall be admitted into this kingdom free of all duty, provided the government of the United States will admit the sugar, syrup, molasses and coffee, the produce of the Hawaiian Islands, into all the ports of the United States on the same terms.

SEC. 2. The evidence that articles proposed to be admitted into the ports of this kingdom under the preceding section, are the produce or manufacture of the United States, shall be a certificate to that effect from the Hawaiian consul of the port from which such articles are imported, or in case there shall be no such consul resident in such a port, a certificate to that effect from the collector of the port.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect the day it is concurred in by the government of the United States, and continue in force until annulled by the government of the Hawaiian Islands, or of the United States. Provided always, that previous to such annulment, the government desiring to make the same, shall give twelve months notice of their intention so to do.

Done at the Palace in Honolulu this first day of March, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two.

KAMEHAMEHA.  
KEONIANA.

#### OF THE RELIEF OF SICK AND DISABLED SEAMEN.

TO COLLECTORS OF CUSTOMS AND OTHER OFFICERS ACTING AS AGENTS UNDER THE ACTS FOR THE RELIEF OF SICK AND DISABLED SEAMEN AND BOATMEN.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 11, 1852.

With the view of bringing together into one circular all existing regulations, and prescribing for your government such additional instructions as the enlargement of the fund and the increased demands upon it seem to require, the following regulations have been adopted by the department, viz:—

1st. Hospital relief is to be confined to American seamen and such foreign seamen as have served for three consecutive years on board American vessels, and to boatmen who are liable to pay hospital money.

2d. The agent of the fund is the only person authorized to admit patients to its benefits, and in all cases he will furnish the applicant with a written order of admission after being fully satisfied of his right to relief; and where provision is made by contract with a private institution, or an individual, these orders must be produced as vouchers in all settlements under such contracts.

3d. Seamen or boatmen deemed incurable, or those employed in the fisheries, are not entitled to the benefits of the marine hospital fund.

4th. The period of hospital relief is restricted to four months, and is not to be extended for a longer time, except by the special authority of the department.

At all ports, except those on the Pacific, where no hospitals have been provided by the government, the following limitation and rules will be observed:—

In ports north of Newbern, North Carolina, there will be allowed for suitable boarding, lodging, and nursing, the sum of three dollars per week for each patient, and in those south of that place three dollars and fifty cents per week for each patient.

Medicines will be paid for at the usual apothecary rates, but in no case shall the cost of them exceed ten cents per day for each patient.

Professional services to each patient at the rate of twenty-five cents per day, not in any case to exceed six dollars and twenty-five cents for any one patient, and applicable only to not exceeding ten patients. For all patients above ten, the maximum aggregate charge not to exceed three dollars, at the rate of twenty-five cents per day up to that sum.

No charges for medical and surgical services will be paid until the patient is discharged, and in all cases the accounts rendered for those services must show the number and names of the patients, the number of days, attention to each, and a specification of their diseases.

Whenever seamen or boatmen shall abandon their profession, and enter upon other employments, they will not be entitled to hospital relief during the continuance of such other avocation; and in no case where disease has been contracted during such abandonment, and while engaged in other pursuits, will relief be extended.

At all ports on the Pacific, the cost of boarding, lodging, nursing, medicines, medical and surgical aid, and all other attentions and care of marine hospital patients, will be specially regulated, from time to time, at each port by the Department upon a full statement of facts and circumstances connected with the care and medical treatment of them.

THOMAS CORWIN, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

#### COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND SARDINIA.

The following are the chief points of the new treaty of Commerce concluded between France and Sardinia. It is another step in advance of free trade principles.

1. The abolition, by Sardinia, of all export duty on raw spun silks, also on skins of kids and lambs. 2. The abolition, by the two countries, of import duties on the same articles. 3. The reduction, by Piedmont, to a uniform duty of 3f. 30c., the hectolitre instead of 10f., and 14f. on all sorts of wines; of 10f. instead of 30f. on brandies of the first quality; of 5f. 50c. instead of 18f. on common brandies, and 10c. instead of 30c. on every bottle of wine, brandy, liquor, or vinegar containing less than a litre. 4. The reduction, by France, to 15f. instead of 20f. the 100 kilogrammes of the duties on Sardinian oils. 5. The admission, by France, at a reduced duty of 3f. of 12,000 kilogrammes per annum of the steeled cast iron of Savoy. 6. The reduction, by France, of one-half of the existing duties on the Cheeses of Savoy, and some facilities for the importation of cattle from that province.

Letters from Genoa state, that trade has revived wonderfully in the city since the treaty of Commerce with France came into operation on the 14th February last. The improvement has given rise to a project for converting the Darsena into docks, at a cost of f.18,000,000.

The Sauli Palace, one of the finest specimens of Genoese architecture, is to be demolished to make room for improvement. A French company has bought it for that purpose, to the great wrath of the citizens.

#### TO REGULATE THE SALE OF OATS IN MAINE.

The following "act to regulate the sale of oats," was passed at the last session of the Maine Legislature, and approved by the Governor, February 14th, 1852.

##### AN ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF OATS.

From and after the passage of this act, all oats offered for sale in this State, shall be sold by strike measure, or thirty pounds per bushel, and whenever any oats shall hereafter be offered for sale, and either the seller or buyer shall require it, said oats shall be sold by the aforesaid weight.

## THE LAW OF MARYLAND REGULATING PILOTAGE.

We publish below a copy of the new Pilot Law of Maryland, which passed the Legislature of that State in April, 1852:—

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That J. Smith Hollins, William Graham, Samuel T. Thompson, and John Haynie, or any three or more of them, be and they are hereby appointed a board to examine any person who shall desire to be admitted a pilot, he first producing a certificate from the Circuit Court of the county where he resides, or from the Court of Common Pleas of the city of Baltimore, in case he resides in said city, of his honesty and good behavior, and paying to the said board the sum of five dollars, and to the register of the board seventy-five cents, and if upon public examination the person shall appear to the board of sufficient ability, skill, and experience, they shall grant him one of three kinds of warrants of appointment and license, according to the qualification of such person, thereby authorizing such person for one year from the date of such warrant, either to pilot vessels of any draft of water, or vessels not exceeding twelve feet draft, or vessels not exceeding nine feet draft; and every person receiving a warrant of appointment and license agreeably to this act, shall thereafter be reputed a lawful pilot; but no person shall be entitled to receive a warrant as aforesaid, as a first rate pilot, unless he hath employed himself at least three years in the business of piloting vessels of any draft, or unless he shall have served at least five years as an apprentice to the business of piloting; and every pilot shall receive his warrant of license every year in the month of April or May, and that no warrant shall be granted at any other time, or renew license applied for, unless the pilot had been carried to sea, or confined by sickness so as to prevent his application within that period; and every first-rate pilot shall pay two dollars, and every second-rate pilot shall pay one dollar and fifty cents, and every third-rate pilot shall pay one dollar, to the register of the board, and the board may renew any license or not, as they may think proper.

SEC. 2. *And be it enacted,* That every member of the said board, before he proceeds to examine any person applying for a warrant as pilot under this act, shall take the following oath of affirmation, to be administered by a Justice of the Peace, to wit:—“I, ———, do swear (or solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare and affirm) that I will impartially examine and inquire into the capacity, skill, and experience of any applicant or applicants in the art of piloting in the Chesapeake Bay, and the rivers thereof, and will admit them as I find them qualified, or reject them if I shall find them unqualified, without favor, affection, or reward.”

SEC. 3. *And be it enacted,* That the said board may make and use a common seal, and alter and renew the same at their pleasure, and may appoint a register, who shall enter in a book to be provided for that purpose, all applications to and other proceedings of the said board, and the register shall countersign all warrants for pilots granted by the board, and every such warrant shall be under the seal of the said board.

SEC. 4. *And be it enacted,* That it shall not be lawful for any person to act as a pilot, notwithstanding his having obtained a warrant as aforesaid, unless he, or the company to which he belongs, shall keep one sufficient boat, of twenty-six feet keel, straight rabbit at least, and decked and well found, under the penalty of one hundred and fifty dollars for every vessel such person shall undertake to pilot; and the name of every boat, and the place she belongs to, shall be put on her stern, and on her mainsail and on her foresail, in large letters.

SEC. 5. *And be it enacted,* That if any person, not having a warrant as a pilot agreeable to this act, shall presume to take upon himself to conduct or pilot any vessel bound from any port in this State to sea, or coming from sea, and bound up any river of this State, to any port thereof, every such person shall forfeit one hundred and fifty dollars, and such person shall also be liable for all damages occasioned by his undertaking to conduct or pilot any vessel, by action at common law: *Provided,* that this prohibition shall not extend to prevent any person from assisting any vessel in distress, if such person shall deliver up such vessel to any pilot who shall come on board and offer to conduct or pilot such vessel, and he shall pay such person one-half the fees received by him for the pilotage of such vessel; and *provided,* that this prohibition shall not extend to prevent any master or owner of any vessel from piloting or conducting any vessel of which he may be master or owner.

SEC. 6. *And be it enacted,* That the said board of examiners may make such rules and orders for the government and regulation of pilots appointed and licensed by them as they may think proper, not contrary to the provisions of this act; and the said board may, by their order, deprive any of the said pilots of their license, or suspend

them for a limited time, for breaking such rules or orders, or omitting anything required by the same, or for acting in any manner contrary thereto; and if any of the said pilots so suspended or deprived, during the time of their suspension or deprivation, shall take upon himself to pilot or conduct any vessel, such pilot shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars for every such offense.

SEC. 7. *And be it enacted*, That if any of the said board of examiners shall die, resign, refuse to act, or remove from the city of Baltimore, or be otherwise rendered incapable to act, the remaining examiners, or a majority of them, shall fill up such vacancy, provided they shall so regulate their appointments as to have at least one member of the board a person skilled in the business of piloting.

SEC. 8. *And be it enacted*, That all persons now holding license to act as pilots in the waters of this State may renew the same according to the provisions of this act, as if the several acts of Assembly relating to pilots and pilotage, heretofore passed were still in force.

