

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXVII.

SEPTEMBER, 1852.

NUMBER III.

CONTENTS OF NO. III., VOL. XXVII.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE.
I. OUR EMPIRE ON THE PACIFIC	275
II. COMMERCE OF THE DANUBE. By JOHN P. BROWN, Esq., of the Legation of the United States at Constantinople.....	289
III. COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.—No. XXXIII.—THE CITY OF NEW YORK. PART. II.—Population—Absolute progress. By E. HALE, Jr., of New York.....	310
IV. THE BLASTING OF ROCKS UNDER WATER WITHOUT DRILLING. By B. MAILLEFERT and W. RAASLOFF, Submarine Engineers.....	320

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

Action of Assumpsit for goods sold and delivered	329
What constitutes due diligence in making a demand upon the drawer of a note, etc.....	332
Brokers—contract to deliver stocks, etc.....	333
Action upon a promissory note.....	336

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW:

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

General aspect of commercial affairs—Credits at the south and west—Blessings and dangers of prosperity—Increased value of property—Condition of the New York State banks—Difficulties connected with the warehousing system—Necessity of a liberal interpretation of the laws to insure harmony between the government and the people—Deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints for July—imports at New York for July—Cause of the decline from previous years—Imports from January 1st—Warehousing movement—Imports of foreign dry goods at New York for July, and for seven months—Receipts for duties at New York—Revenue of the United States for the fiscal year 1851-52—Imports into the United States for four years—Exports at New York for July, and for seven months—Comparative exports of specie and merchandise..... 337-344

VOL. XXVII.—NO. III.

18

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

	PAGE.
Debt and finances of New Orleans	344
Value of real and personal property in the British Province of Nova Scotia in 1851	348
Condition of the North-Western Bank of Virginia	348
Expenditures of the United States Government from 1789 to 1851	349
Raising money by pawnbroking in Ireland	349
United States Government receipts and expenditures	350
Price of manufacturing stocks in New England.—Value of a mutilated bank-note	350
Consumption of gold in the arts and manufactures	351
Salaries of the foreign ministers of Great Britain, France, and the United States	351
United States Treasury Notes outstanding August 2, 1852	351
Four bank-notes of one million pounds sterling	351
Act establishing a branch mint of the United States in California	352
Will gold depreciate?	353
Statistics of the mints of France	355
The proposed Board of Brokers in New York	355
Louisiana banks and loans	356
The Pennsylvania North Branch loan	357
Origin of coins	357
Bonds of the Planters' Bank of Mississippi	358

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

Commerce of France in 1852.—The mackerel fisheries of New England	359
Exports of some of the leading articles from port of N. Y. during three years ending June, 1852	360
Fisheries of the British province of Nova Scotia	360
Imports of brandies into Great Britain	361
Rochester flour trade	362
British imports of sugar from her possessions.—Commerce of Holland in 1852	363
The foreign trade of London	363

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Belvidere Knoll and Hooper's Straits	363
Beacon at entrance of Bombay Harbor.—Boqueron Channel, port of Callao	364
Bearings off Bull's Bay Light-House.—Notice to United States Consuls	364

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

Spanish commercial regulations	365
Treaty of peace, amity, Commerce, and Navigation between the United States and Guatemala	365
Of allowance for tare on merchandise.—U. S. Treasury Circular	371
Tariff of the Peruvian Government	372

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

Population and representation of the United States	373
Complete census of the Province of Nova Scotia in 1851	374

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

Statistics of the Passages, &c., of the Collins and Cunard Steamers	376
Statistics of the Western (Mass.) Railroad from 1842 to 1851	379
The coal traffic of railways	379
Breaking of railway car axles	381
Railroads in Spain	381
The longest tunnel in the world.—Railway accidents in Great Britain	381

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

Gold mining in California	382
The Manufacture of glass—No. I. By DEMING JARVIS, Esq.	383
Statistics of Nova Scotia manufactures	388
The first discovery of gold in Australia	388
The early discovery of coal	388
The Cumberland Coal and Iron Company	389
The Australia gold diggings	389
Manufacture of combs	390
Manufacture of lumber in the north-west	390

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

"An old merchant's advice."	391
The mackerel fisheries	392
The prompt merchants' clerk	392
Commercial growth of the United States	393
Commission merchants	393
Absorption in business	393
Thomas Tarbell, a Boston merchant	394
The French rose trade	394
The romance of trade	394

THE BOOK TRADE.

Notices of new Books, or new Editions	395-400
---	---------

HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1852.

Art. I.—OUR EMPIRE ON THE PACIFIC.*

SINCE California first acquired auriferous fame, a great ink-stream, worthy of an age of cheap literature and speedy transit, has flowed thence upon us, deluging the columns of our public journals, and surfeiting the public inquiry with the load of *information*. Yet has this big current borne a very meager freightage of *facts*—of such true, solid, common-sense descriptions of matters and things at its source, as were wanted here, and as could alone guide to intelligent action on the part of both our people and government. In the first period of the Californian emigration, we could hardly expect it to be otherwise. In the entire novelty of the enterprise, and the exaggerated excitement attending it at every step, we were to expect of human nature precisely what we had—an unfailling rush of words, conveying an overwhelming paucity of facts and substance. We were not to wonder that well-meaning men set forth such vague and contradictory statements respecting the sources of this fresh segment of our empire; or that in attempting to picture its condition and its prospects they were swamped in the depths of their own speculations, or fell confounded in the void between an old and a new community.

In what may be called the second period of Californian emigration—now in progress—there has been a small proportion of such ill-qualified adventurers as were the first to start—men whose flickering temperaments prevent any steady, reasoning view—their ideas ever varying with the elevation of over-realized hopes, or the depression of uncompensated fatigues and

* A Dissertation on the Resources and Policy of California: Mineral, Agricultural, and Commercial; including a Plan for the Disposal of the Mineral Lands. By JOHN J. WERTH. Benicia, California: St. Clair & Pinkham.

collapsed expectations. But the great mass of this late emigration has been of a better material—of men characterized by forethought, judgment, and cool appreciation of this enterprise. The more sober and truthful accounts sent back by these have, of course, corrected many of the errors of the earlier impressions made in the Atlantic section. But still there is a great deal of ignorance and misinformation prevailing; and while there are but few at present who do not acknowledge that California is destined to acquire an importance second to that of perhaps no other section of the country, there are as few who understand the real character of that region, and have found any tolerable measurement of the elements, upon the development of which the common opinion regarding this destiny is predicated. The effect of this ignorance has been in various ways highly detrimental to the interests of California, and no more just complaint has been made than that regarding the prejudice which these interests have sustained from the misconceptions existing in the government of the United States. From the policy—if there may be said to have been any—prevailing at Washington, not only have the ordinary concerns of California suffered, but she has been imperiled in matters of grave moment. Now, this should not be so, for two reasons—first, justice to California, which is a sort of abstraction; second, justice to ourselves, as we cannot *afford* that it should be so, which is a very practical idea, as soon as realized. We can be indifferent to the fate of California, or ignorant of her condition and wants, only at our own immediate and troublesome expense. So fixed and intimate has the union with her now become, that no section or State can “remain unaffected by any contingency that shall impede her improvement, or fail to sympathize in any impetus given to her prosperity. Nor can any institution, financial or industrial, public or private, escape the vibrations which a fluctuating ebb and flow of her golden fountains would produce.”

Mr. Werth, a resident of California, has made the best effort of any that has yet come beneath our notice to furnish that information which is so much in need. His pages give evidence of careful and thorough investigation. The author is a man of practical intellect—one who sees facts in their true light and natural dimensions, understands their relations, and follows them to their legitimate results. With flighty speculations, moonshine, and shadows of meat in the water, he has nothing to do. Such as the “sober, ungarished truth” here displayed may induce to emigrate to California, will not be likely to carry with them any of that orientalism of fancy so largely exported from this quarter hitherto; while those who may be induced from its perusal to stay at home, (and we doubt not there are numbers upon whom it will have that tendency,) will not do so in the idea of standing apart to witness the bursting of the most magnificent bubble of modern times.

As deserving first notice in the investigation of the internal resources and the commercial basis of the State, Mr. Werth presents the astonishing fact, that while the annual product of gold has reached *sixty millions of dollars*, the rate of interest on money, for all purposes of Commerce and improvement, is rigidly maintained at from *three to five per cent per month*, under the best securities known to the community. This he well characterizes a “monstrous anomaly in political economy—significant of serious derangement in its machinery.” It brings directly home to California “the discouraging fact that her industry has not been compensated with thrift.” What, he asks, avail to her all the bounties which nature has lavished upon

her, "if she retain within her borders no important portion of her own vast product—if she derives no element of strength—if she secures no means or building up diversified domestic interests, no power to accomplish essential improvements? If matters stand thus, she is the mere factor for other communities, without even a fair remunerating commission for the service."

It may, indeed, be seriously questioned, whether California, as a political community—whether her permanent resident people, her *citizens* (for it is to them that this question presents itself) have realized and invested, or retained within her borders in money or its fair equivalent, a commission of 5 per cent—or an aggregate of \$8,000,000 as a legitimate result of her entire mining operations, and the trade and traffic immediately connected with them, from the first discovery of gold to the present day.

It is not intended to put this forth as a limit of the active capital in the country. Large amounts have been brought into it, either in property or money; and external Commerce has contributed important profits, resulting from the enterprising operations of her merchants with China, the Islands, and the Southern Coast. But these are all extraneous to her actual products of gold.

The cause of this unfavorable state of things is the often-stated fact of the absorption of labor in the mining pursuit, to the almost total neglect of agriculture, which has occasioned the unavoidable necessity of sending one large dividend of the product abroad to purchase means of subsistence.

California gets no share of that, save the small net profit retained by the merchant and trader, after they, too, have sent abroad the expense, frugal or luxurious, of their consumption of products foreign to the State. The remaining portion of the great aggregate production being profit, and subject to the disposal of the producer, would soon settle the agricultural lands, open up their resources, and accomplish valuable improvements, if it were realized and held by permanent residents, who would find their interest directly involved with other interests of the State, and who would instinctively prefer to invest their means in congenial enterprises at hand, under their own control, or within convenient supervision.

But, unhappily for California, this is not so. The present open policy of the mining region, not only does not entice, but, in truth, does not admit of permanent settlement, and fixed location. It encourages and constrains a floating population, and invites adventurers for a season. And this portion (the savings of the business) follows the first and goes to swell the steamers' manifests, or to make up the heavy item of "well-filled buckskins, carried home by miners without registry," to be invested elsewhere.

As the remedy for these things, a new policy is demanded. Under a proper system, the basis of which the course of the treatise develops, the better results will be that—

The profits of the miner will seek investment in her agricultural lands, in her Commerce, and in her improvements. Her farmers will find ready markets in the mines, cities, and villages. Her merchants will no longer be mere agents—crowding the markets, and encouraging extravagance and frightful waste at one season, and at another, holding an insufficient supply at enormous rates. Their own capital will enable them to order and purchase, and (if need be) hold their heavy stocks, to meet and arrest inordinate fluctuations. The consumer will be furnished at all times, at an approximation at least to regular prices; and he will thus be enabled to estimate, with tolerable accuracy, his necessary expenses, and the cost of any projected operation. In a word, her markets, instead of being mere gambling shops, (for their highly speculative character justifies the term,) will become well-regulated marts of Commerce.

The second and third chapters are devoted to *surface mining*. On this

subject the writer declares, what is evident, that too wide a margin of calculation, as to individual product and probable profit, has been indulged both at home and abroad. An equal distribution of product in mining operations is impossible, yet the gains have been far more evenly divided than is generally supposed. In regard to the varying accounts of the degree of success attained, the cases of enormous gains are frequently overstatements of the fact, and "generally deceptive, because while large amounts of gold are stated to have been taken out in 'a few days,' the parties furnishing the information omit to state, perhaps sometimes *remember to forget*, that they were engaged in unproductive preliminary labor for a few weeks, to enable them to reach the glittering pocket that yielded such a heavy *per diem* when found." Others "will insist on looking at the actual result of their labors through the inverted medium of their sanguine 'calculations' when they left home. They will not come down to dollars and cents, and *sobberly compare the result of their labors here with any reward of mere labor in the Atlantic States.*" Of the accounts alluded to, he says, a feeling of amazement "has been frequently aroused by the reflection from the Atlantic board, as it brought back to a quiet observer in the gulches, and amid the realities themselves, these fanciful sketches of dazzling light and murky shade which have given their tone to public sentiment. There were no mild and mellow tints in these artistic views. The glare of meridian, and the impenetrability of midnight darkness, monopolized the canvas, without ever blending their hues." Mr. Werth estimates the gross product of the surface mines for last year at \$750 per man, and the clear net savings that could be made at \$400.

Respecting the expense of reaching California, and the discomforts and privations in the mines, put forward as insurmountable obstacles, and really very serious, the first has been, and will continue to be, very much reduced, while the latter has been modified, and under a system favorable to permanent settlement, will be entirely removed. The prejudice attaching to the mountain climate from the very unusual winter of 1849-50 is altogether unjust. The average winter climate is no more unpleasant in the mining region than in any State on the Atlantic side, north of Georgia. The winter of the extreme northern region is milder than that of New England, or even the Middle States. The regularity and variety of supplies now furnished by the competition of trade to the various settlements, and the increased comfort of the buildings occupied by the miners, indicate that "the period of privation and suffering is fast passing away."

Of the permanence of surface mining Mr. Werth entertains no doubt, and that it will for a long time to come yield better returns than the profits of labor generally in any other part of the world. The discovery of new placers has been constantly going on from the first opening at Sutter's Mill, in May, 1848, to the last day's intelligence from the mines, and the geological and topographical structure of the region makes it certain that the general surface of the valley, and to a great extent the mountains also, adjacent to the auriferous quartz veins, is impregnated more or less with the precious deposit. The area that can be profitably worked can be estimated only by thousands of miles, and even those which the miners now pass by as unworthy attention, will in a short period pay better wages to mere labor than any occupation they can follow elsewhere is now paying, or is ever likely to pay. Moreover, the washing heretofore has been most wastefully conducted. Within his own observation, places where gold has been found in very minute

and very thin scales—which he omits to mention is the most valuable form in which gold is found, and is precisely where a good smelter would extract the largest quantity, the gold being reduced to that state by its own abrasion—he is satisfied that not one-half the deposit was saved. In evidence of the inexhaustibility of the placers he mentions the important fact that of even the earliest and richest locations heretofore worked, very few are yet abandoned. Many of them are, indeed, yielding, under improved modes of operating, and with moderated expenses, as much profit as when first discovered. Take the returning emigrants as met with, whether pleased or disgusted with the country, and they will admit that there is gold ground enough now known, *but rejected*, to employ every man in the mining region for years to come at a rate of product of two dollars per day, under the present system of mining. All this immense area, however, they will insist is utterly worthless, because it will never be worked. Against this, we are told, that “two years ago men turned their backs upon placers that were yielding ten dollars per day—they thought they could not afford to work them, because it required more than half of this to pay the cost of living. *Now*, no prudent miner would desert a spot that yields three dollars per day—he can live comfortably for one.” Two years hence, the cost of living will be reduced to at least fifty cents per day. The present aggregate product of sixty millions, Mr. Werth thinks will be sustained, if it shall not be increased.