SEC. 9. *And be it enacted*, That any pilot who may be licensed to act as such agreeably to the provisions of this act, may charge and recover for his services, such reasonable compensation as may be contracted for by such pilot, and the owner, master, agent, or consignee of any vessel which may be piloted by him.

SEC. 10. *And be it enacted*, That the act passed at November Session, 1803, chapter 63, entitled "an act to establish pilots and regulate their fees," and all the acts supplementary thereto, relating to pilots and pilotage, are hereby repealed, provided that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to compel any master, owner, or agent to pay any pilot except he be employed as pilot.

#### REDUCTION OF ANCHORAGE DUTIES BY BRAZIL.

The following translation of a decree of his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, interesting to those concerned in the trade to that country, has been officially communicated to the Department of State, at Washington.

DECREE NO. 928, of MARCH 5, 1852.

Pursuant to the provisions of the 28th article of the law No. 369, of September 18, 1845, I think it proper to decree:—

ARTICLE 1. From and after 1st July, 1852, the anchorage duty upon vessels trading between foreign ports and the ports of the empire will be reduced to three hundred reis the ton; and the same class of duty now levied upon coasting vessels shall be abolished.

ART. 2. That part of the provisions of April 26, July 20, and November 15, 1844, which has not been altered by this decree, will continue in force.

Joaquim Jose Rodrigues Torres, of my Council, a Senator of the Empire, Minister and Secretary of State for Financial Affairs, and President of the National Exchequer Court, will so understand the above, and cause it to be executed.

Palace of Rio Janeiro, March 5, 1852, the thirty-first of the independence of the Empire.

By his Majesty the Emperor.

JOAQUIM JOSE RODRIGUES TORRES.

#### ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF COTTON IN ALABAMA.

The following Act passed at the last Session of the Legislature of Alabama, and approved February 10th, 1852, is now in force:—

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF COTTON BY COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted, &c., That from and after the passage of this act, all cotton sold by commission merchants to brokers or buyers shall not be considered as delivered and the ownership given up, until the same is fully paid for; any order for the cotton, law, custom or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That any cotton broker engaged in the business of buying cotton, either on his or their own account, or for others, who shall buy or engage to buy, cotton from a planter or commission merchant and shall fail or refuse to pay for the same at the time agreed to, and shall make way with, or dispose of any cotton purchased and not paid for, shall be deemed guilty of fraud and embezzlement, and shall be liable to be imprisoned, on conviction, in the penitentiary not less than one nor more than five years, at the discretion of jury trying the case.

## BRITISH COMMERCIAL AND NAVIGATION TREATIES.

The Gazette of London gives the following list of potentates &c., with whom commercial treaties have been made by Great Britain.

The Emperor of Austria, the King of the Belgians, the Republic of Bolivia, the City of Bremen, the Republic of Costa Rica, the King of Denmark, the Dominican Republic, the Republic of the Equator, the French Republic, the City of Frankfort, the King of Greece, Republic of Guatemala, the City of Hamburg, the King of Hanover, the Republic of Liberia, the City of Lubeck, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the Mexican Republic, the King of the Netherlands, the Republic of New Grenada, the Grand Duke of Oldenburg, the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, the Republic of Peru, the Queen of Portugal, the King of Prussia and the other States forming the German Commercial Union, viz :— Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Baden, the Electorate of Hesse, the Grand Duchy of Hesse, the States forming the Customs and Commercial Union of Thuringia, Nassau, and Frankfort; the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, the Emperor of Russia, the King of Sardinia, the King of the Two Sicilies, the King of Sweden and Norway, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, the United States of America, the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, the Republic of Venezuela.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## OF LIGHT VESSELS AS A GUIDE TO MARINERS.

The following notice to mariners, dated Trinity-house, London, 6th January, 1852, has been received for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine*, from an official source :

Notice is hereby given that this corporation has issued directions to the masters and mates of their several Light Vessels to the following effect, namely :—

In the event of any Light Vessel being driven from her station, the master or mate, whichever be in charge, is carefully to consider whether she has driven to such a distance, or in such a direction, as to make it dangerous to shipping to continue to show her lights, and if the distance or direction be not such as to endanger the safety of vessels running on their course, the *Lights and Balls* are to be continued in the usual manner. But should the Light Vessel have driven so as to be of no use as a guide to shipping, the usual *Lights and Balls* are, in that case, to be discontinued, and two *Red Lights substituted*, one at the end of the davit forward, the other on a stanchion beside the ensign staff; and a *Red Flare Light* shown every quarter of an hour during the night.

And further, when vessels are observed from a Light Vessel to be in distress, or to require assistance :—

*If in the day time*, two guns are to be fired on board such Light Vessel, each at an interval of five minutes, and repeated every half-hour until assistance be observed approaching. *If in the night time*, two guns are to be fired on board such Light Vessel, at similar intervals, each followed by a white rocket thrown in the direction of the vessel in distress, and these signals are to be continued until the required assistance has been rendered.

Masters of vessels, pilots, and other persons are earnestly requested to take such necessary note of these regulations as may be useful both for the avoidance of danger to themselves, and for aiding their endeavors to render assistance to others.

By order

J. HERBERT, *Secretary.*

## FIXED LIGHT IN THE STRAIT OF SUNDA.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, April 19th, 1852.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed that on the 28th of last November, a Fixed Light was established by the Netherland Government, on Fourth Point, in the Strait of Sunda. The Tower, which is built of stone, stands on the sea beach nearly 3 miles from Anjer, in  $6^{\circ} 4' 50''$  south, and in  $105^{\circ} 56' 35''$  east of Greenwich. The Light is displayed at an elevation of 94 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen in all directions from the deck of a vessel at the distance of 16 miles.

## REVOLVING LIGHT ON THE SOUTH POINT OF BARBADOS.

We are indebted to the Department of State at Washington, for the subjoined official notice to mariners, touching the revolving light on the South Point of Barbados.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, *March 24, 1852.*

Notice is hereby given, that her majesty's government has established a revolving light on the South Point of the Island of Barbados; and that it was to be displayed on the first of this month.

The base of the tower is 55 feet above the sea, from which it is 200 yards distant, and stands in latitude  $13^{\circ} 2' 45''$  N., and longitude  $59^{\circ} 33' 30''$  W. of Greenwich. The tower is 90 feet high, and is painted in alternate red and white bands, each being  $7\frac{1}{2}$  feet in depth.

The light is thus 145 feet above the level of the sea, and revolves once in every minute; after an eclipse of 14 seconds it again appears, gradually increases for 24 seconds to its greatest brilliancy, and then in 24 seconds more is eclipsed.

From the light, Seawell Point bears about N. E. by E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  E., and Needham Point W. N. W.  $\frac{1}{2}$  W.; and except from between the opposite bearings the light is visible in all directions from the deck of a vessel within the distance of 18 miles.

Vessels approaching the island from the eastward are recommended not to run down their longitude to the northward of  $12^{\circ} 55'$  N.; and as soon as the light is discovered to bring it to bear west, steering from thence W. by S. and not passing it at a less distance than 2 miles.

If coming from the north eastward the light will not be visible until it bears to the westward of S. W. by W., being concealed by the high land forming Seawell Point; and if kept in sight well open of that point, it will lead clear of the Cobblers, a group of dangerous reefs which extend some miles from the eastern side of the island. Mariners are advised to give them a wide berth, on account of the prevailing current to the westward.

When the light is brought to bear N. E. a course may be shaped for Needham Point; but in hauling up into Carlisle Bay, that point should be kept at the distance of a third of a mile.

## THE SOUTHERN COAST OF FLORIDA.

The Superintendent of the United States Coast-Survey has communicated to the Secretary of the Treasury, under date, Coast-Survey Office, Washington, May 11, 1852, the subjoined information, compiled from official records of the last survey, respecting the Southern Coast of Florida, which are placed on record in this department of the *Merchants' Magazine* for the benefit of navigators:—

A series of signals (fifteen in number) have been erected by one of the Triangulation parties of the Coast-Survey along the line of the reef, indicating dangerous points, and so distributed that vessels may in safety make the intermediate run between any two of them. Navigators will find them highly useful. They are sufficiently remarkable always to secure attention in the day-time, and may be seen some two or three miles with the naked eye, or from six to ten with ordinary glass. Each signal consists of a mangrove pole from thirty to forty feet high, fixed in an iron screw pile, which has been sunk in the solid material of the reef, and surmounted by a barrel painted black. It is stated that with these guides there can be no difficulty in the way of steamers keeping close in and running in smooth water. The *Isabel* (Charleston, Key West, and Havana packet,) always hugs the reef close, to avoid the easterly current, and take advantage of the eddy setting westward.

The following list shows the reefs upon which signals have been placed as described:—

1. Fowey Rocks. 2. Triumph Reef. 3. Long Reef. 4. A shoal, (coral formation,) without a name, interior to Triumph and Long reefs, described as extending from Cesar's creek, about seven miles northward, and lying midway between the line of Keys and main Florida reef. The waters inside the reef are here divided by these shoals into two main and well-defined channels; the outside being the deepest, and the inside of sufficient depth for vessels drawing less than ten feet. Small vessels may pick their way through in various directions; but these are believed to be the only well-marked channels. The screw-pile has been placed at the northern extremity of the shoals. 5. Ajax Reef. 6. Pacific Reef. 7. Turtle Reef. 8. Triangle Reef or

Grecian Shoals. 9. French Reef. 10. Pickle Reef. 11. Conch Reef. 12. Crocus Reef. 13. Alligator Reef. 14. The Washerwoman Shoal. 15. The American Shoals, near Key West.

One of the most experienced navigators of this coast, Captain Rollins, of the *Isabel*, who passes along the reef four times monthly, has already appreciated and handsomely acknowledged the aid of these signals.

The points have been designated, and the erection of the signals directed by Lieutenant James Totten, United States Army, assistant in the Coast-Survey.