This portion of the subject concludes with an allusion to Indian depredations and outrages. Thousands of miners were hemmed within narrow and unproductive limits during the whole of last winter, because of the peril of explorations beyond populous settlements. Means of repressing these savages are imperiously demanded. To the objection that the miners were the aggressors, an unanswerable argument is confronted, in the question, Why Congress should “tax its time and ingenuity to digest a scheme for appropriating these very lands—for regulating their occupancy, and their thorough search and occupation by our people, without adopting the essential preliminary means to securing to them quiet possession?” No doubt Congress intend to protect the miners, and perhaps think they have made efficient provision for that purpose in the appropriation of twenty-five thousand dollars voted at the last session. But this liberality is itself the best evidence of what Mr. Werth has asserted of the information of the government regarding the wants of California. There were *seven hundred miles* of border to be guarded against the Indians, and the sum appropriated would be absorbed in the transportation within California of eighty tons of subsistence for troops, and provisions and clothing for Indian tribes, for the first hundred miles.

The fourth chapter is on vein mining. Of the extent of the auriferous quartz formation of California, no estimate is given, but the assurance is offered that any disquiet about the *monopoly* of the whole area, by actual operations, will be for many years quite premature. The only question is as to the encouragement offered to the application of capital and labor. In treating of this, all the tales of wonder that have gone abroad of late, based upon “dazzling specimens,” and supported by “incontestible evidence,” “actual analysis,” and “carefully-ascertained results,” are thrown entirely out of calculation, and the worse than idle estimates heretofore offered to distant capitalists of the general average result of permanent and extensive operations, are wholly discarded. Veins, similar to those worked in the Southern

States, he estimates, would involve an expense at present, in California, in working, of \$16 to \$24 a ton. In the present state of things, he thinks capitalists cannot be induced to enter into the business in any vein yielding less than four cents per pound, equal to twenty times the product of the most profitable veins in the Southern States. As soon as the expense of labor and subsistence are reduced 50 per cent, auriferous quartz veins yielding 1 per cent a pound, or \$20 a ton, will compensate labor and capital employed in them. The question is, therefore, merely one of time, and California is destined to furnish the most extensive and productive vein as well as surface mining in the world.

Chapter V. treats of the argentiferous and other ores. The attention of explorers has been so entirely absorbed in the search for gold, that other valuable ores—silver, copper, lead, iron, and even cinnabar—have been almost totally neglected. Clear proof is offered of the existence of these ores, and some of them in very rich mines. Some specimens of ore brought from the region of the Four Creeks were analyzed by Moffat & Co., with the following result:—

Silver, in a ton weight of the ore	\$206 40
Gold, " " "	27 90
Lead, " " "	1,500

The disposal of the mineral lands forms the subject of the sixth chapter. The proposition is started that no system, repugnant to the people of California, can be enforced, though Congress may enact it; and although this may not be clear in the atmosphere of Washington, no one of its members would hesitate to acknowledge its infallibility, after mingling with the elements that would surround him in California. "The safety of the people is the supreme law," comprehends the simple and efficient criminal code of the people, and "The protection of local interests as the miners understand them," would be the irresistible substitute for any unfavorable "digest" of Federal legislation.

The system needed in regard to the mineral lands, is one that shall encourage, and so far as it can, constrain the permanent settlement of the immigrants. That is declared to be the great point, overshadowing all others. Until this is done, the wealth of California, both mineral and agricultural, can never be fully developed. All the schemes yet entertained by Congress are disapproved of, and declared impracticable, as are all that would impose any system of taxation by license, or by excise on production, or any plan whatever, "involving periodical collections of revenue."

We must refer the reader for the details of Mr. Werth's scheme regarding the disposal of these lands to the pamphlet itself. The author gives us no assurance that should it be adopted by Congress it can be carried into effect, although as fair a system, perhaps, as any which that body might be able to devise. It is apparently to his final suggestion only that Mr. Werth attaches any real consideration; namely, the cession of the mineral lands, under judicious conditions, to the State. We are not at all disposed to deny that this is the true policy for our government and the State of California both. Among these conditions are suggested a prohibition forever against the levying of any tax by the State on the *product* of the mines, or the *profits* of the miners, *as such*—that she shall assume her own river and harbor improvements—and that she should appropriate a portion of the proceeds of the sale or lease of the mineral lands toward the construction of a railroad from the waters of the Bay of San Francisco to the west-

ern line of the State, to meet any road extending from the Valley of the Mississippi to that line. The power of taxing the products of the mines, he thinks, will be exercised in a few years, if not relinquished in this way, in answer to the demand of the controlling population of her other districts.

A source of future difficulty, if not judiciously guarded, is pointed out in the collision between the two interests of surface and vein mining. No clashing has yet occurred of serious importance, but when surface miners have exhausted the richer deposits on the flats, they will find profitable work on the slopes up to the very ledges of the quartz veins, and when the hights come to be generally occupied by the vein miners, fresh parties will trace out and occupy locations on the *same veins in the flats*. It will be indispensable to the vein miners, also, to occupy the stream beds for dams, and the flats for settlements. It is apparent, therefore, as our author states, that it would be as difficult a task to our legislators, Federal or State, to disentangle the two departments by arbitrary lines, as to regulate railroad travel by assigning one rate of speed for the locomotive and another for the tender. Both must be placed under one regulation, and if laid off in sections, they must be marked out by parallel lines, and all within the same limits, whether deposits or veins, or wood or water, must be subject solely and exclusively to the occupant.

The question is difficult, but must be solved; for until some efficient system is provided, California is doomed to remain in the condition she has thus far occupied. That effected, and the greater portion of all who come within her borders, instead of carrying away her treasures to enrich other countries and places, will settle down as permanent citizens, and devote themselves to unlock the vast resources, and develop the mighty prosperity which are waiting to be realized.

We come now, in the seventh chapter, to the agricultural lands of California. The matter embodied in this chapter equals in interest that of the foregoing divisions. The amount of arable land is such that no inquiry, based on fear of want, need be raised during the present century. As to quality, the greater part of the soil along the valleys of the rivers is richer than anything known in any sections of corresponding extent, and perhaps in any lands whatever in other parts of the United States. The instances detailed, and well attested of the remarkable productiveness of that region, we cannot find room to repeat. Mr. Werth estimates that the general average product of *fifty millions of acres* of the surface of California, under ordinary American cultivation, may be assumed at very moderately at three hundred bushels of potatoes, fifty bushels (in suitable locations) of corn, forty bushels of wheat, fifty bushels of barley, and sixty bushels of oats, to the acre. The latter grain is indigenous to the soil, and furnishes a superabundant provision of food, in autumn and early winter, to the millions of cattle and horses, and the countless herds of elk and deer and antelopes that roam over an almost undisturbed domain.

Of animal precocity and fruitfulness in California, Mr. Werth says:—

Heifers, as a common rule, bring forth at *two years old*, and sheep multiply their kind *twice in each year, very frequently thrice in fifteen months*, and bringing, much oftener than in our old States, two at a birth. Our own race is not above this powerful influence; for we have the published authority of the Rev. Walter Colton for the fact that "it is no uncommon sight to find from fourteen to eighteen children at the same table, with their mother at their head;" and he gives instances of twenty-two! and "twenty-eight, with others, probably, yet to come!" Of none other than a land of health and plenty, could these things be true.

This outdoes the tales of even Irish fecundity; and if it is so, California ought not long to want the *citizens*, of whose non-existence our author so much complains, as a very small stock should afford an abundant population in a comparatively brief period. But it might be fair to ask why have not the Spaniards and Indians generally propagated in that region at something like this rate, or if they have, what has become of them all? How is it, that the Yankee invaders found only a sparse population of only about 12,000, of all races, complexions, kinds, and degrees?

But Mr. Werth insists that his picture is not exaggerated, and he appeals to the testimony of thousands, who will confirm every word he has uttered. He declares there is no other place with such a climate, a soil so generous—nature so bountiful—institutions so free, so reliable, so imperishable; and has no apprehensions that her valleys will remain long unpopulated and untilled, when the truth is fairly placed before the world.

The last chapter, the ninth, is on the Commerce of California, which is treated in a brief space, as having better means of introduction to the public attention than the other matters considered. But while the subject is before us, we deem it necessary to the completeness of the picture to give some view of its growth and prospects, from such data as have come within our notice.

Prior to the possession of California by the United States, and the start of San Francisco as a commercial city, the Republic of Chili—the only one of the nations of Spanish descent on the continent that has preserved anything like a proper appreciation of order and systematic industry—engrossed nearly the whole trade of the western coast of the American continent. Her capital, Valparaiso, was the great entrepôt of this Commerce, the supplies of the manufactures of Europe, and the luxuries of Asia, being thence distributed to the Pacific coast and islands. This commercial importance had been secured by a wise policy, encouraging foreign merchants to settle or establish branches of their business there, a system of bonding and warehousing foreign goods to facilitate the completion of assorted cargoes, and other measures, which have overcome some natural disabilities, that of a somewhat exposed harbor being among them.

The imports and exports of Chili during the years 1849, 1850, and 1851, were as follows:—

Years.	Imports consumed.	Exports of domestic produce.	Foreign merchandise re-exported.	Total exports.
1849.....	\$10,722,840	\$10,603,404	\$1,033,817	\$11,637,221
1850.....	11,789,703	11,592,452	1,179,227	12,771,679
1851.....	15,884,972	12,146,391

The following statement shows with what countries this Commerce was carried on, and the importance of the trade with each country, in 1849:—

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.
California.....	\$20,523	\$1,835,460
Peru.....	1,286,172	839,743
Bolivia.....	447,225	128,877
Mexico.....	128,053	4,407
Central America.....	118,834	13,407
New Grenada.....	118,834	23,327
Ecuador.....	140,620	44,508
Polynesian Isles.....	3,665	63,976
Spanish America and Pacific Islands .	\$2,263,926	\$2,953,705
China.....	226,773	63,597
Total Pacific trade.....	\$2,490,699	\$3,017,302

United States.....	\$1,070,822	\$1,754,428
Brazil.....	198,257	8,061
Argentine Confederation.....	171,753	37,886
Uruguay.....	1,478	69,907
Atlantic ports.....	\$1,442,310	\$1,870,282
Total with American countries	\$3,702,571	\$4,760,011

The Commerce with European countries was as follows :—

England.....	\$4,431,075	\$4,295,359
France.....	1,079,942	676,755
Germany.....	846,448	677,798
Belgium.....	222,190	17,495
Holland.....	59,971	17,495
Spain.....	151,129	2,241
Sardinia.....	98,872	33,830
Portugal.....	12,346	2,241
Denmark.....	522	18,451
Prussia.....	121	920
Sweden and Norway.....	94	606
Total.....	\$6,789,831	\$5,715,820
Total of all.....	10,722,840	10,603,404

Of these exports there were—

In copper, bars and ores.....	\$2,780,329
In silver.....	3,223,633
In gold-dust.....	263,070
Total.....	\$6,267,032
Exports to California—flour, grain, &c.....	1,385,460
Total.....	\$8,102,492

The latter sum constitutes above three-fourths of the whole export. Of the exports of agricultural products, the amount shipped to California in several years was, in 1848 \$250,193; 1849 \$1,835,460; 1850 \$2,448,868.

Showing who feeds California and draws away her wealth, while she is neglecting her own luxurious valleys to wash over the glittering sands of the flats.

In all the markets of this Chilian trade, California has equal access, and has far greater resources, when developed, to found a Commerce upon. What she has already done, in comparison with Chili, will be seen in the statements following.

The point in this connection to which we wish to call especial attention, is the trade with China. In this important and highly interesting branch of her traffic, California has made remarkable strides, and is destined to achieve in it no insignificant part of all her future commercial greatness, however magnificent may be that result. The import of last year from China is stated at about eight hundred thousand dollars, having reached an extent nearly four times as large as that of Chili with the same empire. California is fast becoming the factor of the Pacific South American nations in this Chinese trade, an office which Chili has heretofore held exclusively to herself. The amount of dutiable goods imported into San Francisco from China, and *re-exported*, without paying duty, during the several quarters of the year commencing October 1, 1850, and ending September 30, 1851, was as follows :—

For the quarter from 1st October to 31st December, 1850.....	\$2,992
For the quarter from 1st January to 31st March, 1851.....	2,950
For the quarter from 1st April to 30th June, 1851.....	19,579
For the quarter from 1st July to 30th September, 1851.....	31,000
Total for the year.....	\$56,521

The extent to which this Commerce with China may be pushed is indefinite. The whole Western America is within the grasp of California, and will soon be made subsidiary to its development. On the Pacific she has no rival—Chili is already long distanced. When the great Pacific Railway is opened, San Francisco will become the entrepôt of that trade for the whole United States, and will be the medium of at least a portion of European intercourse with the Celestials. But it is not with China only, but other portions of Asia—with the Indies, with all the islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and, when the penetrating spirit of the age shall undermine her thick walls of timid exclusiveness, with Japan—that our Pacific empire is to sustain its commercial relations. The importance of this trade is hardly to be over-estimated. It has been coveted by every nation that ever aspired to commercial greatness, and has an historic fame, as the nursery of empire that runs back into the very streams of unexplored tradition, and gleams in the tales of Oriental genius. Tyre, the first emporium of this trade, was made by it the richest and proudest city of the world. Nebuchadnezzar razed her to her foundations, and it at once restored her to her former pre-eminence. Balbec, Palmyra, Alexandria, Constantinople, Genoa, Venice, Lisbon, and Amsterdam, have each successively risen to the pinnacle of commercial grandeur, and almost exclusively upon the wealth derived from the East. A great part of the supremacy of London has been drawn from the same source. We come in last to enjoy this life-inspiring traffic, and are doubtless to reap a richer harvest than them all, in the deluge of spices and aromatics, silks and fine cottons, precious stones, porcelains, and teas. We shall have what no nation has had before, at least to make available, what has been the principal agency of carrying it on, and is the best medium for the purpose—abundance of gold and silver. Of these metals, Jacobs estimates India and China have received from Europe since the 15th century \$2,100,000,000. The “beginning of the end” is already seen in the first results of our late visitations to those regions. The British trade has declined in that quarter, while ours has rapidly advanced. Our fast clippers, built since the commencement of the California era, have entered into successful competition with the English ships for the English carrying trade from Borneo and other Archipelagian islands, and the effect is already seen in the diminution of the number of English ships loaded, and the regular substitution of American ships in their place.

The Commerce of the United States, not including California, in the Pacific Ocean, for the year ending 30th June, 1850, is stated for the different countries and islands as follows:—

	Exports to.	Imports from.
Chili.....	\$1,422,721	\$1,796,877
Peru.....	275,728	170,753
Ecuador.....	34,925	4,618
Sandwich Islands.....	64,474
South Sea Islands.....	189,862
China.....	1,605,217	6,593,462
Manila and Philippine Islands.....	18,267	1,336,866
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total.....	\$3,546,720	\$9,967,050
Deduct amount of teas from China.....	4,585,720
	<hr/>	<hr/>
The amount of all other articles is.....		\$5,081,330

The books containing the value of the imports from the different ports of the Pacific into San Francisco, in 1850, were destroyed in the fire of May,

1851, but the value of exports from *Chili* to California, during the last six months of that year, was \$1,542,366, about equal to the imports of all the rest of the United States from *Chili*, for the full year, and the *Picayune* estimates the imports from *Chili* into San Francisco, for the year, were above half the amount of all the imports of the rest of the United States from the Pacific, excluding tea. The whole importation into San Francisco, for the year, of dutiable goods for consumption, is estimated at \$8,500,000, and the total importation at about \$10,000,000, showing the Commerce of San Francisco, at that time, equal to that of all the rest of the United States with countries on the Pacific, and nearly double in other articles than tea.

The following statement presents a view of the total Commerce of California for fifteen month, from January 1, 1851, to March 14, 1852:—

	Vessels.	Tons.
Cleared from New York for California.....	84	73,357
Arrived from rest of United States	400	138,417
Arrived from all foreign places.....	590	148,474
Total.....	1,074	350,348
The value of the 84 vessels cleared from New York in this period is estimated at		\$3,000,000
The number of steamers engaged in the carrying trade via the Isthmus of Panama and Nicaragua is 32, the value of which is estimated at.....		9,400,000
Value of tonnage engaged directly between New York and San Francisco.....		\$12,400,000
Estimated value of shipping from foreign and other Atlantic ports.....		5,787,820
Total value.....		\$18,187,820
The estimated value of the exports from the Atlantic ports of the United States, as computed by an intelligent New York merchant, will reach, for the year 1851, about.....		\$31,000,000
The cost of merchandise from foreign ports during that period, it is presumed would reach, or even exceed.....		30,009,000
Total value of merchandise from all parts.....		\$61,000,000

Below is a statement of the Commerce of all the Atlantic States whose exports or imports exceed a million of dollars, for the financial year ending June 30, 1851:—

	Exports.	Imports.
New York.....	\$86,007,019	\$141,546,538
Louisiana.....	54,413,963	12,523,460
Massachusetts.....	12,352,682	32,715,327
Alabama.....	18,528,824	413,446
South Carolina.....	15,316,578	2,081,312
Pennsylvania.....	5,356,036	14,168,761
Maryland.....	5,635,786	6,650,645
Georgia.....	9,159,989	721,547
Virginia.....	3,000,068	552,933
Florida.....	3,940,172	94,997
Maine.....	1,151,438	1,176,590

As to the exports of California, we will only restate what has been before affirmed in this Magazine, that those of San Francisco exceed in value the exports of the port of New York, and to California must therefore be conceded the rank of the *first* exporting State—and in regard to imports, it will be seen, that she is second only to New York.

The amount of duties collected at the principal ports of the United States, in the year ending June 30, 1851, was as here stated. San Francisco, it will be noticed, stands in the *fifth* place of the list :—

New York	\$31,757,199	Portland.....	\$209,030
Boston.....	6,577,540	Savannah.....	208,994
Philadelphia.....	3,667,838	Cincinnati.....	105,191
New Orleans.....	2,296,636	New Haven.....	102,139
San Francisco.....	2,120,884	Oswego.....	91,557
Baltimore.....	1,047,278	Mobile.....	76,184
Charleston.....	600,712	Richmond.....	70,235
St. Louis.....	213,832	Louisville.....	66,572

Of course, the large imports of breadstuffs, which have formed the basis of so large a part of the Commerce of California with the Pacific countries, will be cut off with the development of her own vast agricultural resources. But this event is not to be deprecated, for that country must be forever poor which is unable or fails to produce the main part of the food upon which its people subsist. It is not desirable that a trade, founded upon such a necessity, should continue. But with the cessation or reduction of this branch of her Commerce, it is not to be feared that either the maintenance or the extension of the present commercial importance of California will be interrupted. The growth of the other branches of her trade, and the development of new ones, will supply all the deficiency, and the result will be only to change her Pacific Commerce to a new and a firmer basis. With the progressive diversification of her labor, and multiplication of interests, California will gain more and more ability to buy, and will send forth a constantly enlarging demand for articles which she is unable to produce. When she raises her own wheat, barley, hay, potatoes, beef, and pork, she will find enough of the products of her mines remaining in her own hands to purchase iron for her railroads, to import locomotives—to secure all the improved implements, and avail herself of all the improved systems for working her mines and her farms—and to buy a thousand articles of necessity and luxury, now almost unknown, in her houses, her shops, and her public places, or only to be obtained at enormous expense.

In the *political* view attaching to the future of California, there is a greatness entirely commensurate with the aspect of every other feature in her remarkable destiny. Without computing the degree of her meridian influence, as a member of a Union so glorious already before her admission to the galaxy, or stopping to estimate the effect of her growth, her peculiar State elements and form, and the policies adopted for herself and those advocated for the nation, upon the other States—she has an *outward* part to perform, in a field most important, but hitherto almost unapproached. It has always been a prevalent belief among our people, that it is within the destiny of this country to introduce in the Spanish American nations that change of political ideas and social habits, which are so necessary to release them from the miserable condition in which they have been fast bound since their independence of Spain was effected,—and to enable them to attain that eminence of national prosperity and power, the elements of which are so lavishly bestowed upon the regions they inhabit. But *how* this was to be effected, was getting constantly more and more a mystery. Every effort to approach them on our part, with almost whatever intent, seemed unfortunate. It appeared at last, to the belief of many, that there was a natural antipathy between the race, or mixture of races, on our soil, and the Amer-

icanized Spanish—a repulsion springing from ineradicable distinctions in their natures, and designed to keep them perpetually separate. From this view, mixed with a certain revengeful spirit against the antagonist, whose fault alone the failure was deemed to be, came the sanguinary notion that we were to push aside and to exterminate all these ignorant, unprogressing communities—either directly by the sword, or through the influence of some incandescent emanation of the nobler *vis vite* of Anglo-Saxonism, before which the feebler spirits in our path should be scorched and shriveled, utterly unable to withstand this annihilative energy. This idea saw the commencement of the work to which it looked, in the Mexican War. But those who repudiated the theory of normal distinctions of character, with its consequences, and others, whose faith was in principles in the place of blood, beheld in that contest the inception of an order of circumstances and relations, through which our superiority should find its proper exercise in teaching the poor Spanish-Americans a better system—should freely impart to him the elements of that vigor which should raise him to become the more equal associate of his stronger brother. The grand incident of California was opened—and then, in its shade, the wise plan of the Creator clearly revealed its outlines. It began to be evident *for what* the unhappy Republics of the South had been assigned the position they have so long occupied, and been kept waiting therein. The grand conjunction of events then occurring, revealed the mode and manner of the political regeneration of South America.

But it is not to this side the Pacific that the political influence of California will be confined. It is destined to reanimate the slumbering nations of Eastern Asia, which passed the zenith of their greatness and splendor, while the world was yet fresh from the hands of the Architect, and have since reposed in the long night of semi-barbarism, while the day-light of progress has slowly traced its western circuit of the earth. Already the glory of her morning gleams as a second dawn upon the shores of China, and the cold moonshine of Celestial civilization begins to pale before its genial glow. The Chinaman, breaking down the thick walls of his indurated egotism, admires the beauties of another system, another world, another individuality. He sees the Outer Barbarism has something better for him than he knows or can know beneath his Inner Lumination. He is a denizen of California—and proves himself worthy to be such. He proves how easily the restraints of a vain and selfish policy, although of ages' standing, are thrown off, when individual common-sense is allowed its office, and how quickly, when permitted, men will turn from the artificial to that which is natural. The Chinaman stands side by side with the men of all nations in the gulches and arroyas, and meets them all as a brother in the mart. He is studying American laws, customs, and habits, and facilely bending to the character which is being developed from the great amalgam. The influence which the Americanized Chinaman will send back upon his native country will be incalculable—it will be the seed, arriving at a speedy fruition, of a new, a totally different order of things. That the hostility which has been exhibited in California toward the Chinese should triumph in their exclusion, is, we believe, in the present state of things there, and of opinions elsewhere, utterly impossible. But while we regret the inimical spirit with which they have been met, we are something reconciled to its exhibition for the opportunity it gave for the rebuke of *American* narrow-mindedness by those before regarded by us as exclusive, bigoted, and dwarfed in idea above all men. The

reply of the Chinamen to the disparagements of Governor Bigler, is a paper than which, we venture to say, neither Americans in China, nor any other misappreciated and wronged people in any place whatever, could have elaborated a better. The gubernatorial assailant of the Chinamen is routed, horse, foot, and dragoons, and that by means so plain, so simple, appealing so directly throughout to common-sense, that there is not room left for a single evasion or turn. Could the Governor have read this document before issuing his missive, we doubt if the latter would ever have seen light. As it is, it is undoubtedly better that the two papers, the error and antidote, have been published together.

It cannot be long before a new day will burst also upon Japan—and the tawdy grandeur of that empire—its petrified policies of millennial ages—its fossilated ideas—its curtailed and hide-bound humanism, will, along with the cast-off shell of old custom in the universal East, be consigned to the antique shelf of the historic museum. Perhaps a new wave of civilization, flowing upon the surface of the tide-elevation created by the first, will start forward from that glorious region, and make another western circuit of the earth.

In the course of this progress, let us not suppose *we* have nothing to change. Theories now current in Politics and in poor, baffled Science, will be summarily shaken in pieces. So rapid will be the work beyond all over-turnings of error ever before made, that astute professors will suddenly find themselves in woful bereavement of their ideas—and authors reposing on the delighted anticipation of an achieved immortality of centuries' length, will behold the whole fabric of their fame swallowed up in a night. That knowledge of the general Humanity, breaking down the shallow distinctions of race once dividing the whole earth into selfish clans and sects, cribbing and dwarfing the growth of every good impulse, and chaining the wheels of human progress—those new truths, new thoughts, and new results, which have been elicited from the commingling in equality, of people of different birth in the Atlantic region—are to be developed in much swifter expansion on the Pacific. What we shall see *there* will teach us the lesson which has been *here* only partially recognized—that there is nothing in blood and in essential peculiarities of race, giving one part of the family a tendency to growth and glory, and another an irrepressible proclivity to abasement and extinction. All these follies we shall cast into the same oblivious reservoir in which we buried, three-fourths of a century since, the venerable errors honored in Europe time out of mind. We shall come to the practical Christian doctrine of regarding all Men as children of one Father—created of one blood—members of one family—all of whom, the greatest misfortune has ever been the existence (at least, the continuance beyond any necessity) of the narrow feelings that limited their affections and fellowships to little nationalities and clan-ships, regarding as enemies, aliens, inferiors, outside-barbarians, all beyond—and whose greatest stride forward is that which breaks down the prejudices that build these miserable partitions—shows us our mutual capacities and interests, and teaches us that we can labor with far better success in the sociability of our general nature than in the petty exclusiveness and shriveled idea of our feeble isolations.

ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE DANUBE.

THE largest of the important rivers which flow into the Black Sea is the Danube, which, for its length, and the many rich and populous countries through which it passes, as well as for the amount of its navigation, may be eminently called the Mississippi of Europe.

From its source to its mouth it is nearly 2,000 miles in length, and receives some 30 navigable rivers and a vast number of tributary streams.

From its source to its mouth, it descends 2,178 feet, yet its descent is so gradual that its early rapids are, near Oresova, where it leaves the Austrian dominions, and its cataract there, called the "Iron Gate," is very picturesque.

The steam navigation of the Danube may be said to commence at Vienna. Steamers go as far as Presburg; at Pesth it is also navigated by vessels or boats not drawing more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

In its progress through Turkey, it varies in breadth from 1,400 to 2,100 yards, and its average depth is upwards of 20 feet. Ships of large size ascend it as far as Siliztra, and vessels of 300 tons go to Galatz.

Its mouth is much obstructed with sand-banks, and of the five passages through which it flows into the Black Sea, one only, that of Sulina, has sufficient depth of water to permit of the navigation.

The delta of the Danube is a vast swampy flat, interspersed with lagoons covered with bulrushes; and the bar of Sulina has only from 10 to 12 feet of water.

The navigation is said also to be annually more and more obstructed by fresh accessions of mud and sand, which the current has not sufficient strength to carry away.

Were it not for its falls, at the "Iron Gate," this great river would be navigable, by one means or another, from its mouth to Ulm, in Wirtumburg. At these falls, a land carriage of some 8 or 10 miles joins the lower with the upper navigation.

It was a favorite project of uniting the Danube with the Rhine, whose mouth is in the North Sea, which of late years has been effected, and the result must eventually be an extensive increase of the Commerce of both rivers.

But the history of the Commerce of all great rivers may be best told in stating that of the chief cities or towns near its mouth. As of the Mississippi, the trade of New Orleans is the best statement of its Commerce; so of the Danube, the trade of Galatz comprises the greater part of the traffic of this great European River.

The following statistics are furnished by Mr. Negropont, a Greek gentleman holding the office of Vice-Consul of the United States at Galatz; and he being a merchant, and desirous of making the Commerce of the ports under his jurisdiction known to the mercantile community of our own great marts, with a view to its participation in it, his reports may be entirely confided in.

It will be perceived that in 1849 no less than 588 vessels loaded cargoes at Galatz, and that in 1850, the number was 391; that the imports of 1849 valued more than \$2,000,000, the exports, \$2,600,000; that in the year following, the imports \$2,100,000, and the exports, \$2,300,000; and this

principally from consumption in the two Turkish Provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia. The details of this Commerce, as given by Mr. Negropont, cannot but be greatly interesting to commercial men, and they are given in the hope that they may prove useful.

"It is only since 1825 and '26," says Mr. Negropont, "that the Commerce of Galatz and Ibraila has begun to develop itself. Previous to the last war, between Russia and Turkey, the trade and navigation of the Danube was unimportant; between Galatz and Ibraila there were few European houses of Commerce; now the number is considerable. What is surprising, is the great increase of the trade directly with England, which country formerly purchased the products of the Danubian Provinces at Trieste and Marseilles. English vessels now visit the Danube to the number of 60 to 80 a year, computing miscellaneous commodities of the consumption of the Provinces, and conveying away grains of different kinds, tallow, preserved meats in cannisters, some fruits, and potash."

"English manufactures are very abundant in the Danubian Provinces, (Wallachia and Moldavia,) of which Galatz and Ibraila are the chief ports. These are ordered by houses being in direct communication with the manufacturers in England, and are suited to the tastes and demands of the inhabitants."

This is one great secret of the success of British manufactures in foreign countries, and especially in the "East," where English consuls, being themselves merchants, are required to send to England specimens of the native manufactures; these are, by the proper commercial and consular bureau, laid open for the inspection of the manufacturers, and in a short space of time goods much superior to that of the native looms, and much cheaper, are offered for sale to the community requiring them. Then competition sets in; other houses, not consular-commercial, profit by the information thus conveyed to the public at large; and soon *quality* is lost in the endeavor to undersell other firms. In this manner, American cotton goods, the original occupiers of the field, have been almost entirely driven out of the market.

Of the mouths of the Danube, Mr. Negropont observes, that the whole and chief difficulty of the navigation of the Danube is, that at its mouth the water is not always of a sufficient depth to admit large vessels, and is only navigable for those of medium size; so much so that few vessels can enter the river without having to lighter at its mouth, near Sulina.

This obstruction, to which vessels are subject, is a great evil to Commerce. Conceive the inconvenience of vessels arriving at Sulina with their freights on board, ready to put to sea; the water proves too shallow, and a great portion of the load must be discharged into boats which are always ready there for such cases. This is an inconvenience, loss of time, and of their excessive prices, which the lighterers demand; and, thirdly, the great danger there often is of wetting the cargo by the operation, and even of having portions of it stolen.