ELECTRICITY APPLIED TO THE CAPTURE OF THE WHALE.

The *New Bedford Mercury* gives an account of some interesting experiments, illustrating the effect of electricity to facilitate the capture of the whale. The most prominent features of this new method are thus described:—

“Every whale at the moment of being struck with the harpoon is rendered powerless, as by stroke of lightning, and therefore his subsequent escape or loss, except by sinking, is wholly impracticable; and the process of lancing and securing him, is entirely unattended with danger. The arduous labor involved in a long chase in the capture of the whale, is suspended, and consequently the inconvenience and danger of the boats losing sight of or becoming separated from the ship, is avoided. One or two boats only would be required to be lowered at a time, and therefore a less number both of officers and seamen than heretofore employed, would be ample for the purposes of the voyage.

“The electricity is conveyed to the body of the whale from an electric galvanic battery contained in the boat, by means of a metallic wire attached to the harpoon, and so arranged as to reconduct the electro-current from the whale through the sea to the machine. The machine itself is simple and compact in construction, inclosed in a strong chest weighing about 350 pounds, and occupying a space in the boat of about three and a half feet long by two in width, and the same in height. It is capable of throwing into the body of the whale eight tremendous strokes of electricity in a second, or 950 strokes in a minute, paralyzing in an instant the muscles of the whale, and depriving it of all power of motion, if not actually of life.”

SEAMEN'S WAGES AT SAN FRANCISCO.

Pondicherry, by the run .....	\$140
Sandwich Islands, by the run .....	45
Batavia, China, and back, by the month.....	35
Oregon, Humbolt, and back, by the month.....	40
San Diego and South, and back, by the month .....	40
Batavia, by the run.....	140
China, by the run.....	130
Manilla, by the run .....	130
East Indies, New York, and Boston, by the month.....	35
Calcutta, by the run .....	150
United States <i>via</i> Cape Horn, by the month.....	40
Valparaiso and Callao, there discharged, by the month .....	45
Harbor, by the month.....	50 to 60

STETTIN AND SWIENEMUNDE.

STETTIN, 10th April, 1852.

Pursuant to a new regulation of the Prussian Government, dated 2d of March, all ships bound for Stettin can be cleared at Swienemunde on and after the 1st of May, under sail, and without any detention, if provided with a double set of manifests, containing as follows:—

Ship Number of bills of Lading.	Name of Consignee.	Captain Number of Packages.	Mark and Number.	from	
				Descrip- tion of Goods.	Gross Weight or Measure.

## THE DIFFERENCES OF LONGITUDE OF SAVANNAH.

The Superintendent of the United States coast survey reports to the Secretary of the Treasury under date, Coast Survey Office, May 1 1th, 1852, that from the preliminary computations of Assistant L. F. Pourtales, combined with previous results obtained by Assistant S. C. Walker, the differences of longitude of Savannah, Georgia, (the cupola of the Exchange,) Charleston, South Carolina, (Professor Gibb's Observatory,) Washington, D. C., (Seaton station of the coast survey,) and Greenwich, England. The differences between Savannah, Charleston, and Washington, rest entirely upon telegraphic determinations.

	H.	M.	S.
Savannah W. of Charleston.....	0	4	37.12
“ W. of Washington.....	0	16	22.39
“ W. of Greenwich.....	5	24	20.95

## STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &amp;c.

## DEAF, DUMB, BLIND, INSANE, AND IDIOTIC POPULATION OF THE U. STATES.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF DEAF AND DUMB, BLIND, INSANE, IDIOTIC, RETURNED BY THE SEVENTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

States and Territories.	Deaf and dumb.	Blind.	Insane.	Idiotic.
Maine.....	230	201	536	558
New Hampshire.....	163	136	385	352
Vermont.....	144	138	552	281
Massachusetts.....	529	497	1,647	791
Rhode Island.....	64	64	252	107
Connecticut.....	389	192	462	300
New York.....	1,307	1,272	2,580	1,739
New Jersey.....	203	213	386	426
Pennsylvania.....	1,225	829	1,891	1,448
Delaware.....	58	46	70	101
Maryland.....	254	307	553	393
District of Columbia.....	19	23	22	11
Virginia.....	711	996	1,026	1,285
North Carolina.....	407	532	491	774
South Carolina.....	145	222	204	295
Georgia.....	252	309	306	577
Florida.....	22	26	8	37
Alabama.....	211	308	245	505
Mississippi.....	108	217	149	210
Louisiana.....	128	218	208	173
Texas.....	58	76	41	108
Arkansas.....	89	81	63	102
Tennessee.....	377	468	478	854
Kentucky.....	539	530	507	849
Ohio.....	947	665	1,352	1,399
Michigan.....	122	122	136	190
Indiana.....	518	349	579	919
Illinois.....	475	257	249	371
Missouri.....	259	211	282	333
Iowa.....	51	47	40	93
Wisconsin.....	65	50	48	77
California.....	6	...	2	3
Minnesota.....	...	...	...	1
Oregon.....	...	...	4	4
Utah.....	...	2	3	2
New Mexico.....	28	98	11	38
Total.....	10,103	9,702	15,768	15,706

POPULATION OF FRANCE.

From the official report published in the Paris *Moniteur* of the 14th ult., we learn that the population of France in 1851, was 35,781,821. In France the census is taken every five years, and we may refer to the last eight enumerations as the best possible indication of the progress of the country during the half century:—

	Population.	Increase.		Population.	Increase.
1801.....	27,349,003	.....	1836.....	33,540,910	971,687
1806.....	29,107,425	1,758,422	1841.....	34,240,178	689,268
1821.....	30,461,875	1,354,450	1846.....	35,400,486	1,170,308
1831.....	32,569,223	2,107,348	1851.....	35,781,821	381,335

The great falling off in the ratio of increase during the last five years, is no doubt attributable, partly to the political troubles which have driven so many French citizens abroad, and partly to the ravages of the cholera in 1849. But the births during 1846 and 1851 exceeded the deaths to the number of 512,000, so that the decrease must chiefly have been owing to emigration. One department *les Basses-Pyrenees*, has lost 11,000 inhabitants by this cause alone.

STATISTICS OF BRITISH EMIGRANT VESSELS.

A very interesting return to the British House of Commons has been printed, showing the number of passenger ships which have sailed from ports in the United Kingdom with emigrants on board during the last five years, distinguishing the ports under the superintendence of an emigration office, and showing the number of such ships which have been wrecked, or destroyed at sea, and the number of lives so lost. It appears that from 1847 to 1851 inclusive, the number of emigrant vessels that sailed from ports in the United Kingdom was 7,129, of which 252 were chartered by the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioner, of which there was only one wreck. The per centage of loss was .396, or 1 in 252. Of ships dispatched from ports under the superintendence of government emigration offices there were 5,964, out of which there were 80 wrecks, and the per centage of loss was .503, or one in 199. There were 913 dispatched from ports not under the superintendence of government emigration offices, of which there were 13 wrecks, and the loss was 1.42 per centage, or 1 in 70. In the 7,129 ships which sailed in the five years there were 1,494,044 passengers. The number of lives lost by shipwreck was 1,043. The per centage of loss was .069 or 1 in 432. No lives were lost by the ships chartered by the Emigration Commissioners.

CHANCES OF LIFE AS DEVELOPED BY THE CENSUS.

Among the interesting facts developed by the recent census, are some in relation to the laws that govern life and death. They are based upon returns from the State of Maryland, and a comparison with previous ones. The calculation it is necessary to explain, but the result is a table from which we gather the following illustration:—

10,268 infants are born on the same day and enter upon life simultaneously. Of these 1,243 never reach the anniversary of their birth. 9,025 commence the second year, but the proportion of deaths still continues so great, that at the end of the third only 8,183, or about four fifths of the original number survive. But during the fourth year, the system seems to acquire more strength, and the number of deaths rapidly decreases. It goes on decreasing until twenty-one, the commencement of maturity and the period of highest health. 7,134 enter upon the activities and responsibilities of life—more than two-thirds of the original number. Thirty-five comes, the meridian of manhood; 6,302 have reached it. Twenty years more and the ranks are thinned. Only, 5,727, or less than half of those who entered life fifty-five years ago, are left. And now death comes more frequently. Every year the ratio of mortality steadily increases, and at seventy there are not a thousand survivors. A scattered few live on to the close of the century, and at the age of one hundred and six the drama is ended. The last man is dead.

POPULATION IN MONTREAL IN 1852.

Montreal contains a population of 57,715; a large increase since the previous census. There are 26,020 French Canadians, and 11,736 Irish residents. In 1850 the population was 48,207.

## STATISTICS OF THE POPULATION OF HUNGARY.

Dr. SCHUTTES, in his *Ungarn*, puts down the population of Hungary in 1850 at about 15,000,000; of which 5,278,665 are Magyars; about 5,000,000 Sclavacs, Croats, Ruthen, Raizen, and Schokazen; Wallachs 2,908,876; Germans 1,377,484, and smaller tribes about 400,000. The entire population of Hungary in 1842, according to Fenyés, was 12,880,406. Fenyés is a Hungarian, and the most reliable statistician who has ever written on Hungary. Haeunfler, an Austrian statistician, puts down the population in 1842 at 13,876,170.