Sulina produces but a small quantity of grain, and yet considerable is exported from it annually,—the fruits, no doubt, of the illicit acts of those engaged in discharging and lightering vessels which cannot otherwise cross the bar.

The Sulina mouth is inaccessible to vessels having westerly winds, and they are compelled to be towed or tracked, (if the wind is light,) but this is not often needed. The depth is not always the same there; its minimum is

9 English feet, and the maximum, 13 feet.* The following will serve to show the nature of the stream at different winds:—

March, April, May.....	English feet	9
June and July.....		11
August, September, and October.....		12 to 13

During the inundations, the water diminishes in depth so much that whilst the banks of the Danube are overflowed, the depth at Sulina is the least. No vessel then of 110 tons (register measurement) can leave the river without lightering. This, however, also depends upon her construction.

On the subject of the agriculture of the Danubian Provinces, Mr. Negropont observes, Moldavia is much more cultivated than Wallachia, comparatively with their respective extent of territory. The latter contains a great portion of her soil uncultivated, so much so that her powers or capabilities of producing are as yet unknown, whilst those of Moldavia have been proved.

Were the soil of Wallachia as much cultivated as that of Moldavia, on the Danube, she could produce six times as much grain as is now produced by her rival neighbor. And yet Moldavia needs an improved system of agriculture, by which means her export Commerce would be also augmented. The evidence of this, it suffices to know that after a crop of grain has been reaped the land is permitted to be sterile, for at least two years, which is thought indispensable, and then resown with grain. The dressing of the cattle, which collects in the winter season, is thrown into the nearest stream, or in some useless spot, on account of the idea entertained that it would injure the crops if thrown on the fallow ground; and this perhaps is so, for they never plow the soil deeper than three or four inches, and in covering it with a dressing so shallow the dampness might escape with greater facility, and thus injure the crop. Notwithstanding, it has been observed that where the cattle graze there is an advantage to the crop. It is, however, but little probable that an amelioration will be made in the agriculture of the Provinces; and the greatest reason for this is the system of serfage in them. The serf being obliged to work a certain portion of land for his master the Bayard, he wishes to get through it as quickly and as easy as possible, without caring whether his work is well done or not.

Another cause which prevents this is the custom of leasing lands only for three years, which prevents the farmer from introducing improvements. Yet it is proper to observe, that, latterly, some Bayards have introduced machinery from England for beating out grain. The usual method as used in the Provinces, for separating the grain from the chaff, is to place a quantity of grain in the straw in an inclosure, which from ten to fifteen horses are turned and driven round, until all the grain on the ground is damp; and if the season is a wet one during the harvest all the grain will be so.

The machine for beating out the grain produces 20 per cent more of the same quality of straw, besides the facility of working under cover, and that also of having dry grain.

The system of cultivation is nearly the same in Wallachia, only that it is

* This is doubtless owing to the winds. If strong from the east it rises, or descends, if westerly. The same occurs in the Bosphorus, and the current, which is generally into the Marmora, is turned into the Black Sea, by southerly winds.

less advanced. The quantity of the grain in both the Provinces is not increased; and on a calculation of different seasons, not half of the grain of Moldavia can be sent to England; the remainder being of too inferior a quality, or in too bad a condition; and for the same reason not more than a fourth of the grain of Wallachia can be shipped to England.

Formerly the inferior grain of Moldavia and Wallachia found an easy sale in Constantinople, but since 1842, when the exportation of Turkish grain was permitted by the government, the quantity produced in Turkey has so much increased, that Constantinople is now abundantly supplied from its own vicinity, and the cultivators of Wallachia and Moldavia must find means of improving the grains or they will soon find it difficult to dispose of it. In neither Province is it now customary to put the grain in holes in the ground, as formerly, for safe keeping, and consequently it has not the smell which in former times did so much injury to its sale.

It is surprising that though the quality of wheat and barley is generally very inferior, the Indian corn (maize) of Moldavia is considered to be the very best in the world.

The quantity produced has greatly increased in the last few years, and if it were needed for England, at the price of 24 shillings, or more, delivered in England, the production would be greatly augmented.

The following table will serve to show the quantity of grain, of different kinds, exported from the two chief ports of Moldavia and Wallachia, in the last 12 years:—

Year.	GALATZ.			IBRAILA.			Grand Total.
	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Total.	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Barley.	
1837	98,380	86,964	185,344	75,792	24,313	28,142	128,247
1838	171,813	58,374	230,187	61,524	37,200	106,230	204,954
1839	148,117	133,762	281,871	143,184	57,172	42,822	243,178
1840	230,568	189,037	419,605	132,596	68,586	80,145	281,227
1841	100,845	35,394	136,239	84,692	26,818	20,954	132,464
1842	154,675	93,531	248,206	160,121	10,221	73,892	244,234
1843	107,634	140,662	248,296	322,343	121,309	168,669	612,321
1844	166,535	174,023	340,558	347,888	128,221	211,972	688,081
1845	180,032	157,101	337,133	314,940	124,714	175,802	615,456
1846	110,902	336,627	447,529	327,526	163,145	177,343	668,014
1847	180,860	318,605	499,465	390,818	619,115	300,552	1,310,485
1848	113,605	143,727	257,332	159,484	292,115	193,435	645,034

The quantity of rye and of barley exported from Galatz being of little importance it is not stated in the above; nor is the rye and millet of Ibraila.

The preceding table indicates the progress of the exportation of grains in the last twelve years from the two ports mentioned in it; but the increase is rendered more evident by dividing that period into two portions, of six years each, when the following results are shown:—

EXPORTS FROM GALATZ.

Wheat, 1837 to 1842.....	imperial quarters	815,356
“ 1843 to 1848.....	“	859,568
The increase in the six last years is 5 per cent, in imperial quarters.		44,212
Indian Corn, 1837 to 1842.....	imperial quarters	597,062
“ 1843 to 1848.....	“	1,270,745
The increase in 6 years, 110 per cent, or, imperial quarters.....		673,683
Whole exportation.....		717,395

This table shows an increase in the last six years' exportation of some 50 per cent.

EXPORTATION OF IBRAILA.		
Wheat, 1837 to 1842.....	imperial quarters	667,909
“ 1843 to 1848.....		1,862,909
Increase in last 6 years 180 per cent, or, imperial quarters.....		1,195,090
Indian Corn, 1837 to 1842.....	imperial quarters	224,310
“ 1843 to 1848.....		1,448,619
Increase in 6 years, 545 per cent, or, imperial quarters.....		1,224,309
Barley, 1837 to 1842.....	imperial quarters	358,085
“ 1843 to 1848.....		1,127,773
Increase in the last 6 six years, 215 per cent, or, imperial quarters..		769,688
Total increase		3,189,087

In the last six years, the exportation has increased 255 per cent, upon that of the preceding six years three-and-a-half times. In drawing a comparison between the exportation of Galatz and Ibraila, we find that during the six first years Galatz exported Grain—

Imperial quarters.....	1,412,918
And Ibraila.....	1,250,304

Which shows that the amount of exportation of Galatz exceeds that of Ibraila one-seventh, or, imperial quarters, 161,614.

During the second period of six years it is seen that Galatz exported grain to the amount of—

Imperial quarters.....	2,130,313
And Ibraila.....	4,439,319

The latter exceeding the former.....quarters 2,309,006

The following table shows the value of the articles exported from Galatz and Ibraila each year, in pounds sterling :—

Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.	Total.
1837.....	120,213	113,481	233,694
1838.....	172,168	148,238	230,406
1839.....	280,713	297,206	577,919
1840.....	504,447	364,030	868,477
1841.....	189,036	225,610	414,646
1842.....	268,353	288,636	556,989
1843.....	225,345	449,556	674,865
1844.....	303,885	551,044	854,929
1845.....	379,797	698,680	1,078,477
1846.....	592,578	764,909	1,357,487
1847.....	775,528	1,592,944	2,368,472
1848.....	333,271	611,958	945,229

Besides grain, the only article of any importance exported is suet, of which the following is a table for the last twelve years.

Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.	Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.
1837.....	104	18,112	1843.....	22,212	43,101
1838.....	250	27,557	1844.....	20,480	43,603
1839.....	41,838	1845.....	12,683	49,732
1840.....	232	35,939	1846.....	12,423	27,102
1841.....	2,657	48,470	1847.....	12,020	21,649
1842.....	9,922	40,635	1848.....	6,207	28,018

There is also an establishment at Galatz for the preservation, in hermetically sealed tin boxes, of fresh beef, from which about 500 tons of meat is sent annually to England.

The following table shows the number of vessels loaded at Galatz and Ibraila from 1837 to 1848:—

	1837.	'38.	'39.	'40.	'41.	'42.	'43.	'44.	'45.	'46.	'47.	'48.
Galatz.....	431	517	635	645	230	309	327	509	464	644	662	397
Ibraila.....	448	451	573	661	238	411	772	875	832	911	1,553	726
Total.....	879	968	1,208	1,306	468	720	1,099	1,384	1,296	1,555	2,215	1,123

A comparison of the first six years of this period with the six last years, I find the following results:—

At Galatz, from 1837 to 1842.....vessels	2,767
At Ibraila.....	2,772
Total.....	5,539
At Galatz, from 1843 to 1848.....vessels	3,003
At Ibraila.....	5,666
Total.....	8,669

Having an increase during the last six years of 3,130 vessels.

It may be remarked that the vessels which visited the Danube during the latter period were of a larger size, and of a better class, than those of the preceding term. During the first, 5,539 were loaded with 2,663,222 imperial quarters, whilst during the second, 8,669 vessels were loaded with 6,536,632 quarters, and in deducting from the above stated number of vessels those loaded with planks, staves, &c., the medium cargoes of grain of each ship during the first period were about 550 quarters, whilst in those of the second the medium cargo was at least 850 quarters.

There are many small vessels under Turkish and Greek colors which frequent the Danube, and which never go further than Constantinople.

The following table will show the number of vessels which have loaded at Galatz and Ibraila during the past twelve years:—

Flag.	1837.	'38.	'39.	'40.	'41.	'42.	'43.	'44.	'45.	'46.	'47.	'48.
Greek.....	272	259	320	477	196	329	457	561	587	645	589	432
Turkish.....	282	358	377	412	87	133	216	367	317	500	629	247
Austrian.....	84	20	87	92	20	37	77	105	71	58	123	99
English.....	15	6	12	8	3	14	7	26	19	52	394	132
Sardinian.....	104	120	194	136	38	71	113	128	97	91	148	66
Russian.....	53	61	89	103	77	77	149	107	94	101	112	56
Wallachian.....	17	12	19	15	9	13	23	17	25	27	41	24
Moldavian.....	3	7	3	..	9	20	16	17
Samian.....	7	8	17	15	6	3	5	13	16	13	12	5
Ionian.....	38	40	53	36	23	28	33	38	41	34	29	28
Roman.....	..	1	6	1	1	4	2	9	2
Belgian.....	2	2	2	2	..	4	1	1	5	2
Jerusalem.....	1	1
Neapolitan.....	..	2	13	7	..	1	5	10	7	3	13	1
French.....	..	8	11	1	..	2	3	3	6	7	52	8
Danish.....	4	8
Bremen.....	1
Tuscan.....	3	..	3	2	1
Prussian.....	1	1	3	..	1	11	..
Holland.....	3	1	3	1	..	8	..
Sweden.....	1	1	2	5	2
Hamburg.....	1	2	..
Norwegian.....	1	..	3	..
Hanover.....	2	1	1	1	3	..
American.....	1
Mecklenburg.....	1	1
Soutien.....	1	1	1	1

The following also states the number of vessels which took in cargo at Galatz and Ibraila for England, from 1837 to 1848 :—

	1837.	'38.	39.	'40.	'41.	'42.	'43.	'44	'45.	'46.	'47.	'48.
Galatz.....	13	1	7	5	1	6	3	9	5	13	135	72
Ibraila.....	2	5	5	3	2	8	4	17	14	9	259	60
Total.....	15	6	12	8	3	14	7	26	19	52	394	132

and the following, of those which loaded there direct for England, from 1843 to 1848 :—

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Galatz.....	4	10	9	57	206	115
Ibraila.....	3	16	35	11	362	115
Total.....	7	26	44	68	568	230

It is necessary to remark that, for some time past, half of the grain loaded directly for England, is generally sent to Constantinople and Malta, expressly for the purpose of being there reëmbarked for England; and this too besides what is sent to these ports for sale, and then purchased for the same destination.

The change made in the navigation laws of Great Britain will not probably make much difference in the number of vessels seeking freight in the Danube for England.

Besides English vessels, the Austrians may, by treaty, load directly for England—also the Greeks, but the latter must touch at a port in Greece before proceeding on to England;—which, however, occasions them but little delay or extra expense. All vessels are now equally favored.

The only flag which frequents the Danube in large numbers is the Sardinian; but as there is a high protection for the trade of their country, it is not probable that it will come into much competition with the English flag for the transportation of grain to Great Britain.

The change in the navigation laws of Great Britain will not cause, but for a short time, a reduction in the freights. It is known that it suits English vessels to come out from England in ballast, and to load them with wheat and Indian corn at eleven shillings per quarter, and making two voyages to England, without any difficulty, each year; but Austrian and Greek vessels do not seek after cargoes for England under fourteen shillings per quarter.

It is true that during the present year, 1849, several Austrian vessels loaded at Galatz and Ibraila at 10s. 6d. and 11s. 6d., but the position of Austria explains sufficiently the reason which made her merchant vessels to accept freights at a rate lower than usual,—and at present English vessels do not obtain more than 9s. 6d. the quarter; no Austrian ship will accept such a freight. There are a few Greek vessels of a size suitable for a voyage to England; and as the risk is greater with Greek ships than English, the latter always have the preference, and a freight of one shilling per quarter greater. Greek vessels do not seek for freight to England under thirteen shillings per quarter.

The exportation from Bulgarian Turkey, by the Danube, does not increase, as will be seen from the following note of the exports during the first months of the present year. The greater portion of the grain is loaded from the Bulgarian ports in the Black Sea :—

Wheat.....	imperial quarters	25,422
Indian Corn.....		40,670
Barley.....		12,976

The Danube is obstructed by ice during a portion of the winter season, and it is necessary for masters of vessels to be careful not to arrive so late as to run the risk of being compelled to pass the winter there.

The following table shows the period of the ice during several years:—

1836-37.....	February 7th.....	February 28th.
1837-38.....	December 29th.....	March 3d.
1838-39.....	December 24th.....	March 13th.
1839-40.....	January 12th.....	February 2d.
1840-41.....	December 17th.....	March 21st.
1841-42.....	December 26th.....	March 9th.
1842-43.....	Remained open the whole year.	
1843-44.....	January 12th.....	February 27th.
1844-45.....	December 28th.....	January 23d.
1845-46.....	Remained open the whole year.	
1846-47.....	January 15th.....	February 13th.
1847-48.....	January 2d.....	March 1st.
1848-49.....	January 1st.....	February 22d.

It is the general opinion that the Commerce of the Danube must become still more important at its mouth; of this its development has, thus far, been retarded by political reasons or on account of its having been neglected to remove the accumulation of sand at the mouth of Sulina. It is certainly much desired that this mouth should be cleaned out and deepened, and yet there is no sufficient reason for believing that the Commerce of the Danube, by its mouth, would become more considerable than it is at present. The exportation will be limited to the produce of Moldavia and Wallachia, of a portion of Bessarabia and Turkey, in the environs of Tulcha.