## CIRCULATION OF THE LONDON PRESS.

The returns of the English stamp office, published in the London *Times* of the 1st inst., give some extraordinary statistics relative to the London newspaper press. By these returns it appears that the circulation of the *Times* exceeds by over four-and-a-half millions of copies, the aggregate circulation of all the other London newspapers put together. Here is a full comparative list:—

## CIRCULATION OF LONDON PAPERS.

	MORNING.			
	1845.	1848.	1849.	1850.
Times.....	8,100,000	11,021,500	11,300,000	11,900,000
Advertiser.....	1,440,000	1,538,997	1,528,220	1,549,142
Daily News.....	.....	3,053,638	1,357,000	1,152,000
Herald.....	2,018,025	1,335,000	1,147,000	1,139,000
Chronicle.....	1,554,000	1,151,304	937,500	912,547
Post.....	1,002,400	964,500	905,000	829,000
	EVENING.			
Sun.....	1,098,500	893,312	873,000	834,500
Express.....	.....	888,018	964,000	776,950
Globe.....	852,000	720,000	630,000	585,000
Standard.....	846,000	652,500	539,000	492,000

The circulation of the whole of these papers, exclusive of the *Times*, in 1850, (tested by the number of stamps issued at the stamp office) was not quite seven-and-a-half millions, while the number of stamps paid for by the *Times* was precisely 11,900,000, thus exhibiting the fact of the *Times* possessing a positive average circulation of over 38,000 copies per diem. As the *Times* has no free list, and sells only for cash, this result is the more surprising. It is understood that the circulation in 1852 is over 40,000 copies a day. By the returns alluded to, it appears that while the *Times* has been gaining ground for the past seven years, all other newspapers, both morning and evening, have been rapidly sinking. In 1845 the *Times* circulated 8,100,000 papers, and all the other journals upwards of 9,000,000; but in 1850 the circulation of all the other papers had fallen to under seven-and-a-half millions, while that of the *Times* has risen to nearly 12,000,000, and is constantly augmenting. It is, in fact, conceded that most of the London morning newspapers are published at a loss, while the profits of the *Times* are known to exceed \$500,000 a year. The *Times* pays for stamp advertisements and excise duty, about \$500,000 a year to the government.

The daily circulation of the London papers is now about as follows:—

Times.....	40,000
Morning Advertiser.....	5,000
Daily News.....	3,000
Morning Herald.....	3,000
Morning Chronicle.....	2,900
Morning Post.....	2,800

Most of the papers are falling off in their circulation yearly, and the evening journals are in a still worse position.

## JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

### COPPER MINING OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

We give below a table of the several mining companies of Lake Superior, showing the capital, number of hands employed, and value of products, &c., &c. :—

Names of Lake Superior Copper Companies.	Capital.	Power used.	Male hands.	Annual product. Tons.	Nature of product.	Value of product.
North-West Mining Co.....	\$50,000	Water.	114	80	Native copper	\$17,000
Copper Falls Mining Co.....	65,000	Horse.	30	10	Native copper	3,000
North-Western Mining Co....	10,000	Hand..	14	..	.....	.....
North American Mining Co..	70,000	Steam.	110	85	Native copper	17,000
Albion Mining Co.....	15,000	Hand..	9	..	.....	.....
Cliff Mine .....	207,360	Steam*	180	1,028	Native copper	157,000
Lac le Belle Mining Co.....	28,000	Horse.	6	10	Gray ore....	660
Iron City Mining Co.....	1,500	Horse.	15	..	.....	.....
Isle Royale Mining Co.....	14,000	Steam.	19	..	.....	.....
Cape Mining Co.....	500	Horse.	6	..	.....	.....
Pittsburg & I. Roy. Min. Co..	18,000	Hand..	25	2	Ingot.....	760
Liskanett Mining Co.....	30,000	Horse.	25	25	Native copper	7,500
American Mining Co.....	3,000	Horse.	15	$\frac{1}{2}$	Native copper	190
Ontonagon Mining Co.....	15,000	Hand..	20	..	.....	.....
Sistagna Mining Co.....	3,000	Hand..	10	..	.....	.....
Chesapeake Mining Co.....	5,000	Hand..	10	..	.....	.....
Minnesota Mining Co.....	29,000	Steam*	80	257	Native copper	77,100
Algonquin Mining Co..	2,400	Hand..	28	..	.....	.....
Ridge Mining Co.....	5,000	Horse.	16	5	Native copper	1,250
Adventure Mining Co.....	15,000	Horse.	16	8	Native copper	2,000
Forest Mining Co.....	15,000	Horse.	30	5	Native copper	1,000
Ohio Trap Rock Mining Co..	15,000	Horse.	10	10	Native copper	2,500
Merchant Mining Co.....	2,000	Horse.	1	..	.....	.....
Total.....	\$618,760		789	1,525 $\frac{1}{2}$		\$386,960

### COTTON PLANTERS SHOULD BECOME COTTON SPINNERS.

The Executive Committee of the Georgia Agricultural Association have put forth, in an extra, an address to the Southern cotton planters, in which is submitted a very valuable and important suggestion. The subject will be brought forward for discussion at the convention to be held next month in Montgomery, Alabama. From this address we make the following extract, containing important considerations for the cotton planter :—

“ Great Britain habitually imports about one sixth more raw cotton than she manufactures, and, according to Baines, in his history of cotton manufacture, makes a profit of 10 per cent upon the exportation of a portion of that excess to Havre. And she converts into yarn and exports about one-fifth more of the amount of her imports of raw cotton. This is not the place to inquire into the means by which she is enabled to monopolize so large an amount of our raw staple, and to engross so large a profit by a mere transfer of what she cannot use at home across the channel. It is more german to the purpose of this paper to inquire if the cotton planters of the United States may not themselves spin and export part or all of that excess of yarn which Great Britain spins but does not make into cloth? The more direct and practical proposition is, may not the cotton planters look forward to the time when the exportation of raw cotton will be as rare as the exportation of seed cotton was thirty or forty years ago? There are not as great difficulties now to the spinning and exportation of yarns as existed some sixty years ago to the ginning and exportation of clean

\* And horse-power.

cotton. Then the cotton-gin was in the hands of the patentees, who endeavored to make a 'great East India concern of it' by establishing ginners at numerous points in the cotton region and coercing the planters to sell their cotton in the seed, by refusing to sell rights to use the gin. That scheme of monopoly, amounting almost to fraud, was defeated by the ingenuity of Nathan Lyons, who invented the saw gin. Now, all the elements for ginning, carding, and spinning exist in machinery of almost perfect construction, and its adaptation to the planter's wants is alone necessary to enable him to spin his own crop at his own homestead. The spinning of cotton—as was one time the ginning of it—is a distinct pursuit, employing a distinct capital, and creating a distinct and antagonizing interest to that of the planter. The same energy that enabled him to unite the ginning out of his crop with the production of it, will now unite, in his own hands, the production, ginning, carding, and spinning. And he will find that he will add proportionally more to the profits of his investment by carding and spinning than he has by ginning his crop, for the women and children may be readily taught to spin in winter what they have aided in cultivating and gathering."

#### THE AUSTRALIAN GOLD MINES.

By the recent arrivals at London, from Port Philip, accounts have been received with regard to the Victoria Gold Mines up to the 27th January, 1852. It appears that the excitement was rapidly increasing, and that about 20,000 people had already reached the place from the neighboring colonies. Special instances were mentioned in which parties had obtained gold valued at about £30 per day for several successive days, while even since the scarcity of water the average at the chief point of operation had been £3. These results were principally obtained from surface diggings on a slope of the range not a quarter of an acre in extent. It was estimated that since the discovery the general yield, including what had found its way into the banks, had been at least £1,000,000 sterling, and that already, up to the 18th of January, £660,000 had been exported to this country. When the winter rains should set in, it was anticipated that the most extraordinary consequences would be witnessed. In the meantime labor was fetching high rates; reapers were paid 28s. a day, besides a considerable allowance of spirits, and servants who previously obtained about £30 to £35 per annum were now readily engaged at £60. The retail business of the place had improved in proportion, the expenditure by the mining population being distinguished for its extravagance. The latest price of gold was £2 18s. to £3 per ounce. The amount brought by the present vessel is understood to be £160,000. The Himalaya and Sarah Anne, which left previously with 26,547 and 14,004 ounces, have yet to arrive.

It appears that news had been received of the discovery of gold in New Zealand, in the island of Waiheki, about fifteen miles east of Auckland.

#### COMPARATIVE COST OF MINING IN CORNWALL AND LAKE SUPERIOR.

The following is a comparative estimate of the expenses of mining in Cornwall, England, and Lake Superior, which is derived from the *Lake Superior Journal*, published at Detroit, Michigan:—

	Lake Superior.	Cornwall.
Sinking shafts, per foot.....	\$14 00	\$7 00
Drifting, ".....	8 00	3 50
Stopeing, ".....	4 00	2 00
Miners allowed per month.....	35 00	15 00
Laborers ".....	26 00	9 00
Carpenters ".....	40 00	17 00
Smiths ".....	40 00	17 00
Sawyers, per one thousand feet.....	18 00	5 50
Timber, (free).....	.....	0 80
Water charges.....	20 00	.....
Engineers, per month.....	35 00	35 00
Pitmen, ".....	.....	20 00
Man and horse, per day.....	3 00	1 25

## THE COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

From an elaborate article in Poor's *Railroad Journal* for May 15, Mr. Leavitt, the working editor of the *Independent*, has prepared the following table, showing the growth of this trade at intervals of five years, indicating the three different coal regions and the different channels by which the coal is brought to market:—

Region.	Channels.	TONS.						
		1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1851.
Lehigh..	Lehigh Canal ..	365	28,393	41,750	131,250	225,318	429,453	989,269
Sch'ykill	Schuykill Canal ...	6,500	89,984	339,508	452,291	263,537	579,156	
"	Reading Rail'd ...	.....	.....	.....	.....	820,237	1,605,084	
Lackaw'a	Del. & Hud. Can'l ...	.....	43,000	90,000	148,470	273,435	795,059	
Susque'a.	Susquehanna Riv. ...	.....	.....	.....	.....	15,505	188,401	415,099
Total in the year.....		365	34,893	174,734	560,758	841,584	1,975,163	4,383,667

Going back to 1835, as the time when the trade might be considered as established, we find the increase in the five years ending 1840 was 280,826 tons, or 50 per cent; in 1845 it was 1,133,529 tons, or 123 per cent; in 1851, six years, it was 2,408,554 tons, or 122 per cent. The average of the three periods gives 98 per cent as the rate of increase every five years, making an increase of 4,295,993 tons in 1856, or a total for that year of 8,679,660 tons.

The writer before us makes a calculation somewhat different, which leads to 117 per cent, which he reduces to 100 per cent as a ratio, or that the trade will continue to double in extent every five years for a long period to come. For convenience, call the crop of 1851 four millions, of 1856 eight millions, of 1861 sixteen millions, and that of 1871 thirty-two million tons. The writer says:—

"Is there any reason why this rate should be diminished? We think not. In the first place, population is increasing at the same rapid rate as heretofore. Secondly, coal is only just beginning to be used throughout New England, where, ultimately, it must displace all other means of heat for domestic purposes, as well as of mechanical power for manufacturing purposes. New England, as the oldest settled, and already the most bare of wood, must become, and at no distant day, the greatest consumer of Pennsylvania anthracite. Baltimore will probably supply herself, and to some extent the coast below her; but the great cities of Philadelphia and New York, and the whole Atlantic coast north and east of Philadelphia, must become every year more and more dependent upon the coal fields of the Schuylkill, the Lehigh, and the Lackawanna. This whole north-eastern region of the United States, at once the coldest, the most populous, and the most mechanical, and therefore, by all three reasons, requiring the greatest amount of fuel for domestic and mechanical purposes, has, as yet, only begun to use our Pennsylvania coal. So far from any decrease in the rate of consumption, there are the strongest reasons for believing that the rate will be increased."

If the duty on coal should continue to give the great land-proprietors the power to levy a quarter of a dollar per ton on all the coal that is dug there, it will yield them in 1871 the very pretty income of eight or nine millions per annum.

## AMERICAN BOHEMIAN GLASS.

ALEXANDER CUMMINGS, the editor of the *Philadelphia Bulletin*, on a recent visit to Boston, took the opportunity of visiting the New England Glass Works, which, for the extent and variety of their operations, probably surpass all others in the country. The editor of the *Bulletin* says:—

"We were especially struck with the fact, new to us, that most of the exquisite, richly colored and decorated glass-ware, which is so much admired under the name of 'Bohemian Glass,' is manufactured at these works. The variety and beauty of the articles manufactured there would scarcely be credited by one not a visitor; but we

can assure our readers that we saw many works that could not be surpassed in Bohemia or anywhere else in Europe. The various processes by which the different colors and the rich gilding are produced we are not prepared to describe, but they are produced at these works in the utmost perfection. The company has the advantage of a charter and large capital, which enable them thus to compete successfully with foreign manufactures in this work; Massachusetts having none of that holy horror of corporations which has retarded so much the development of manufacturing industry in our own State."

#### DISCOVERY OF GOLD AT QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLAND.

In reference to the golden wealth of Queen Charlotte's Island, in the Pacific, a letter in the New York *Courier and Enquirer*, mentioning the discovery by persons employed by the Hudson's Bay Company, says that "in less than one hour \$13,000 worth of gold and quartz intermixed was discovered, and much more might have been secured but for the imprudence of one of the party, who, in his eagerness to secure some of the large pieces, gave the Indians a silver dollar for each large piece of gold. The Indians, although ignorant of the value of the gold, were accustomed to the use of silver from trading with the Hudson Bay Company. After receiving a few dollars they attacked the white men and drove them off to their vessel, and they were obliged to get under way and leave the harbor. Several vessels with armed men have since left San Francisco for the island. The island is about two hundred and forty miles in length, and from twenty to one hundred in breadth, with a beautiful soil and climate. The coast abounds with excellent harbors and large quantities of fish. It has a population of from 7,000 to 10,000 Indians, who lead a roving life, always moving in large bodies from one part of the island to another. The island is nominally a British possession, but it is not inhabited by a single white man.

#### NORTH-WEST COPPER MINING COMPANY.

The North-West Mining Company have made a statement and exhibit of the operations and financial affairs of the company, from which it appears that the income realized from the sale of copper since the organization of the company, in 1849, amounts to the sum of £94,819 8s, and the aggregate expenditures, for the same period, for mining, &c., real estate, live stock, improvements, and steam-engines, amount to the sum of \$172,183 96. The results, as will be seen below, for the past three years, are encouraging in the annually increasing quantity of copper raised; and it is reasonable to hope that such increase will continue for some time to come:—

	Mineral raised.	Fine copper.	Per cent.	Cash realized.
1849 .....	44,196	34,322	at 77½	\$5,672 71
1850 .....	270,873	195,020	72	35,786 66
1851 .....	434,993	293,199	67½	53,360 46
Total .....	750,062	522,541	69¾	\$94,819 8s

#### VULCANIZED INDIA RUBBER.

DANIEL WEBSTER, in the India rubber case of *GOODYEAR vs. DAY*, describes minutely the invention claimed by Goodyear for vulcanizing India rubber, as follows:—

"It appears from the evidence in this case, that Chas. Goodyear, in the year 1834, came into the field of operations in the manufacture of India rubber.

"He turned his attention to this subject, not as a matter of business or trade, but by way of commencing and carrying on a series of experiments, by which he could bring to the test the question whether this very extraordinary substance was capable of rendering any benefit to society, to see whether there was any way, given among men skilled in the arts, by which this article could be cleared of its stickiness—its tendency to harden in the frost and soften in the heat; for it is well known that the arti-

cles manufactured up to the year 1834 were entirely useless. If they were exposed to the sun, they became sticky, you could not separate them after their surfaces came in contact; and if exposed to the cold, they became hard and rigid."

To remedy these defects, Mr. Goodyear continued his experiments for years, until he at last invented the vulcanizing process. The great peculiarity of this vulcanizing process is this: if you take a compound of sulphur and rubber in a dry state, and grind and mix them together, and apply heat, the consequence is, that the substance softens, and softens, and softens, as the degree of heat increases, until it reaches a certain high in the thermometer, say 212° Fahrenheit, or along there, a little more or less.

"Anybody who ever tried the effects to see what would be its operation upon this compound, and found that a great degree of heat, softened and rendered it more and more plastic as the degree of heat was augmented, would naturally be of opinion, that if that heat were carried still higher, the whole substance would melt. I say that everybody would be of that opinion, reasoning *a priori*, and founding his conclusions upon a general knowledge of the effect of heat. But Mr. Goodyear, as the result of un-tiring experiment, found out that although the application of heat produced a melting effect upon this compound, rendering it more and more plastic and soft as the degree of heat augmented, yet when that heat, going on, had got up to a certain much higher degree, its effect was the reverse of what it had been, and then the rubber composition commenced to vulcanize and harden—in fact, to make metallic the vegetable substance."

#### GOLD MINES IN VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.

The news from Van Dieman's land, in relation to the productiveness of the gold mines, is more flattering than any accounts before received. Labor and merchandise have advanced most rapidly.

In the Melbourne Argus, of January 19, we find the following statistics, relative to the gold obtained from the gold fields of Victoria.

##### FROM MELBOURNE.

	Oz.	dwt.	gr.
Dec. 29, 1851. Favorite, Sydney.....	744	6	12
Dec. 30, " Himalaya, London.....	26,547	5	0
Jan. 6, 1852, Hironnelle, Sydney....	1,703	0	0
Jan. 7, " Sword Fish, Hobart Town.....	900	0	0
Jan. 8, " Phebe, Sydney.....	2,504	0	0
Jan. 15, " Brilliant, London.....	42,594	0	10
Jan. 15, " Thomas and Henry, Sydney.....	1,000	0	0
Jan. 16, " Sarah Anne, London.....	14,004	6	0
	<hr/>		
	89,996	17	22

##### FROM GEELONG.

Jan. 8, 1852, Brilliant, London.....	12,483	1	4
Total.....	102,479	19	0

Making a total with that previously shipped, omitting fractions of an ounce, of 220,305 ounces, amounting, at £3 per ounce, to the sum of £680,915.

The article closes with the following announcement:—

"We have hastily thrown these few facts together, by way of asking our English friends, what they think of the prospects of a little colony, which, in less than four months, has managed to export 9 tons, 3 cwt., 58 lbs., 9 oz., of gold, and has plenty more to follow!"

#### LIQUID LEATHER.

Dr. Beruland, of Larria, in Germany, is said to have discovered a method of making leather out of certain refuse and waste animal substances. He has established a manufactory near Vienna; no part of the process is explained; but it is stated that the substance is at one stage in a state of fluidity, and may then be cast into boots, shoes, &c. Such a discovery is not improbable.

## THE VALUE OF AN ACRE OF COAL LAND.

The Pottsville (Pa.) *Mining Register* alluding to the cheapness of land in that quarter a few years ago, says now an acre of coal land is worth \$18,000. Many set down a higher figure. In the South basin, (that is, from the Sharp Mountain to the Mine Hill,) where we have all the veins, (thirteen, including, red and white ash,) the whole thickness of the coal is ninety feet. Allowing one-half of this for fault and waste in mining, we have 45 feet, or 15 yards in thickness, of merchantable coal. There being 48,000 square yards to the acre, we have, by multiplying this number by the thickness, 72,000 square yards or tons of coal per acre; which at a rent of 25 cents per ton, brings \$18,000. This is a fair estimate of the real value of an acre of our coal land, without exaggeration or embellishment. It is not strange, therefore, that our lands have, and are still increasing in value. In England, coal lands not possessing near the intrinsic value of ours, sell at from one to two thousand pounds sterling per acre.

## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## AN OLD MERCHANT'S ADVICE.

MARTIN TAKETHROUGH—who must be a son or grandson of old GOAREAD PUTETHROUGH—through the medium of the Palmetto State Banner, gives the following advice to his nephew, JACK GOINGTHROUGH:—

MY DEAR NEPHEW:—I am rejoiced to learn that you are in good health, and are just commencing business on your own account. I have heretofore remarked your shrewdness in commercial transactions in which you were engaged for the benefit of others, and I feel confident, that having launched upon your own boat, and started on your own hook, you will still maintain a character which weighs so greatly in my estimation. Being so nearly related to myself, it is of course my desire that you shall meet with the most complete success. You are intelligent and enterprising—two qualities, without which, little or nothing can be achieved.