It may be mentioned, that the products of Hungary are not in demand for the Black Sea, or for Turkey, but for the Mediterranean and the countries out of the Straits of Gibraltar. From any part of the Danube, above the junction of the Saave, and for some distance below it, the produce may be transported to Fuime, by the Saave, and by land carriage, at equally cheap rates, as far as Galatz; and from Fuime, the freights would always be cheaper than from Galatz. So long as the difficulties at the "Iron Gate" exist, few products will descend from beyond it. An attempt was made with rape seed above the "Iron Gate" and brought it down to Ibraila; but as within the last few years, nothing has come from so high up, it must be supposed that it was not found profitable.

The Bulgarians, for the most part find it advantageous to transport their produce to the Black Sea; and from a part of Bessarabia, it is better to transport it to Odessa. It may be remarked that in the trade between Vienna and Constantinople the plan has been made of discharging the steamer at Chervnevoda, and to transport the passengers and merchandise, as far as Kustenja, by land, by which means two days are saved in the voyage; and if this route has been abandoned, it is on account of there being no shelter at Kustenja, and when it is bad whether, much difficulty is experienced in discharging and reloading the goods; but if there were a good harbor there, the trade between Constantinople and Vienna would again go by this route, and would not pass any more by the mouth of Sulina.

Respecting the imports of Galatz and Ibraila by the Danube, during the period from 1837 to 1848, it is added—

The tables of imports given each year show sufficiently the different articles imported into the Provinces by the Danube, and therefore the

revisions of them will now be limited to English articles. Yet it must be remembered that the only articles imported, except those of England, are the fruits and oil of the Levant.

Table showing the principle articles imported entirely, or for the most part from England from 1837 to 1848:—

Year.	GALATZ.				IBRAILA.		
	Cotton spun in twlst.		Iron. Tons.	Coal. Tons.	Cotton spun in twlst.	Iron. Tons.	
1837.....	917	601	480	280	40	135	66
1838.....	1,030	1,564	1,060	20	not complete.		
1839.....	1,300	1,205	410	570	47	584	290
1840.....	1,200	1,621	803	1,454	590	683	346
1841.....	1,150	1,130	453	600	1,070	1,295	420
1842.....	1,350	1,050	685	1,600	1,930	915	495
1843.....	1,488	1,757	874	905	1,695	1,200	480
1844.....	1,880	2,197	817	1,966	2,213	1,025	560
1845.....	2,001	1,647	1,728	1,688	2,727	1,038	650
1846.....	not complete.						
1847.....	5,994	2,707	2,086	4,928	4,175	1,908	1,761
1848.....	4,181	2,946	1,315	5,065	3,540	2,394	2,781

The following table shows the value estimated on all the the vessels by the Danube, to Galatz and Ibraila, from 1847 to 1848, inclusive, in pounds:—

Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.	Total.
1837.....	86,674	10,731	97,405
1838.....	136,998	not complete.	
1839.....	146,461	47,388	193,839
1840.....	200,294	90,781	291,075
1841.....	164,114	132,938	297,052
1842.....	169,191	178,155	347,346
1843.....	187,454	177,646	365,100
1844.....	223,635	171,896	395,531
1845.....	223,978	208,051	432,029
1846.....	not complete.		
1847.....	415,007	277,219	692,226
1848.....	319,403	287,291	606,694

From the preceding table it is seen that the importation of English manufactures and spun cotton, which in the year 1837 was only about 1,000 bales, for Galatz and Ibraila, has increased in twelve years to 8,000 bales or more; and it is probable that it will increase in the same proportion during the coming twelve years—that is, in case some new misfortune does not happen to the Provinces; and there is no doubt but that so long as the exports increase the imports will increase in the same proportion.

The following details of the trade of the Provinces will serve to show more minutely the return and amount of the exports and freight for the year 1849:—

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO GALATZ UP THE DANUBE IN 1849, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures—Twist—British.....pkgs	4,820	£40 0 0	£193,680
Manufactures—not British.....	139	30 0 0	4,170
Cotton yarn—Turkish.....	30	15 0 0	450
Sugar, refined and crushed...cks & bbls.	4,504	20 0 0	90,080
Coffee.....bags & bbls.	1,489	4 0 0	5,956
Pepper.....bags	2,482	0 30 0	3,723
Cloves and other spices.....pkgs	76	7 0 0	532
Rum.....hhds. & bbls.	741	7 0 0	5,187

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Tin in bars	440	5 0 0	2,200
Tin plates	979	2 0 0	1,958
Iron in bars, rods, and sheets.	1,807	9 0 0	16,263
Steel.	44	3 0 0	132
Nails	135	0 30 0	202
Lead.	168	0 16 0	134
Lead shot.	340	0 50 9	350
Tar and pitch.	469	0 15 0	351
Alum.	51	2 0 0	102
Coals	3,518	0 25 0	4,397
Salt peter.	89	4 0 0	356
Gunpowder	5	6 0 0	30
Vitriol and copperas.	76	0 50 0	190
Logwood	630	0 8 0	252
Indigo.	8	80 0 0	640
Cotton wool, Levant.	205	5 0 0	1,025
Soap.	1,635	0 35 0	2,861
Oil olives	8,800	2 0 0	17,600
Olives.	2,476	0 15 0	1,857
Wine	47	4 0 0	188
Champagne and other wines	141	5 0 0	705
Porter	326	3 0 0	978
Raisins	1,750	2 0 0	3,500
Raisins.	8,974	0 10 0	4,487
Figs.	3,669	0 8 0	1,468
Figs.	845	2 0 0	1,690
Lemons and oranges	3,500	1 0 0	3,500
Almonds.	176	2 0 0	352
Filberts.	172	0 15 0	129
Dates.	83	4 0 0	332
Chestnuts	126	0 15 0	95
Pine seeds.	27	2 0 0	54
Chick peas	264	3 0 0	792
Locusts, or carubs.	1,175	0 5 0	294
Citrons.	59	3 0 0	177
Halva	640	0 10 0	320
Rice	5,360	1 0 0	5,360
Tobacco.	1,920	5 0 0	9,600
Caviar black.	23	3 0 0	1,380
Caviar red.	64	12 0 0	768
Sardines	361	0 30 0	542
Fish, salt.	228	1 0 0	228
Polipe	14	20 0 0	280
Ciri (dried fish).	24	0 12 0	14
Aniseed.	39	5 0 0	195
Incense	37	5 0 0	185
Salep	4	3 0 0	12
Mastic	17	2 0 0	34
Galls	3	15 0 0	45
Macaroni.	44	0 25 0	55
Furniture	9	10 0 0	90
Chairs.	175	3 0 0	525
Paint.	47	1 0 0	47
Earthenware	62	3 0 0	186
Window-glass	210	2 0 0	420
Books	19	5 0 0	95
Paper, writing	34	5 0 0	170
Paper, for cigars.	49	5 0 0	245
Lemon-juice	16	10 0 0	160
Orange-peel.	49	0 10 0	24
Dressed leather	816	10 0 0	8,160
Pipe-bowls.	44	1 0 0	44
Cigars.	64	3 0 0	192

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Abba, or coarse cloth bales	297	10 0 0	2,970
Pelices (sheep-skin)	308	5 0 0	1,540
Scented waters demijohns	53	1 0 0	53
Sail-cloth bales	21	1 0 0	420
Cordage and cables coils	87	10 0 0	870
Sundries	1,500
Total			£410,648

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM GALATZ, BY SEA, IN 1849, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Wheat qrs.	173,797	£0 23 0	£199,866
Indian corn	258,763	0 18 0	232,387
Rye	60,617	0 14 0	42,432
Barley	741	0 10 0	370
Linseed	1,521	0 27 0	2,053
Rapeseed	350	0 22 0	385
Tallow and chervice cwt.	3,052	0 36 0	5,494
Preserved meat in tin canisters . lbs.	1,104,536	0 0 3	13,806
Ox hides pcs.	20	0 7 0	7
Wool lbs.	24,000	0 0 8	800
Wine galls.	106,750	0 1 0	5,337
Walnuts cwt.	2,543	0 5 0	636
Prunes	1,552	0 5 0	388
Honey	108	0 25 0	135
Planks and deals pieces	664,319	0 0 4	11,071
Masts and spars rafts	20	600 0 0	12,000
Salt (rock) cwt.	5,400	0 2 6	675
Total			£528,342

DESTINATION OF VESSELS FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME IN 1849.

Destination.	No of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Rye. Qrs.	Tallow. Cwt.
Constantinople	276	56,247	71,391	11,296	2,572
England	164	47,405	163,671	3,182
Trieste	71	24,790	9,529	38,511
Marseilles	27	17,220	5,328	5,265	480
Genoa	17	17,473	1,050
Leghorn	8	6,328	840
Cefalonia	9	3,500	3,357	573
Malta	6	834	5,487
Odessa*	10
Total	588	173,797	258,763	60,717	3,052

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTED, LOADED, FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME IN 1849.

Nation.	No of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Rye. Qrs.	Tallow. Cwt.
Greeks	197	54,222	108,645	35,854	350
Turkish	81	5,028	4,257	6	392
English	76	28,776	49,111	3,192
Russian	65	12,980	20,172	4,002	1,544
Austrian	59	25,619	45,310	6,883
Sardinian	33	25,982	4,827	3,874
Wallachian	22	3,732	7,326	286

* Wine, 106,750 gallons ; walnuts, 2,543 cwt. ; prunes, 1,552 cwt. ; honey, 108 cwt. ; deals, 1,800 pieces.

Commerce of the Danube.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Rye. Qrs.	Tallow. Cwt.
Ionian	21	7,457	8,586	3,095
Samian	16	3,453	2,878	2,769
French	7	1,179	3,235	480
Moldavian.....	4	273	3,201
Tuscan.....	3	2,632
Roman.....	2	1,215	1,092
Prussian	1	1,087
Swedish	1	1,377
Total.....	588	173,797	258,763	60,717	3,052

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO IBRAILA UP THE DANUBE IN 1849, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures, cotton twist, British...pkgs.	3,558	£40 0 0	£142,320
Manufactures, Turkish.....	78	30 0 0	2,340
Cotton yarn, Turkish.....sacks	20	15 0 0	300
Sugar, refined and crushed.....casks, &c.	5,010	20 0 0	100,200
Sugar, candied.....cases	78	3 0 0	234
Tea.....	6	10 0 0	60
Chocolate.....	1	5 0 0	5
Coffee.....bags & casks	1,797	4 0 0	7,188
Pepper.....bags	921	0 30 0	1,381
Cloves and other spices.....cases	59	7 0 0	413
Rum.....bbls.	511	7 0 0	3,577
Tin in bars.....cwt.	134	5 0 0	670
Tin plates.....cases	1,265	2 0 0	2,530
Iron in bars, rods, and sheets.....tons	4,074	12 0 0	48,888
Steel.....cases	19	3 0 0	57
Nails.....bbls.	24	1 10 0	36
Lead.....pigs	375	0 16 0	291
Iron safes and machines.....pieces	77	10 0 0	747
Tar and pitch.....bbls.	541	0 15 0	406
Rosin.....	2	0 30 0	3
Alum.....	316	0 40 0	632
Coals.....tons	336	0 25 0	420
Salt peter.....bbls.	87	0 80 0	348
Sulphur.....	8	0 30 0	12
Virol and coppers.....	700	0 50 0	1,750
Logwood.....pieces	1,308	0 2 0	131
Cochineal.....cases	4	15 0 0	60
Soap.....cwt.	1,768	0 35 0	3,094
Oil.....	10,938	0 40 0	21,876
Oil.....cases	352	0 25 0	440
Olives.....skins & bbls.	4,632	0 15 0	3,474
Wine.....bbls.	23	4 0 0	92
Porter.....	40	2 0 0	80
Champagne and other wines.....cases	455	5 0 0	2,275
Raisins.....bbls.	1,555	2 0 0	3,110
Raisins.....cases	6,679	0 8 0	2,672
Figs.....bbls.	1,180	1 0 0	1,180
Figs.....cases	1,262	0 8 0	505
Lemons.....bbls.	32	0 30 0	48
Lemons.....cases	1,116	0 10 0	558
Oranges.....	940	0 15 0	705
Almonds.....bbls.	123	2 0 0	246
Dates.....	34	4 0 0	136
Filberts.....	49	0 15 0	37
Locusts, or carubs.....cwt.	1,750	0 5 0	438
Halva.....cases	72	0 10 0	36
Pine seeds.....bbls.	2	2 0 0	4

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Chick peas	63	3 0 0	189
Rice	772	1 0 0	772
Tobacco	2,372	5 0 0	11,860
Caviar black	146	60 0 0	8,760
Caviar red	91	12 0 0	1,092
Tunny Fish	198	4 0 0	792
Scombro (salt fish)	147	0 25 0	184
Sardines	375	0 30 0	563
Polips	58	10 0 0	580
Ciri	17	0 12 0	10
Capers	114	4 0 0	456
Aniseed	176	5 0 0	880
Incense	137	5 0 0	685
Chairs	120	2 0 0	360
Furniture	13	5 0 0	65
Earthenware	207	3 0 0	921
China	8	10 0 0	80
Isinglass	5	10 0 0	50
Paste	33	0 18 0	30
Paper	16	5 0 0	80
Ink	14	1 0 0	14
Window-glass	1,566	0 15 0	1,175
Looking glass	6	10 0 0	60
Paint	81	0 15 0	61
Mastic	139	2 0 0	278
Blacking	6	4 0 0	24
Turpentine	2	2 0 0	4
Bottles (empty)	8,500	0 0 3	106
Dressed leather	211	10 0 0	2,110
Laurel berries	5	0 16 0	4
Medicine	20	10 0 0	200
Malta stones	2,000	0 0 6	50
Zambils	850	0 0 6	21
Brooms	2,700	0 0 4	45
Total			£388,596

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM IBRAILA BY SEA IN 1849, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value
Wheat	117,346	20s. 0	£117,346
Indian corn	332,532	16 0	266,026
Barley	72,936	9 0	32,821
Millet	364	10 0	182
Kidney Beans	23	30 0	35
Linseed	438	32 0	702
Rapeseed	1,411	26 0	1,834
Wool	1,411,751	0 8	47,058
Tallow and Chervice	38,132	36 0	68,638
Butter, or Mantecca	1,507	40 0	3,014
Cheese, or Caskaval	2,793	13 0	1,815
Pastroma, or Jerk Beef	1,455	10 0	727
Potash	171	16 0	137
Ox hides	562	1 0	28
Staves	2,648,239	0 4	44,137
Ropes	2,500	0 8	125
Planks	18,321	0 4	305
Total			£584,930

DESTINATION OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF SAME IN 1849.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Barley. Qrs.	Linseed. Qrs.	Wool. Lbs.	Staves. Pieces.
Constantinople*.....	344	84,546	110,599	70,236	167,813
England †.....	133	4,655	168,161	2,700	164	29,155
Trieste.....	55	11,551	46,595
Marseilles.....	46	12,127	1,976	274	251,146	2,648,239
Leghorn.....	3	3,949
Malta.....	2	2,450
Anversa.....	2	518	173,899
Ionian Islands.....	1	1,224
Hamburg.....	1	1,527
Total.....	587	117,346	332,532	72,936	488	622,013	2,648,239

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF THE SAME IN 1849.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Barley. Qrs.	Wool. Lbs.	Tallow. Cwt.	Staves. Pieces.
Greek †.....	250	61,832	139,313	11,475	300,556	27,953	1,494,331
Turkish §.....	120	27,103	13,457	51,743	3,116	120,000
Austrian.....	74	10,082	87,309	120,780	84,110
English 	53	1,186	54,866	29,155
Russian.....	31	7,425	11,662	5,011	2,319	65,460
Wallachian ¶.....	19	4,151	7,999	2,007	4,744
Sardinian.....	11	4,153	1,143	427,920
Ionian.....	10	4,939	3,267	66,000
French**.....	6	4,187	39,432
Roman.....	5	884	287,044
Mecklenburg.....	3	34	1,377	1,557	132,090
Samian.....	2	594	1,215
Moldavian.....	1	103,374
Belgian.....	1	1,528
Hanoverian.....	1	1,285
Total.....	587	117,346	332,532	72,936	622,013	38,132	2,648,239

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO GALATZ, UP THE DANUBE, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures—Twist—British.....pkgs.	3,344	£55 00	£183,920
Manufactures—not British.....	250	30 00	7,500
Cotton Yarn—Turkish.....	79	15 00	1,185
Sugar, refined and crushed.....casks & bbls.	5,619	15 00	84,285
Coffee.....bags & bbls.	1,877	4 00	7,508
Pepper.....bags	1,175	0 30	1,762
Pimento.....	66	0 40	134
Cloves and other spices.....pkgs.	111	7 00	777
Rum.....hhds. & bbls.	1,689	7 00	11,823
Tin in bars and ingots.....cwt.	196	5 00	980
Tin plates.....boxes	3,041	2 00	6,082
Iron, in bars, rods, and sheets.....tons	2,460	9 00	22,140
Steel.....bbls. & cases.	66	3 00	198
Hardware.....	14	10 00	140

* Tallow, 38,132 cwt.; Ox hides, 562 pieces; rope, 2,500 pieces; cheese, 2,793 cwt.; jerk beef, 1,455 cwt.; butter, 1,507 cwt.; millet, 364 qrs.; potash, 171 cwt.; planks, 18,321 pieces; Kidney beans, 23 qrs.; rapeseed, 9 qrs.