Thirty years ago, I launched my bark upon the same tempestuous sea. I had nothing to begin with, it is true; but I did not despair—I know that others had succeeded in making the same voyage. I tried it, on the square, for some time, that is to say, I did not take any of the little advantages of which others availed themselves, for purposes of gain. But I soon found that, riches being the object in view, I must adopt their plan or I would never succeed in business. It is too late in the day for one to think of acting upon the principle that "honesty is the best policy"—it is an erroneous doctrine—it won't do in the 19th century. Men must suit their consciences to their interests—have easy consciences. They must know and acknowledge but one rule for their guidance upon every occasion—that rule is short and pointed—embraced in one word—"SKIN!"

Occasionally you may find one, who, in his folly, strictly acts up to his vaunted principle, honesty. What is the consequence? He remains poking and groveling in the mud for a life-time, while every day he beholds his neighbors, who are not so squeamish as himself, rearing their palaces and reveling in luxuries to him unknown. He may be thought well of by a few poor fellows (dupes of honesty) like himself, but the majority having a different standard of excellence, will give him the cold shoulder and keep him jammed to the wall. Such a fate should never be mine, and if I am at all acquainted with your spirit it will never be yours. I got along gradually at first. Ten per cent satisfied me then, but I found it wouldn't do, so I commenced increasing and continued to increase. Twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, and sometimes one hundred per cent. Complaints, of course, I had almost any quantity—but what of that? Where I lost one customer I would gain two others. Some couldn't use my sugar; they said it was all sand, but this was a vile misrepresentation—only thirty per cent was sand, and that of the cleanest kind. Sand is wholesome: it is an invaluable aid to digestion. I was actually contributing to the health of the silly beings, by mixing sand with my sugar; but they knew it not, and the manufacturer had to bear the blame, of course, as I would not acknowledge my agency. They said my liquor was half water; well, so it was, and so much the better for it. All parties were benefited.

Liquor, we all know, is hurtful—if, then, I weakened its strength, by adding a portion of that delightful beverage appropriated for the use of the whole human family, and made it less powerful for evil, I was undoubtedly entitled to commendation rather than abuse. At all events I put cash into my pocket by the operation, and received their curses in a philosophical spirit, that could not have been excelled by Socrates himself. So with coffee and tea—the first was half rocks, and the last almost entirely composed of slœe leaves. You cannot conceive how I was vilified—but what of that? I was making money like dust—folks knew it, and I was outwardly respected accordingly. I was a rising man then, and I have been rising ever since.

You must SKIN in self-defence. There are but two classes in the world—the *Skinner* and the *Skinned*. The former are wise men; the latter are fools. If you do not skin, you must assuredly be skinned—so you can make your choice. Pay no attention to derogatory remarks, but skin on.

We are no worse than the majority of business men. There is trickery in all trades and professions. Each is trying with might and main to get the advantage of the other. The lawyer, the doctor, the merchant, the workman—all are on an equality. Some ignorant people may call it swindling—but, poor souls! they know no better, and deserve to be bitten for their egregious ignorance. They learn soon that the only way to keep from being bitten to death, is to bite back. They make your sharpest biters, those who have been well torn. They bite all mankind for what they think is an injury inflicted on them by one. A dog blessed with the hydrophobia is not a circumstance with them!

It is perfectly safe, if you manage right. Your eye-teeth must be cut before you venture out into deep water. As for conscience, as I before intimated, no business man can keep one and succeed in the world. It is nothing but a dead weight, always holding him back, when it is evidently his interest to go forward. If you have not already come to the conclusion to discard it, I must beg you to do so, by all means. No merchant, with a conscience, ever gets fat—no such a one ever sleeps well of nights. I assert with perfect truth, when I say that I never feel better than when I have just gone through with a skinning operation. My spirits are revived, and I number my gains with a joyousness utterly astonishing to weak nerves.

Do not boggle at what some call lying. "Men are born liars." Lie with emphasis—lie with seriousness—lie with impudence. Never lie unless you can see a chance to make something thereby—then lie boldly. A man, especially a merchant, who always tells the truth, and nothing but the truth, must frequently be the victim of disappointment. He cannot succeed, and it is perfectly useless for him to think of it. I told the truth once, and I have repented it to this day. I lost a thousand dollars. I could have made it just as easy as winking. That sum, singly, is not much to me now, but just think—in the ten years since I committed that offence, how much might have been made with it. It would have quadrupled itself at the least calculation. I took a solemn oath, never to catch myself again!

Be always on hand. Never lose a chance. Remember, it is the early bird that snaps up the worm. Every human gudgeon is hooked up by somebody; so take your chance. They are curious—show them *your* elephant. Keep a little good liquor to treat them with. Don't drink yourself, but fill them to the muzzle before commencing trade. They purchase with desperation when about half or three parts fuddled. Anything—everything—nothing comes amiss. Backbite your neighbors—declare they are knaves, swindlers, cheats, thieves—wouldn't trust them out of sight. Then, when you have got them well screwed in your vice, squeeze, until they are as dry as dust. That is the way, my dear nephew, to show yourself worthy of the appellation of a business man, and to do honor to my instructions. Your loving uncle,

MARTIN TAKEMTHROUGH.

#### SMUGGLING IN SPAIN.

The *Madrid Gazette* contains a decree extending the line of custom-houses through the province of Zaragosa, from Justinana and Navarre, as far as the province of Huesca. This measure has been taken in consequence of the increase of smuggling and the complete and dangerous organization of smugglers in that department. The government begins to find that it is impossible to maintain its protective system without recourse to custom-houses in the interior.

## LANDING A STEAMBOAT PASSENGER.

The Poughkeepsie Eagle reports an interesting law case which has recently been decided in the Circuit Court of Oyer and Terminer, in that place. It seems that a gentleman by the name of Whinfield, belonging to Poughkeepsie, took passage at New York on the steamboat Oregon, buying a through ticket to Albany, as, owing to the competition, a through ticket could be bought for a less price than a way ticket. When the boat reached Poughkeepsie, Whinfield offered his through ticket and attempted to go ashore; but the officers of the boat forcibly resisted him, and carried him against his will to Albany. Whinfield brought a suit against the owners and officers of the boat for assault and false imprisonment; contending that a through ticket entitled the holder to land wherever he pleased on the way. The court sustained this position; ruling, that a through ticket entitled a passenger to land at any place where the boat stopped; and that in fact all the passengers had a right to walk ashore at any place. That a passenger not paying his passage, when demanded, was liable to be put on shore immediately; but if the steamboat came to Poughkeepsie or any other dock, a passenger who had not paid his passage had a right to go ashore without any detention from the owners or employees of the boat; and that in fact the owners must collect the passage money before starting; and that if not collected at that time, it was a debt, and to be collected as other debts; and that it was false imprisonment to detain any passenger from landing. Under this ruling the jury found a verdict of \$150 and costs against the captain, clerk, and ticket agent of the Oregon.

## A SELF-WINDING OR PERPETUAL CLOCK.

After years of mathematical labor and mechanical results, Professor Willis, of Rochester, has completed and has now in constant operation a self-winding clock, which determines the seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months, and years of time with unflinching accuracy, continuing in constant motion, by itself, never requiring to be wound up, never running down, but moving perpetually so long as its components exist. It might easily be called a perpetual motion, and it is so in one sense, but the inventor very properly makes no such claim. The scientific will at once understand this upon inspection. The Rochester *Democrat* says that the clock stands upon two uprights about six feet high, with a large highly-finished dial. Its mechanism is all exposed to the closest scrutiny, and the movement of its simple escapement and its direct motion is as plain to the eye as the truth and force of its well applied principles to the mind.

## BUSINESS OF DUBUQUE IN 1851.

It appears from the report of a committee appointed by the city council of Dubuque, Iowa, that the number of steamboats that arrived there during the boating season of 1851 was 353, and the number of departures 352. Dubuque exported 4,287 tons of merchandise of the value of \$233,207 59; and imported 24,663 tons of the value of \$1,175,207 40. The number of immigrants who have been landed from steamers we find to be 2,824. The articles embraced in the above summary of exports consist chiefly of the agricultural products of the soil, lead, horses, cattle, and hogs. The imports were mostly made up of dry goods, groceries, queensware, machinery, leather, lumber &c. The amount of insurance by merchants and others upon exports was in and about the sum of \$1,749, and that paid upon imports \$8,814, making the aggregate paid for insurance the sum of \$10,563,

## OF THE COASTING TRADE BETWEEN NEW YORK AND VIRGINIA.

An act was passed by the legislature of New York on the 20th March, 1852, "empting vessels and persons engaged in the coasting trade between the port of New York and the Capes of Virginia, from Quarantine," as follows:—

SEC. 1. Article first, title second, chapter fourteen, of the first part of the revised statutes, entitled of the place of quarantine, and the vessels and persons subject thereto, shall not apply to Vessels and persons engaged in the coasting trade between the port of New York and any of the Capes of Virginia; and all such vessels and persons may at all times enter the port of New York without being subject to quarantine, the same as if they did not pass to the south of Cape Henlopen, except in case there may be sickness on board, when they shall be subject to the existing provisions of laws.

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 THE BOOK TRADE.
 

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- 1.—*Five Years in an English University.* By CHARLES ASTOR BRISTED, late Foundation Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam, 155 Broadway.