† Rapeseed, 1,402 qrs.

‡ Ox hides, 562 pieces; ropes, 2,500 pieces; cheese, 4,667 cwt.; pastroma, 1,921 cwt.; butter, 1,099 cwt.

§ Cheese, 539 cwt.; pastroma, 183 cwt.; planks, 18,321 pieces; butter, 190 cwt.; millet, 364 qrs.; Kidney beans, 12 qrs.; rapeseed, 9 qrs.

|| Linseed, 164 qrs.; rapeseed, 1,402 qrs.

¶ Cheese, 507 cwt.; butter, 218 cwt.; potash, 110 cwt.; Kidney beans, 11 qrs.

** Linseed, 274 qrs.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Nails bbls.	543	0 30	814
Lead pigs	145	0 16	116
Lead shot cwt.	134	0 50	335
Tar and pitch bbls.	2,222	0 15	1,666
Alum	64	0 40	128
Coals tons	7,434	0 25	9,292
Salt peter bbls.	63	0 80	252
Vitrol and copperas	159	0 50	397
Logwood cwt.	812	0 8	325
Indigo chests	22	80 00	1,760
Cochineal cerrons	15	20 00	300
Cotton wool, Levant bales	833	10 00	8,330
Soap cwt.	1,650	0 35	2,888
Oil, olives	5,208	0 40	10,416
Olives skins & bbls.	1,419	0 15	1,064
Wine bbls.	300	4 00	1,200
Do. Champagne and other cases	809	5 00	4,045
Porter bbls.	224	3 00	672
Raisins	2,674	0 40	5,348
Raisins drums	14,400	0 8	5,760
Figs	4,415	0 8	1,766
Figs bbls.	975	0 20	975
Lemons and oranges bbls. & cases	4,785	0 20	4,785
Almons bbls.	137	0 40	274
Filberts	355	0 15	266
Dates	81	0 80	324
Chestnuts	51	0 15	38
Chick peas	140	0 60	420
Locusts or carubs cwt.	7,508	0 5	1,877
Halva bbls. & drums	1,512	0 10	756
Rice cwt.	4,882	0 20	4,882
Tobacco	1,836	5 00	9,180
Caviar, black casks	36	60 00	2,160
Caviar, red bbls.	185	12 00	2,220
Sardines	411	0 30	612
Fish, salt	645	0 20	645
Polipe	35	20 00	700
Ciri, (dried fish mille	158	0 12	95
Aniseed bbls.	14	5 00	70
Incense cases	144	5 00	720
Mastic	6	2 00	12
Galls barrels	22	15 00	330
Macaroni cwt.	496	0 25	620
Furniture pkgs.	144	10 00	1,440
Chairs doz.	303	3 00	909
Paint bbls.	8	2 00	16
Earthenware casks & crates	270	5 00	1,350
Window glass cases	318	2 00	636
Books	32	5 00	160
Paper, writing	32	5 00	160
Paper, for cigars	248	0 40	496
Lemon juice bbls.	77	11 00	847
Dressed leather bales	438	10 00	4,380
Cigars boxes	19	3 00	57
Abba, or coarse cloth bales	228	10 00	2,280
Pelices, (sheep skin)	162	5 00	810
Scented water demijohns	6	0 20	6
Sail cloth bales	24	20 00	480
Cordage and cables coils	229	10 00	2,290
Sundries	1,500
Total value	£435,090

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO BRAILA, UP THE DANUBE, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures—Cotton twist, British. .pkgs.	4,140	£55 00 0	£227,700
Manufactures, Turkish.	97	30 00 0	2,910
Cotton yarn and cotton wool, Turkish. sacks	1,060	15 00 0	15,900
Sugar, refined and crushed.casks, &c.	5,557	20 00 0	111,140
Coffee. bags & bbls.	1,240	4 00 0	4,960
Tea. cases	8	10 00 0	80
Pepper. bags	1,070	0 30 0	1,605
Cloves and other spices.cases	100	7 00 0	700
Rum. bbls.	1,185	7 00 0	8,155
Tin, in bars.cwt.	52	5 00 0	260
Tin plates.cases	2,539	2 00 0	5,078
Iron, in bars, rods, and sheetstons	1,952	9 00 0	17,388
Steel.cases	26	0 60 0	78
Nails. bbls.	148	0 30 0	222
Lead. pigs	42	0 16 0	34
Lead shot. casks	99	0 50 0	248
Copper, sheet.cases	27	10 00 0	270
Copper wire	9	10 00 0	90
Tar and pitch bbls.	528	0 15 0	396
Alum.	990	0 40 0	1,980
Salt peter	138	0 80 0	552
Vitrol and copperas.	868	0 50 0	2,170
Sulphurcases	76	0 30 0	114
Tartaric acid bbls.	3	5 00 0	15
Nitric acid.	5	5 00 0	25
Camphor. cases	1	10 00 0	10
Logwood. pieces	2,903	0 2 0	290
Indigo. cases	1	80 00 0	80
Cochineal.	1	15 00 0	15
Coals. tons	175	0 25 0	219
Soap.cwt.	619	0 35 0	1,083
Oil.	6,019	0 40 0	12,038
Oilcases	343	0 10 0	172
Olives. skins & bbls.	3,948	0 15 0	2,961
Wine bbls.	211	4 00 0	844
Champagne and other wine.cases	1,037	5 00 0	5,185
Raisins. bbls.	1,925	0 40 0	3,850
Raisinscases	1,609	0 8 0	644
Figs. bbls.	831	0 20 0	831
Figs.cases	1,020	0 8 0	408
Lemons and oranges. bbls. & cases	856	0 20 0	856
Almonds. bbls.	120	0 40 0	240
Filberts	58	0 15 0	44
Dates.	10	0 80 0	40
Peaches, dried. baskets	10	5 00 0	50
Locusts, or carubscwt.	1,380	0 5 0	345
Halva.cases	60	0 10 0	30
Pineseed. bbls.	90	0 40 0	180
Chick peas	151	0 60 0	453
Rahat	2	5 00 0	10
Tobacco.cwt.	1,489	5 00 0	7,445
Caviar, black. bbls.	75	60 00 0	4,500
Caviar, red	92	0 20 0	92
Sardines.	158	0 30 0	237
Scombre.	283	0 25 0	354
Tunny fish.	289	0 80 0	1,156
Polips	47	10 00 0	470
Aniseed.	73	5 00 0	365
Fennelseed.	14	3 00 0	42
Ricebags	199	0 20 0	199
Incense bbls.	145	5 00 0	725

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Rosin.....	100	3 00 0	300
Chairs.....doz.	132	3 00 0	396
Earthenware.....crates	358	5 00 0	1,790
Window glass.....boxes	8,710	0 15 0	6,533
Looking glass.....cases	6	10 00 0	60
Paper.....	90	5 00 0	450
Paint.....bbls.	53	0 15 0	40
Mastic.....	44	2 00 0	88
Bottles, empty.....baskets	147	0 20 0	147
Iron beds.....pieces	13	4 00 0	52
Iron safes.....	9	10 00 0	90
Leather, dressed.....bundles	422	10 00 0	4,220
Bath bricks.....bbls.	3	2 00 0	6
Bricks.....mille	15	0 20 0	15
Porter.....bbls.	276	0 40 0	552
Blacking.....	1	0 80 0	4
Pickles.....cases	20	0 30 0	30
Ink.....bbls.	3	0 20 0	3
Paste.....cases	14	0 18 0	13
Medicine.....	7	10 00 0	70
Cigars.....	1	10 00 0	10
Empty jars.....pieces	187	0 10 0	94
Pipe bowls.....cases	8	0 20 0	8
Gallnuts.....bbls.	2	5 00 0	10
Zambils, (hand baskets).....pieces	2,220	0 00 6	56
Brooms.....	2,695	0 00 4	45
Total value.....			£463,615

DESTINATION OF VESSELS FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME, IN 1850.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Quarters.	Ind. Corn. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Tallow. Cwt.
Constantinople*.....	162	28,779	29,322	6,162	9,201
United Kingdom†.....	133	78,871	82,810	3,897	164
Trieste and Venice‡.....	43	768	2,622	41,826	1,275
Marseilles§.....	14	11,251	3,828
Genoa.....	8	7,590
Leghorn.....	11	11,398
Antwerp.....	3	2,502	891
Malta.....	3	1,011	1,791
Ionian Islands 	1	984
Odessa and Kertch.....	13
Total.....	391	140,652	122,875	52,776	20,640

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM GALATZ, BY SEA, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Wheat.....quarters	140,652	£00 23 0	£160,750
Indian corn.....	122,875	00 18 0	110,588
Rye.....	52,776	00 14 0	36,943
Linseed.....	366	00 27 0	494
Tallow and chervice.....cwt.	10,640	00 35 0	18,620
Preserved meats, in tin canisters.... lbs.	1,291,000	00 00 3	16,137
Wool.....	9,600	00 00 8	320
Cattle bones.....tons	396	00 35 0	693

* Rafts of masts, 14; deals and planks, 403,579; rafters, 23,806; salt, 1,250 cwt.
 † Bones, 396 tons; preserved meats 44,99 boxes, and 53,375 canisters.
 ‡ Linseed, 80 quarters.
 § Linseed, 286 quarters.
 || Wine, 393 casks; walnuts, 1,214 bags; prunes, 1,261 bbls.; planks and deals, 1,546; Rafters 686; Carriages, &c., 31, from Vienna.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value
Wine.....galls.	78,600	00 1 0	3,980
Walnuts.....cwt.	1,214	00 5 0	303
Prunes.....	1,891	00 5 0	473
Planks and deals.....pieces	417,018	00 00 4	6,950
Rafters.....	29,429	00 2 0	2,943
Masts and spars.....rafts	14	600 00 0	8,400
Rock salt.....cwt.	1,250	00 2 6	156
Total value.....			£367,700

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTED LOADED FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME, IN 1850.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Quarters.	Ind. Corn. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Tallow Cwt.
Greeks*	117	56,804	38,501	20,503	8,725
Turkish†	77	1,636	16,475	1,730
English‡	50	28,624	22,503	696	164
Austrian§	40	13,404	14,343	17,622	1,275
Russian	33	7,348	3,912	4,038
Wallachian and Moldavian¶	25	7,575	8,202	2,580	476
Sardinian**	21	15,244	1,899	1,818
Ionian.....	8	3,618	2,343	711
German.....	12	4,215	11,343	810
Swedish.....	2	660	1,377
Tuscan.....	2	1,110	1,404
Belgian.....	1	891
French††	1
Roman.....	1	1,074
Serbian.....	1	1,287
Total.....	391	140,652	122,875	52,776	10,640

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM IBRAILA, BY SEA, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Wheat.....quarters	283,290	10s. 0d.	£269,026
Indian Corn.....	149,734	15 6	116,044
Barley.....	44,593	9 0	20,167
Millet.....	68	10 0	34
Kidney beans.....	333	30 0	496
Linseed.....	398	32 0	62
Rapeseed.....	1,200	26 0	1,560
Yellow berries.....	120	30 0	180
Wool, unwashed.....lbs.	205,520	00 8	6,851
Tallow.....cwt.	25,480	35 0	44,555
Butter, or mantecca.....	690	40 0	1,380
Cheese, or caskaval.....	1,722	13 0	1,119
Pastroma, or jerk beef.....	1,243	10 0	622
Prunes.....	657	5 0	164
Honey.....	71	35 0	124
Potash.....	540	16 0	432
Ox hides.....pieces	355	10 0	178
Ropes.....	3,200	00 8	107
Staves.....	527,281	00 4	8,788
Bones.....tons	82	30 0	123
Total value.....			£472,012

* Planks, 64,669 pieces; deals, 42,135; bones, 396 tons.

† Planks, 170,610 pieces; deals, 101,675; rafters, 12,510; mast rafts, 14.

‡ Preserved beef, 41,512 canisters.

§ Preserved beef, 4,499 boxes, 11,864 canisters; wool, 66 bales.

|| Linseed, 80 quarters; planks, 33,439; wine, 98,000 galls; walnuts, 1,214 bags; prunes, 1,364 lbs.

¶ Rafters, 16,296; deals, 24,460 pieces.

** Wool, 48 bales; linseed, 313 quarters.

†† Linseed, 286 quarters.

DESTINATION OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF THE SAME, IN 1850.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qr.	Ind. Corn. Qr.	Barley. Qr.	Linseed. Qr.	Wool. Lbs.	Tallow. Cwt.	Staves. Pieces.
Constantinople*..	285	127,230	60,694	42,320	25,460
England	120	83,113	64,055	2,273
Trieste	61	44,232	21,528
Marseilles†.....	25	15,066	398	205,520	527,281
Leghorn	10	12,004	1,103
Genoa.....	2	1,595
Malta.....	1	1,083
Madeira	1	1,271
Total.....	505	283,290	149,731	44,593	398	205,520	25,460	527,281

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF THE SAME, IN 1850.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qr.	Ind. Corn. Qr.	Barley. Qr.	Linseed. Qr.	Wool. Lbs.	Tallow. Cwt.	Staves. Pieces.
Greek‡.....	202	143,061	53,476	5,747	...	205,520	12,942	186,332
Turkish§.....	100	25,225	18,482	32,234	1,089	70,110
English.....	56	35,957	29,576	2,272
Austrian 	53	27,475	29,990	50,000
Wallachian¶.....	21	9,151	3,246	1,957	4,806
Russian**.....	20	11,034	1,888	583	3,060	131,449
Ionian††.....	15	8,705	2,218	808	1,765
Sardinian.....	13	10,368	2,318
Samian‡‡.....	8	3,706	1,543	992	1,798
Prussian.....	6	3,566	3,094
French.....	4	697	398	89,390
Roman.....	2	2,025
Swedish.....	2	1,539
Mecklenburg.....	1	1,746
Moldavian.....	1	1,957
Hanoverian.....	1	781
Total.....	505	283,290	149,734	44,593	398	205,520	25,460	527,281

NOTE OF ALL VESSELS DEPARTING FROM GALATZ AND IBRAILA, WITH REGISTER TONNAGE AND NUMBER OF CREW, IN 1850.