Mr. Bristed's book has a right to a place among the latest voyages to unexplored regions, and by the side of the last journey to the interior of Africa. Polar seas and regions are rather better known to the American public, than the modes of life and course of studies in the Great English Universities. Our ignorance in this respect, is the more striking from our familiarity with the German Universities, with which numerous books, learned and familiar, and the experience of many an American student have made us acquainted. In the colonial times, young Americans of aspiration used to repair to the English Universities, but very few have found their way there since. Mr. Bristed's experience, therefore, was something unique and well worth narrating. Mr. Bristed has very decided talent for description, the minuteness of observation, the eye for details, which give vividness and life. His pictures of university life are as piquant as Howitt's similar sketches of German student life. Having graduated at New Haven also, he is enabled to contrast his experience of the American with the English College system, much to the disadvantage of the former. The book, in fact, under a narrative form is much more; it is a formal *expose* of the defects of American classical scholarship, of the superiority of English, and of the mode by which the inferiority is to be removed, which is the substitution of the English system. We confess we were more struck in Mr. Bristed's Companion, with the points of resemblance than of difference, between the English and American system of college study and discipline. They were both formed on the same model—the monastic discipline; both breathe the same school-boy spirit. The difference is a difference of degree, not of kind. The American collegian ends his college course at twenty, the English begins at about that age; the American devotes about seven years to the classics, the English student, twelve or more; and above all, the English student pursues his course at a mature age. But the system is the same; competition, artificial incitements, coaches, steam, petty restraints, study to pass examination, not to learn. The fact is, England and America must alike acknowledge the literary sovereignty of Germany in classical learning. The best labors of English scholars consist in working up the results of German erudition, translating German treatises, editing German editions. What is Liddel and Scott's Lexicon, cited by Mr. Bristed as proof of Oxford industry, but a translation in the main? When the classics are studied by *men*, as a profession, such results may be expected, but we study them as an inferior branch, preparatory to law, divinity, or medicine, not, like the faculty of Philosophy in Germany, co-ordinate with them. Mr. Bristed's book, however, is full of valuable suggestions; it is written in a frank, manly spirit, with much earnestness, and withal good humor, full too of those personal details which make such interesting reading. For how many pleasant hours is the world indebted to the amiable egotism of its *Pepyses* and *Berneys*! At the same time we cannot too much applaud this race instead of an American man of wealth earnestly laboring in the cause of good letters. We think Mr. Bristed underrated American scholarship. We have not space to show how; but really it seems scarce confirmation of his complaint, when in a book so professedly scholarly, there occur such errors as *indagimus facile anduisse*, etc., which we can of course call nothing but misprints. Is it impossible to have Latin and Greek correctly printed in New York?

- 2.—*Harper's New Monthly Magazine.* Vol. 4. December, 1851, to May, 1852. 8vo., pp. 863. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A fourth volume of Harper's Magazine was completed with the May number. It is unnecessary to repeat what all the world in the United States and the Canadas well know, that nowhere else can be found the same amount of agreeable reading, at the same expense, as in these pages. The good taste of the work, the excellence of its varied contents, and the discrimination in their choice are well appreciated. The aid of such writers as the Abbots, and the entertainment and instruction of their articles cannot be too highly valued. It is a work that should be received into every family. Each volume improves in appearance. Many of the articles in these pages are profusely illustrated with well executed cuts. Indeed no labor or cost seems to be spared to make this work as complete, and tasteful, and perfect as possible.

- 3.—*Philadelphia as it is in 1852: Being a Correct Guide to all the Public Buildings; Literary, Scientific, and Benevolent Institutions; and Places of Amusement, Remarkable Objects, Commercial Warehouses, and Wholesale and Retail Stores in Philadelphia and its Vicinity. With Illustrations, and a Map of the City and its Environs.* By R. A. SMITH. 12mo., pp. 452. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston.

The title of this work explains its contents at length. It is sufficient to say that it is issued in very good taste, and contains many well executed cuts.

- 4.—*The World Here and There; or Notes of Travelers.* From "Household Words." Edited by CHARLES DICKENS. No. 4, 12mo., pp. 231.

- 5.—*The Existence of a God and Human Immortality Philosophically Considered, and the Truth of Divine Revelation Substantiated.* By J. BOVEE DODS. 12mo., pp. 215. New York: Fowlers and Wells.

This author is a pleasant and easy writer. In his discussion of the subject of the existence of the Deity he has presented many strong facts in a forcible and popular manner.

- 6.—*The Hive and the Honey-Bee; with Plain Directions for Obtaining a Considerable Annual Increase from this Branch of Rural Economy. To which is added an Account of the Diseases of Bees, with their Remedies. Also Remarks as to their Enemies, and the Best Mode of Protecting the Bees from their Attacks.* By H. D. RICHARDSON. With illustrations on wood. 8vo., pp. 72. New York: C. M. Saxton.

- 7.—*Journey to Iceland, and Travels in Sweden and Norway.* Translated by CHARLOTTE F. COOPER. 12mo., pp. 270. New York: G. P. Putnam.

Madame Pfeiffer, the author of this volume, is the woman who through curiosity made the tour of the world. The same motive led her to Ireland. She is shrewd, sensible, and often striking in her observations, and the reader will follow her with interest throughout her trip. The volume forms number eight of Putnam's Cheap Library.

- 8.—*Les Aventures de Telemaque, fils d'Ulysse.* Par M. FENELON. D'après l'édition de M. CHARLES BRUN. 12mo., pp. 395. New York: Leavitt & Allen.

Fenelon's Telemachus is a work too well known to the public to require explanation. For two hundred years it has been the admiration of mankind. This edition is issued in very good taste, in clear and distinct type, and substantial paper. The signification of the most difficult words is added at the foot of each page, and a brief compendium of ancient history and geography, so far as may be necessary, to increase the intelligibility of the work, is placed at the close, as an appendix. We have never seen a better edition for youth.

- 9.—*Notes, Explanatory and Practical, on the Book of Revelations.* By ALBERT BARNES. 12mo., pp. 506. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is an excellent work on a subject upon which so much has been written, and so little is actually known. The author entered upon the task of exposition not precisely from any previous purpose, or to establish a theory of his own, but rather in the course of his private studies. Finding much in historical writers to confirm the views which arose in his own mind, he was led to complete and publish them. His well known ability and success in biblical investigations are such as to entitle this work to a cordial reception.

- 10.—*Miscellanies.* By Rev. JAMES MARTINEAU. 12mo., pp. 472. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

The contents of this volume consist of articles which have heretofore appeared in the English periodicals, but they treat of such high themes, and possess such a lofty tone, clearness of moral discrimination, affluence of imagery, and vigorous precision of language, that they not only made quite an impression upon their first appearance, but have been regarded, and with justice, as worthy to be reproduced in a more permanent form. The titles of some of the articles are the following:—"The battle of the Churches;" "The Church of England;" "Church and State;" "Life and correspondence of Thomas Arnold;" and among liberal Christians this volume will find great favor, and they will regard its appearance, in the present state and tendencies of opinion, as very timely.

- 11.—*St. Paul's Epistles to the Corinthians: an Attempt to Convey their Spirit and Significance.* By JOHN HAMILTON THOM. 12mo., pp. 400. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

All scholars and deep students are warned off from these pages. They are designed for the unlearned; for those who desire religious truth with simplicity, sincerity, and love. The author belongs to that class known as liberal Christians, and while he displays in his annotations of Paul's Epistle all that depth of thought and elegance of diction, peculiar to his brethren, yet he has farther advanced than is usual, into a field which is often comparatively overlooked. He not only believes, but feels that it is through the heart alone man can sympathize with whatever exists behind the veil; that the feelings of the heart are the ultimate source of all thought and all action; that love and its kindred affections only, constitute all that is immortal of the acquisitions of man on earth.

- 12.—*The Two Families: an Episode in the History of Chapellen.* By the author of *Rose Douglas*. 12mo., pp. 261. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Some very agreeable and pleasing scenes will be found in these pages, and the whole work is written with much strength and force. But there are several of the characters strongly depicted which are destitute of any attraction whatever. Indeed they are such that scarcely a reader can desire their acquaintance. These are blemishes which seriously mar what might have been made, with a little modification, a very attractive tale.

- 13.—*The Howadji in Syria.* By GEO. WM. CURTIS. 12mo., pp. 304. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There may be some readers who will be pleased with this work. The author is happy in the selection of his language, which is generally the most mellow and soft words. The order of their arrangement is less harmonious, and often made at the expense of the thought, which should never be done. There are many pleasing and agreeable passages, but nothing which the reader will call "downright good." The effort to polish and finish is glaring all over, and often there is a far-fetchedness in the thoughts, an absence of that truthful and natural adaptation to the subject which is requisite to agreeable reading of every kind. It is, in other respects, a work of much better taste than most writers possess, though art has done more than nature here. We do not desire to deter any reader from a book which he ought to possess, and which is worth far more than the mere cost. It belongs to a peculiar and difficult department of composition, and we have examined it as such.

- 14.—*The British Colonies; their History, Extent, Condition, and Resources.* By R. M. MARTIN. Part 38. New York: John Tallis & Co.

A finely executed portrait of Sir Ralph Abercromby embellishes this number. In its pages the history of the colony of Cape Town during the year 1814 is continued.

- 15.—*Tallis's Scripture Natural History for Youth.* Part 13. 18mo. New York: John Tallis & Co.

It contains sixteen colored and finely executed plates of birds which are mentioned in scripture, accompanied with a very interesting and instructive outline of their natural history.

- 16.—*The Illustrated Atlas and Modern History of the World.* By R. M. Martin. Part 47. New York: John Tallis & Co.

This part contains a beautiful engraving of the city of Edinburg, and some additional pages of the Index Gazetteer. We have often expressed our gratification at the elegant execution of these maps.

- 17.—*Lillian and other Poems.* By W. MACKWORTH PRAED. Now first collected. 12mo., pp. 290. New York: J. S. Redfield.

It is a very unusual circumstance in these days that the author of poems of so much merit as these, should never attempt the task of their collection from the ephemeral publications in which they have first appeared. On the contrary, the labor has been done in this country for an English poet who was far too careless of his reputation. The contents of the volume consist of numerous pieces, some of which are of considerable length, and others are quite brief. They possess a delicate sensibility and a richness of fancy intermingled often with a tone of sadness which imparts to them an intense charm.

- 18.—*The Life and Letters of Barthold George Niebuhr, with Essays on his Character and Influence.* By CHEVALIER BUNSEN and PROFESSORS BRANDIS and LORBELL. 12mo., pp. 563. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A large portion of this work consists of letters, and extracts of letters, by Niebuhr. It is not a selection from his learned and general correspondence, but simply biographical. It aims to communicate whatever can throw light upon the natural capacities and dispositions of this distinguished man; his mental development, his studies, his art and literature, his profound sympathies, and, not less, his faults and weaknesses. Much is also presented respecting his public career; perhaps to as great an extent as was possible, while such a mass of his memorials, dispatches, and valuable collections of letters remain inaccessible to the public.