Nation.	GALATZ.		IBRAILA.		TOTAL.	
	No. of vessels.	No. of crew. Register tonnage.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew. Register tonnage.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew. Register tonnage.
Greek.....	117	1,175 21,152	202	2,039 36,980	319	3,264 58,132
Turkish...	75	714 14,195	100	952 15,543	175	1,666 29,738
English....	50	415 10,583	56	478 9,596	106	893 20,179
Austrian...	40	432 8,324	53	540 10,305	93	972 18,629
Wallachian.	17	184 2,957	21	159 2,836	38	342 5,793
Russian...	33	205 3,842	20	186 3,479	53	391 7,321
Ionian.....	8	73 1,398	15	118 2,091	23	191 3,489
Sardinian...	21	193 3,182	13	121 1,944	34	319 5,126
Samian....	2	16 275	8	73 1,091	10	89 1,366
Prussian...	5	46 1,001	6	48 921	11	94 1,922

* Butter, 690 cwt.; cheese, 1,722 cwt.; potash, 540 cwt.; yellow berries, 120 quarters; hides, 355 pieces; kidney beans, 333 quarters; millet, 63 quarters; pastroma, 1,243 cwt.; prunes, 657 cwt.; honey, 71 cwt.; rapeseed, 1,300 quarters.

† Yellow berries, 120 cwt.; bones, 82 tons.

‡ Potash, 260 cwt.; yellow berries, 120 cwt.; hides, 355 pieces; cheese, 1,097 cwt.; butter, 250 cwt.; kidney beans, 53 quarters; jerk beef, 494 cwt.; prunes, 125 cwt.; honey, 71 cwt.; millet, 63 quarters; bones, 82 quarters.

§ Potash, 192 cwt.; kidney beans, 41 quarters; pastroma, 93 cwt.; prunes, 77 cwt.

|| Rapeseed, 1,300 quarters.

¶ Potash, 88 cwt.; cheese, 199 cwt.; butter, 186 cwt.; kidney beans, 123 quarters; pastroma, 256 cwt.; prunes, 261 cwt.

** Cheese, 90 cwt.; butter, 54 cwt.; kidney beans, 27 quarters; pastroma, 331 cwt.; prunes, 196 cwt.

†† Cheese, 291 cwt.; kidney beans, 38 quarters; pastroma, 69 cwt.

‡‡ Cheese, 45 cwt.; kidney beans, 16 quarters.

Nation.	GALATZ.			IBRAILA.			TOTAL.		
	No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.
French	1	10	147	4	33	491	5	43	638
Roman	1	12	205	2	21	356	3	33	561
Swedish	2	13	259	2	11	231	4	24	490
Mecklenbrg . .	5	43	974	1	9	250	6	52	1,224
Moldavian . . .	8	86	1,683	1	12	280	9	98	1,963
Hanoverian . .	1	6	108	1	5	93	2	11	202
Tuscan	2	24	477	2	24	477
Hamburger . . .	1	7	132	1	7	132
Belgian	1	10	184	1	10	184
Serbian	1	12	240	1	12	240
Total	391	3,681	71,818	505	4,855	86,488	896	8,536	157,806

In the preceding report on the Commerce of the Danube, mention has been made of the passage of Sulina, the most important, if not, indeed, the only navigable mouth of this river. The "Journal de Constantinople," under date of May 9, 1852, publishes the following note of the number of vessels which passed Sulina during the previous year, and as it brings down the navigation to a more recent period than is embraced in the report, occasion is taken to add the note to the same:—

VESSELS WHICH PASSED SULINA IN 1851.

Nation.	Load-			Sailed out.	Nativity.	Load-			
	ed.	In ballast.	Total.			ed.	In ballast.	Total.	
English	60	246	306	305	Oldenburger	1	6	7	8
Austrian	8	146	154	147	Prussian	11	11	22	25
Belgian	1	1	1	Reuni	1	1	3
Bremen	7	7	5	Russian	3	110	113	104
Danish	3	3	2	Sardinian	19	76	95	91
French	3	8	11	12	Swedish	6	6	12	12
Greek	39	745	784	773	Tuscan	3	3	4
Hanoverian	1	1	2	6	Ottoman	613	613	457
Holland	1	1	3	Do. Moldavian	2	22	24	23
Ionian	7	75	82	69	Do. Wallachian	3	104	107	83
Lubecker	1	1	1	Do. Samian	1	16	17	4
Mecklenburger	4	7	11	6	Do. Jerusalem	2	2	2
Neapolitan	4	4	3					
Norwegian	2	4	6	5	Total	170	2,219	2,339	2,159

Among the vessels arrived in the Danube in 1851, there were 97 in ballast destined to Russian ports of the Danube, and 2,292 for foreign ports. There passed also 43 steamers under Austrian colors; the number of Russian steamers, if any, have not been indicated; nor are the English screw steamers mentioned, which is to be regretted, as these latter have commenced running from England direct to the ports of the Danube for the purpose of making quicker passages than the sailing vessels. Their cargoes are generally wheat and Indian corn, which commodities, it is here worthy of remark, can be carried to England, as thus appears, cheaper from the Danube in screw steamers than they can be taken from the United States to English ports in American sailing vessels. Among the ships which entered the Danube in 1851, 8 were wrecked in the river, and of those which left it, 2 were lost.

The report adds that the cargoes of the vessels which entered the Danube are not known at Sulina. Those sailing out of it had the following articles as cargoes, all products of the Danube:—

Wheat, 869,713 Tchetwarts, of 5 95-100 bushels each.
Rye, 123,943 " " "
Barley, 113,836 " " "
Indian corn, 1,320,591 " "
Beans, 376 " " "
Flour, 33 " " "
Linseed, 1,150 " " "
Cheese, 1,150 pounds, 244 sack.
Suet, 166,526 pounds, 310 bour, 394 barrels.
Smoked and salted meats, 142 sacks.
Raw hides, 30 tons.
Bones, 1 cargo, and 380 tons.
Candles, 5 cases.
Planks and beams, 514,510 pieces.
Staves, 199,000 pieces.
Oak timber, 6,500 pieces.
Rafts of timber, 14.
Castings, 1 cargo.

The note from which the preceding is taken, says that in 1850 1,152 vessels entered the Danube, (at Sulina,) and that 1,380 left it; consequently the number was greater than in 1851. The value of the cargoes of 1851 was not given, but comparatively with those of 1850, the quantity of grain was greater by 900,000 tchetwarts; the Indian corn and rye figure largely in the note, the former being mostly exported from Galatz and Ibraila, whilst the exports from the ports of Ismail and Reuni form only one-fifth of the whole quantity. It is worthy of remark, that whilst during the past year (1851) the exportation of grain from Odessa, in South Russia, has been less than in 1850, that of the ports of the Danube and of the two principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, as well as of Bessarabia, has been greater in 1851 than in 1850, which is readily seen by the number of the vessels being almost double.

In terminating the present report of the trade of one of the greatest rivers of Europe—indeed, of the world—it may not be wholly without utility to add a price current, of a recent date, of grain at Constantinople, where the prices of the grains do not differ much from those of the ports of the Danube. Under date of May 14, 1852, the "Journal de Constantinople" publishes the following:—

Wheat (hard) of Azof, the kilat of 55 lbs.piastres	20½	to 21
Wheat " Bessarabia	20½	21
Wheat " Roowdy	18	18½
Wheat " Galatz	19	19½
Wheat " Odessa	20	20½
Wheat (soft) Ibrail	15	16
Wheat " Galatz	18	18½
Wheat " Roowdy	17½	18
Indian corn of Roowdy	12½	12½
Indian corn of Bessarabia	13	13½
Indian corn of Ibraila	12	12½
Indian corn of Galatz	13	13½
Barley of Ibraila	9½	9½
Rye of the Crimea	11½	12
Oats	6½	7

The Turkish government sustains the exchange on London at piastres 110 though the free exchange is much greater, say piastres 116 in specie, and piastres 120 in the Sultan's paper currency, called Caïméhs. The piastre is worth in specie about 4½ cents, and in Caïméhs 3 per cent more. J. P. B.

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

NUMBER XXXIII.

NEW YORK.—PART II.

POPULATION—ABSOLUTE PROGRESS.

THE amount of the population of New York at various intervals since its foundation, as furnished by the estimates and enumerations of the earlier period, and later by the official returns of the census, periodically taken under the authority of the State and of the United States—the numerical increase between the consecutive periods—with the actual ratio for such times, and the corresponding ratio for decennial terms, where the interval is more or less than ten years—are embraced in the following statement:—

Years.	Population.	Numerical increase.	Ratio of increase.	Decennial ratio.
1656.....	1,000
1673.....	2,500	1,500	150.0	88.2
1696.....	4,302	1,802	72.0	31.3
1731.....	8,628	4,326	100.6	28.8
1756.....	10,381	1,753	20.3	8.1
1773.....	21,876	11,495	133.2	78.4
1776, estimated.....	26,000	4,000	20.0	66.6
1786.....	23,614	2,400 dec.	10.0	10.0
1790.....	33,131	9,517	40.3	100.8
1800.....	60,489	27,358	82.6	82.6
1805.....	75,770	15,281	25.3	50.6
1810.....	96,373	20,603	27.2	54.4
1814.....	92,448	3,925 dec.	4.1	10.2
1816.....	100,619	8,171	8.8	44.0
1820.....	123,706	23,087	23.0	53.0
1825.....	166,086	42,380	34.2	68.4
1830.....	202,589	36,503	22.0	44.0
1835.....	270,089	67,500	33.3	66.6
1840.....	312,710	42,621	15.8	31.6
1845.....	371,223	58,513	18.7	37.4
1850.....	515,545	144,322	39.0	78.0

The average ratio, according to this table, for each decennial period from 1656 to 1850 is about 40 per cent. The progress has been steadily ahead throughout, except in two instances, occurring when the United States was at war with Great Britain. Several unfavorable causes, of very potential influence, have also tended to check the ratio of other periods. The growth of the period 1673-96 must have been limited very sensibly by the French and Indian War of 1689-97; and that of the interval 1731-56, when there was the least ratio in any period of actual advance, was in like manner affected by the mortality and alarm consequent on the yellow fever in 1741-2, the Negro panic of the same years, the great fire of 1741, the second French War, of 1744-48, and the commencement of the third, in 1754. The growth of New York at this period was probably somewhat retarded, also, by the advance of the other colonies, which were drawing an enlarged proportion of the European emigration. Boston and Philadelphia, the latter previously behind New York, were now both ahead of her, and growing faster. If we had statements of the population at regular and very brief intervals for the century preceding the Revolution, there would undoubtedly be seen one or two cases of actual decline, but only in periods of very short duration; probably, as afterwards, in none of so much as ten, and perhaps not in any of above five years' length.

In the tables which follow, we have estimated the population of the city in quinquennial periods during the time embraced in the table preceding, and upon the ratios respectively attached to the periods therein designated. The figures are so arranged as to present also a distinct view of the decennial periods. In the succeeding tables, the progress by consecutive quarter, half, and entire centuries is also given, and a view of like periods calculated from the successive decennial intervals. Also, a comparative exhibit of the Dutch, English, and American periods, and of the periods preceding and succeeding the Constitution of the United States:—

DECENNIAL AND QUINQUENNIAL PERIODS.

Years.	Population.	Years.	Population.
1660	1,350	1760	13,000
1665	1,800	1765	16,500
1670	2,250	1770	19,800
1675	2,650	1775	25,000
1680	3,050	1780	25,000
1685	3,450	1785	22,000
1690	3,800	1790	33,131
1695	4,225	1795	46,800
1700	4,800	1800	60,489
1705	5,400	1805	75,770
1710	6,000	1810	96,373
1715	6,650	1815	90,000
1720	7,200	1820	123,706
1725	8,000	1825	166,086
1730	8,400	1830	202,589
1735	8,900	1835	270,089
1740	9,150	1840	312,710
1745	9,600	1845	371,223
1750	9,850	1850	515,545
1755	10,300		

QUARTER CENTURIES.

CONSECUTIVE.				QUINQUENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.			
Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equivalent.	Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equivalent.
1675-1700.	2,150	81	324	1725-1750.	1,850	23	92
1700-1725.	3,200	67	268	1730-1755.	1,900	23	92
1725-1750.	1,850	23	92	1735-1760.	4,100	46	184
1750-1775.	15,000	152	608	1740-1765.	7,300	80	320
1775-1800.	35,500	142	568	1745-1770.	10,200	106	425
1800-1825.	195,597	175	700	1750-1775.	15,000	152	608
1825-1850.	349,459	210	840	1755-1780.	15,000	145	580
Average ratio.....	113	452		1760-1785.	9,000	69	277
				1765-1790.	16,600	100	401
				1770-1795.	27,000	142	568
				1775-1800.	35,500	142	568
				1780-1805.	50,700	203	812
				1785-1810.	74,400	348	1,392
				1790-1815.	57,000	173	693
				1795-1820.	77,000	164	658
				1800-1825.	105,597	175	700
				1805-1830.	126,819	167	668
				1810-1835.	173,716	180	720
				1815-1840.	222,700	247	992
				1820-1845.	247,517	200	800
				1825-1850.	349,459	210	840
				Average ratio.....	120	480	

HALF CENTURIES.

CONSECUTIVE.				DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.			
Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial Ratio, equivalent.	Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial Ratio, equivalent.
1656-1700.	5,800	380	760	1700-1750.	5,050	105	110
1700-1750.	5,050	105	210	1710-1760.	7,000	116	232
1750-1800.	50,700	515	1,030	1720-1770.	12,600	175	350
1800-1850.	455,056	752	1,504	1730-1780.	16,600	198	396
		—	—	1740-1790.	24,000	262	524
Average ratio.....		438	876	1750-1800.	50,700	515	1,030
				1760-1810.	83,400	642	1,282
				1770-1820.	104,000	530	1,060
				1780-1830.	177,600	710	1,420
				1790-1840.	279,579	843	1,686
				1800-1850.	455,066	752	1,504
				Average ratio.....		378	756

DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial Ratio, equivalent.
1650-1700.	3,800	380	760
1660-1710.	4,650	340	690
1670-1720.	4,950	220	440
1680-1730.	5,350	110	220
1690-1740.	5,350	141	282

CENTURIES.