- 19.—*The Legislative Guide*; containing all the Rules for conducting Business in Congress; Jefferson's Manual and the Citizen's Manual, including a concise System of Rules of Order, founded on Congressional Proceedings, with copious Notes and Marginal References, explaining the Rules and the Authority thereof; designed to economize Time and secure Uniformity in the Proceedings of all Deliberative Assemblies, and also to meet the Wants of every private Citizen who desires to understand the right way to transact public business. By J. B. BURLEIGH, LL. D. Svo., pp. 287. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The title of this work amply explains the fullness of its contents. Something of this kind seems to be required, which shall serve as a standard authority upon the order of proceedings in all public assemblies. This is the only work with which we are acquainted that is worthy to fill such a position.

- 20.—*The Solar System: A Descriptive Treatise upon the Sun, Moon, and Planets, including an Account of all recent Discoveries.* By J. R. HIND, Secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society. 12mo., pp. 198. New York: G. P. Putnam.

A series of works on popular and practical science is one of the features of Putnam's Popular Library; and this volume is the first of that series. It is admirably adapted to present the reader, within a small compass, with a view of the present state of astronomical science, embracing the recent discoveries in astronomy, and its last results.

- 21.—*The Temperance Tales.* By LUCIUS M. SARGENT. New Illustrated Edition. 2 vols. in one, 12mo., pp. 632. Boston: John P. Jewett.

The temperance tales of Mr. Sargent were among the earliest productions devoted to the progress of that movement, and have become familiar as "household words." They were prepared for the purpose of doing good, and, we believe, it is universally acknowledged that they have been eminently successful in that respect. Hundreds of thousands have already been scattered over the earth. Editions have been published in England, Scotland, and Botany Bay, at Madras, and in South India; and several of the tales have been translated into the German and other European languages. The present edition comprises the whole series, and is, perhaps, the best edition that has yet been published of these standard tales.

- 22.—*On the Study of Words.* By R. D. FRENCH, B. D. From the second London Edition. 12mo., pp. 236. New York: J. S. Redfield.

These lectures on the study of words were prepared under the conviction on the part of the author, that there were many words in our language, which in their origin, changes, and present use, presented historical facts extremely interesting and instructive. A considerable number of such words treated in a suitable manner to illustrate this conviction form the contents of the volume. The reader will soon be convinced of the correctness of these views, and find in those pages much that is useful and interesting relative to many words and synonyms.

- 23.—*Revolutionary Memorials, Embracing Poems by the Rev. W. Wheeler Case, Published in 1778, with an Appendix Containing Burgoyne's Proclamation in Burlesque, &c., &c.* Edited by STEPHEN DODD. 12mo., pp. 69. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This is a new edition of poetic pieces published in Revolutionary times. Of course they breathe the spirit of the day. Their poetic merit is inconsiderable, but as illustrative of seventy-six, they are curious and striking.

- 24.—*Nights in a Block-House; or Sketches of Border Life: Embracing Adventures Among the Indians, Tents of the Wild Hunters, and Exploits of Border Heroes of the West.* By HENRY C. WATSON. With numerous Illustrations. 8vo., pp. 448. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The plan of this work is such as to unite the interest of the novel with the usefulness of history. Under this freedom the author describes, in most glowing terms, individual adventures among the Indians of the West. True in their general outlines and their more important features, they are sketched with a liveliness of fancy and a fullness of spirit, which is wanting in the mere historical description. The reader can here obtain a better idea of Western life in those early days, than if they were written with more tameness. He can scarcely fail to be interested in all parts of this volume.

- 25.—*Heroines of History. Illustrated.* Edited by MARY E. HEWETT. 12mo., pp. 325. New York: Cornish & Lamport.

The design of this volume is to present within moderate limits, sketches of the lives of women rendered illustrious by their heroism and virtues. Its list contains the names of Semiramis, Nictoris, Zenobia, Boadicea, Berengaria, Laura, Joan of Arc, Isabella of Castile, Ann Bolyne, Lady Jane Grey, &c., comprising sixteen in all. The sketches, which are spirited, are chiefly personal, brief, and interesting. They are each accompanied with a portrait executed with more than ordinary skill and taste.

- 26.—*Researches Respecting Americus Vesputius and his Voyages.* By VISCOUNT SANTUREM, EX-PRIME MINISTER OF PORTUGAL. Translated by E. V. CHILLE. 12mo., pp. 221. Boston: Little & Brown.

This work is from an intelligent and accomplished source, whatever the author may be politically at home; and the reader will quickly become enlisted in its investigations. They relate to many important particulars in the life of an ancient navigator, which have lost none of their interest through the lapse of time.

- 27.—*Ixion and other Poems.* By HARVEY HUBBARD. 12mo., pp. 165. Boston Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The poems flow from a highly cultivated, artistic pen. The reader will find in them much that is polished and skillfully said, with many nice conceptions and pleasing fancies. But they possess few traces of that fine poetic fancy which stamps the great poet; or that exuberance of soul which mellows all that fancy paints or imagination conceives.

- 28.—*The Approaching Crisis: Being a Review of Dr. Bushnell's recent Lectures on Supernaturalism.* By ANDREW JACKSON DAVIS. 8vo., pp. 221. New York: Published by the Author.

In these pages the author has endeavored to meet the question of Rationalism or Supernaturalism, which he regards as the great one of the day. He plants himself upon that sense of repugnance, which a large portion of mankind entertain toward the extreme views of an antiquated theology. Regarding this repugnance as the true voice of mankind, he proceeds to examine the views and doctrines of Supernaturalism. There is great vigor, energy, and clearness in this thought, with a directness and force that carry their peculiar weight with them.

- 29.—*A Biographical and Critical Dictionary of Painters, Engravers, Sculptors, and Architects. From Ancient to Modern Times; with the Monograms, Ciphers, and Molds used by Distinguished Artists to Certify their Works.* By REV. S. SPOONER, A. B. M. D. 8vo., Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. New York: G. P. Putnam.

In ten numbers this work will be completed. The extent and variety of its contents is apparent from the title. One wonders how it is possible for an individual so fully and completely to investigate so extensive a field. This is, however, explained by the author in his statement, that he has devoted to it his leisure for twenty years. His aim has been to give the cream of the whole history of the fine arts in such a form that all can afford to buy and read. The biographical notices are no less instructive than interesting; particularly in the department filled by the ancients. American art is also carefully and extensively noticed; on the whole the lover of the arts will be greatly pleased with this work.

30.—*The Art Journal for May and June.* New York: George Virtue.

These two numbers contain some very fine engravings. "The Mother," in the June number is executed with great skill and is a fine display of art. "Juliet and the Nurse," is poorly done: "Crossing the Ford," in the May number is well designed: "The Sea-shore in Holland," is quite picturesque and striking. The smaller cuts and engravings are chiefly well executed specimens of art in former days. The text is unusually full in its descriptions of works of art, and is quite instructive as well as entertaining.

31.—*Boydell's Illustrations of Shakspeare.* Parts 42 & 43. New York: S. Spooner.

No. 42 contains an engraving of a scene in the third Act of Henry VIII and another from the fifth Act in Coriolanus. They are better done than usual; the persons are numerous and their persons and postures are natural, and their countenances expressive of much fine sentiment. In the next part the engravings represent a scene in the fourth Act of Timon of Athens, and in the fourth Act of Titus Andronicus. These are good, but, perhaps inferior in expression to those of the previous number.

32.—*Memoir of Rev. Stephen B. Smith.* By T. J. SAWYER. 12mo., pp. 423. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

This is a biography of an active, laborious, and resolute man, who rose to high influence and distinction among the Universalist denomination of Christians.

33.—*Cosmos: A Sketch of a Physical Description of the Universe.* By ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT. Translated from the German by E. L. Otte & B. H. Paul. Vol 4, 12mo., pp. 234. New York: Harper & Bros.

The work of this eminent man, has been, in parts, so long before the public that it has become well known and justly esteemed. This is the fourth and latest volume now re-printed for the first time in this country by the Messrs. Harper.

34.—*Graces and Powers of the Christian Life.* By A. D. MAYO. 12mo., pp. 250. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

It is good to turn away from the dry and barren skeleton of theology which is on all sides forced upon the gaze of the public, to a work like this which has flesh and blood and sinews and life. It contains, to a large degree, the spirit of Christianity with its peculiar geniality and richness, and buoyancy, and happiness, and is worth hundreds of massive tomes of the usual character. It is written in good taste and in a cultivated style.

35.—*Biographical Literaria: or Biographical Sketches of my Literary 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. Large 12mo., pp. 802. New York: Wm. Gowans.

Of all the works of Coleridge, this is the one that has proved most acceptable to the public, and which presented the fullest and most correct idea of the man himself. His conversation, his opinions on literary men and subjects, brief essays, &c., will be here presented in a very agreeable and instructive manner. Much credit is due to the publisher for bringing out this valuable work and for the tasteful manner in which it has been done.

36.—*The Year-Book of Facts in Science and Art, Exhibiting the most Important Discoveries and Improvements of the Past Year, in Mechanics and the Useful Arts; Natural Philosophy, Electricity, Chemistry, Zoology and Botany, Geology and Geography, Meteorology and Astronomy.* By JOHN TIMBS. 12mo., pp. 327. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

Every one who is interested in science or its progress, will place a peculiar value upon this volume. It is a history of science during the past year. It embraces every invention and discovery of importance, and these are described in brief and comprehensive terms.

37.—*Falkland; a Novel.* By Sir E. L. BULWER. 8vo., pp. 99. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

38.—*Remorse, and other Tales.* By G. P. R. JAMES. 8vo., pp. 134. New York: Bunce & Brothers.