CONSECUTIVE.			DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.		
Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.
1650-1750.....	9,000	900	1690-1790.....	29,300	771
1750-1850.....	505,700	5,134	1700-1800.....	55,700	1,160
		—	1710-1810.....	90,400	1,500
Average ratio.....		3,016	1720-1820.....	116,500	1,618
			1730-1830.....	194,000	2,310
			1740-1840.....	303,500	3,317
			1750-1850.....	505,700	5,134
			Average ratio.....		1,734

DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.
1650-1750.....	9,000	900
1660-1760.....	11,650	863
1670-1770.....	17,500	780
1680-1780.....	22,000	721

DUTCH, ENGLISH, AND AMERICAN PERIODS.

	Periods.	Population at close.	Increase.	Ratio.	Decennial equivalent.
Dutch.....	1613-1664	1,700	1,700
English.....	1664-1786	23,614	22,000	1,300	1,000
American.....	1786-1850	515,545	491,931	2,083	3,411

BEFORE AND AFTER THE UNITED STATES CONSTITUTION.

	Periods.	Population at close.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equivalent
Before.....	1613-1790	33,131	33,131
After.....	1790-1850	515,545	482,414	1,456	2,427

The division into decennial periods, it will be observed, has the effect to obliterate the irregularities existing in the first table, so that a constant advance in the population is apparent throughout. It is certain that there has been *no period of ten years' length*, since the year 1756, in which the result of population has not been *forward*. The decennial and quinquennial periods give us also a better idea of the slowness of the progress made in population previous to that time, as compared with the movement subsequently. The largest increment is in the *last* period of each kind, but it has not, in all, the largest proportionate ratio—the periods of largest and smallest ratio, (or largest ratio of loss,) were as follows:—

	High'st. Low'st.		High'st. Low'st.
Quinquennial, (since first U. S. census,) 1790-1795....	41.0	Quart'r cent'y. 1785-1810	348.0
1810-1815 (loss)....	66.0	1725-1750.....	23.0
Decennial, do. 1790-1800....	82.6	Half century. 1800-1850	762.0
1810-1820.....	28.4	1700-1750.....	105.0
		Century..... 1750-1850	5,134.0
		1680-1780.....	721.0

PROGRESS OF THE WARDS—SECTIONS.

The following table exhibits the advance of population in the several wards of the city since 1825:—

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
I.....	9,929	11,331	10,380	10,629	12,230	19,754
II.....	9,315	8,202	7,549	6,394	6,962	6,655
III.....	10,201	9,599	10,884	11,581	11,900	10,355
IV.....	12,210	12,705	15,439	15,770	21,000	23,250
V.....	15,093	17,722	19,495	19,159	20,362	22,668
VI.....	20,061	18,570	16,827	17,198	19,343	24,699
VII.....	14,192	15,873	21,481	22,982	25,502	32,690
VIII.....	24,285	20,729	28,570	29,073	30,846	34,612
IX.....	10,956	22,810	20,618	24,795	30,907	40,657
X.....	23,932	16,438	20,926	29,026	20,993	23,316
XI.....	7,344	14,915	26,845	17,052	27,259	43,758
XII.....	7,938	11,808	24,437	11,652	13,378	10,451
XIII*.....	12,598	17,130	18,517	22,411	28,246
XIV.....	14,288	17,306	20,235	21,103	15,196
XV.....	13,202	17,755	19,432	22,564
XVI.....	22,273	40,337	52,882
XVII.....	18,619	27,147	43,763
XVIII.....	31,546
XIX.....	13,465
Total.....	166,086	202,589	270,089	312,710	371,223	515,545

This table exhibits the progress of the *up-town* movement, much the largest portion of the increase, at each census, with an increasing increment, being in that section. In the Second Ward, it will be seen, there has been an actual falling off from 1825; and the Third stands at almost the same point as at that period. This is the result of the increase of business in these localities, requiring additional room. The great increase of the First Ward is caused only by its becoming, within a few years, in one part of it, a *dépôt* for poor emigrants. Although the numbers in this ward may not vary more, within a given period, than in other wards, yet it is not to be regarded as having a *fixed* population, as the emigrants are continually moving from it, new forces being always at hand to fill the places of the re-migrating. The increase of the Fourth Ward has been mainly of emigrants, also, but of another class, being mostly all mechanics in well-paid employments. The comparison of the increase of several of the lower wards with the rest of the city, is as follows:—

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
I to VI.....	76,809	73,129	79,574	80,731	91,497	107,399
Rest of wards.....	89,277	128,460	190,515	231,979	279,426	408,056
Excess, rest of city..	12,472	56,331	110,741	151,248	187,929	300,657
I to VI, VIII, XIV...	101,094	108,146	125,450	130,039	143,746	167,207
Rest of wards.....	64,994	94,443	144,639	182,731	227,477	348,248
Excess, lower.....	36,100	13,703
Excess, upper.....	19,189	52,692	83,731	181,041

* The 13th ward was taken from the 10th, and the 14th from the 6th and 8th wards in 1836; the 15th from the 9th in 1832; the 16th from the 12th, 1836; the 17th from the 11th, 1837; the 18th from the 16th, 1846; the 19th from the 12th.

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
I. to VIII., XIV.	115,286	124,019	146,931	153,021	169,248	201,819
Rest of wards	50,800	78,570	123,158	159,689	201,975	313,636
Excess, lower.....	64,486	45,449	2,373
Excess, upper.....	6,668	32,723	111,817
I. to VIII., X., XIII., XIV.	139,218	153,055	184,937	200,564	212,652	253,381
Rest of wards	26,868	49,534	85,102	112,146	158,571	262,074
Excess, lower.....	112,350	103,821	99,855	88,418	54,081
Excess, upper.....	8,693

The division formed by taking separately the first six wards is on a line nearly formed by Catharine and Canal streets. The statement of wards I. to VI., VIII., and XIV., against the rest of the city, shows the population at the several times, below and above a line formed by Catharine-street, the Bowery, Houston and Hammersley streets. The next statement shows the population below and above the line of Grand, Division, Bowery, Houston, and Hammersley. The last division is that formed by the line of Rivington, Bowery, Houston, and Hammersley. The distance from the Battery to Canal-street is about one mile-and-a-quarter, and to Houston-street one mile-and-three-quarters. The average width below Canal-street cannot be over a mile, and below Houston it is about a mile-and-a-half. The first six wards contained, in 1825, near one-half the population of the city—now they have only *one-fifth* the whole number. The second division, which contained two-thirds in 1825, has not less than one-third the whole population. Above Rivington and Houston in 1825, there were only 26,868, about one-sixth the population—now ten times that number, and more than half the city live above that line. The following statement shows the increase above the line of Fourteenth-street since 1825:—

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
XII.....	7,998	11,808	24,437	11,652	13,378	10,451
XVI.....	22,273	40,337	52,882
XVIII.....	31,546
XIX.....	18,465
Above 14th-st.	7,998	11,808	24,437	33,925	53,715	113,344
Increase.....	3,870	12,629	9,488	19,790	59,629
Do. of city....	36,503	67,500	42,621	58,513	144,232

The following gives a view of the progressive population of the eastern and western sections of the city, excepting the narrow district below Liberty-street, which, being cut off at that point by a crosswise line into a single ward, (the First,) we are unable to divide. The balance, from its division, would be in favor of the western section. The wards embraced in this calculation are the 3d, 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th, 14th, and 15th in the western section, and the 2d, 4th, 7th, 10th, 11th, 13th, and 17th in the eastern—the line of division being along Broadway, Chatham, and the Bowery:—

	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
Western section.	80,596	98,718	125,902	139,796	153,893	180,769
Eastern section.	66,993	80,731	109,370	128,360	141,312	201,678
Exc. of western.	13,603	17,987	16,532	11,436	12,681
Exc. of eastern.	20,907

COMPARISON WITH OTHER CITIES OF UNITED STATES.

Boston and Philadelphia both at a former period exceeded New York in the amount of population. The following is a comparative statement of the progress of the three together with that of Baltimore, the four oldest, as well as the four largest cities of the Union—from the earliest periods, and a comparison of New York with the other three united :—

Years.	New York.	Philadelphia.	Boston.	Baltimore.	Three cities.	New York's per cent of the three.
1680 ab't.	3,000	4,500
1690 ab't.	3,800	7,000
1696.....	4,302
1700 ab't.	4,800	6,700
1730.....	8,628	13,000
1750 ab't.	9,800	7,635	15,731
1756.....	10,381
1760 ab't.	13,000	15,520
1773.....	21,876
1776.....	2,719
1777.....	23,734
1780.....	10,000
1785.....	23,614
1790.....	33,131	42,520	18,038	13,503	74,061	44.7
1800.....	60,439	81,005	24,297	26,514	131,816	45.9
1810.....	96,373	111,210	35,250	46,455	192,915	50.0
1820.....	123,706	137,097	43,298	62,738	243,133	51.0
1830.....	202,589	188,961	61,392	80,620	330,973	61.2
1840.....	312,710	258,037	93,383	102,513	453,933	68.9
1850.....	515,545	408,815	138,788	189,048	734,734	70.2

The comparison of New York with all the other towns and cities of the United States containing above ten thousand inhabitants, in the years 1820, 1830, 1840, and 1850, is presented in the following statement :—

	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Towns above 10,000	348,376	592,754	1,017,227	2,316,611
Do. excluding Boston, Philadel- phia, and Baltimore.....	123,015	289,310	615,951	1,581,877
New York.....	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,545

The towns and cities embraced in this statement, besides the four chief cities, were, in 1820, eight; namely, Portland, Salem, Providence, Albany, Pittsburg, Richmond, Washington, and New Orleans. In 1830, there were sixteen; in 1840, twenty-seven; in 1850, sixty-five. All the towns and cities above 10,000 in 1840 were—

Boston.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.
Portland.	Albany.	Norfolk.
Lowell.	Rochester.	Charleston.
Salem.	Troy.	Savannah.
New Bedford.	Buffalo.	Mobile.
Charleston.	Utica.	New Orleans.
Springfield.	Newark.	Louisville.
Providence.	Pittsburg.	St. Louis.
New Haven.	Richmond.	Cincinnati.
Brooklyn.	Petersburg.	Washington.

and their comparison, aggregately, with New York, for four decennial periods, is as follows :—

	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
31 towns	570,110	878,300	1,329,937	1,796,256
Do. excluding Boston, Philadel- phia, and Baltimore.....	326,817	547,327	876,004	1,061,522
New York.....	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,545

By which it will be seen that over the combined increase of those 27 towns, New York has advanced from about 30 to near 50 per cent of their population.

In the following statement is given the comparison of New York with all the towns of the various sections of the Union above 10,000.

Maryland and the District of Columbia are assigned to the south-eastern section, Alabama is made a south-western, and Missouri a north-western State—this being the most natural division. The towns above ten thousand equal New York in no instance in any other section than the middle :—

	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
New England.....	66,411	114,842	215,166	446,453
Middle States.....	141,955	251,602	394,818	969,732
South-Eastern States.....	99,585	145,201	184,997	354,243
South-Western States.....	27,178	56,278	136,075	224,268
North-Western States.....	24,831	86,171	296,925
Pacific Region.....	25,000
New York City.....	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,545

We next give a comparison of New York with all the towns in the United States of between 2,000 and 10,000 inhabitants, in 1840, and with all the town population of the United States, in places of above 2,000, at the same period :—

POPULATION OF TOWNS.

	Between 2,000 and 10,000.		Above 2,000.	
	147 towns.	574,767	156 towns.	789,933
New England.....	60 "	198,587	69 "	906,115
Middle States.....	21 "	98,982	28 "	307,343
South-Eastern States.....	12 "	41,752	15 "	177,827
South-Western States.....	20 "	37,502	21 "	140,809
New York.....	312,710

From which it appears that the whole town population of New England was only about double the population of the city of New York ; that of the Middle States treble, and that of the whole six South-western and five North-Western States only equal.

In the comparison here made of New York with other cities of the United States, we have included only the population actually resident within her limits, while for Philadelphia the amount stated includes the great population of her suburbs. The cities and villages immediately around New York may as fairly be considered portions of herself, as the suburban population of Philadelphia, or of any other city, may be included in its census. The connections with these places by steamboat is so complete, and the communication so constant and great, that the rivers and bay seem scarcely to afford any separation. Estimating these appendages New York has a population of not less than 650,000.

COMPARISON WITH STATES.

There were, in 1790, sixteen States, all of them exceeding the city of New York in population. The State to which the latter approached nearest was Tennessee, which had 35,791, New York having 33,131. Of no other State, excepting Delaware, which had 59,096, did it reach the proportion of one-half. The comparative progress of the city and the States is seen in the statements following :—

POPULATION OF NEW YORK AND SEVERAL OF THE STATES AT EACH CENSUS FROM 1790.

Years.	New York city.	Maine.	New Hampshire.	N. York State.	Delaware.	Ohio.
1790....	33,131	96,540	141,899	340,120	59,096
1800....	60,489	151,719	183,762	586,756	64,273	45,385
1810....	96,373	228,705	214,360	959,049	72,614	230,760
1820....	123,706	298,335	244,161	1,372,812	72,749	581,434
1830....	202,589	399,455	263,328	1,918,608	76,748	937,903
1840....	312,710	501,793	284,574	2,428,921	78,085	1,519,467
1850....	515,545	583,188	317,964	3,097,394	91,535	1,980,408

At present, New York exceeds fourteen of the States; namely, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and California; and if we refer only to white population, we may add five other States, Maryland, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and at the present time, no doubt (two years since the census of 1850) North Carolina and Missouri—or 21 out of the 31 States—only ten States exceeding New York city in white population. Of the white population of the smaller of these States, New York is very nearly equal to the following combinations :—

Arkansas.....	126,071	Arkansas.....	126,071
Delaware.....	71,888	Delaware.....	71,888
Florida.....	47,120	Florida.....	47,120
Texas.....	133,131	Texas.....	133,131
Rhode Island.....	144,012	South Carolina.....	254,271
Total.....	522,222	Total.....	632,481
Louisiana.....	254,271	Delaware.....	91,535
South Carolina.....	274,775	Florida.....	87,401
Total.....	529,046	Rhode Island.....	147,544
		Iowa.....	192,214
		Total.....	518,694

The increase of population in the different States of the Union, in each decennial period, as compared to that of New York city, and in the whole period from 1790 to 1850, has been as follows :—

	1790-1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1790-1850.
New York city.	27,358	35,884	27,333	78,883	110,121	202,797	432,414
STATES EXCEEDING NEW YORK'S INCREASE.							
Maine.....	55,179	74,986	69,630	101,120	436,648
N. Hampshire.	41,863	29,801
Vermont.....	69,049	63,248
Massachusetts.	44,528	48,795	51,247	87,121	127,291	256,800	615,782
New York....	246,636	373,193	413,763	545,796	510,313	668,473	2,757,274
New Jersey...	27,810	32,020
Pennsylvania.	167,992	207,726	239,367	278,755	375,800	537,753	1,877,413
Maryland.....	38,998
Virginia.....	131,892	94,422	90,757	146,026	673,353
N. Carolina....	84,532	77,397	83,329	99,168
S. Carolina...	96,518	64,524	87,626
Georgia.....	79,553	90,332	88,554	175,836	174,569	214,607	823,451
Alabama.....	165,210	281,229	771,671
Mississippi....	35,096	239,030	230,904	606,555
Louisiana.....	76,851	136,672	511,974
Tennessee.....	69,811	156,125	161,086	259,091	147,306	966,834
Kentucky.....	147,218	185,556	157,806	122,600	909,328
Ohio.....	185,395	350,674	356,469	581,564	460,941	1,980,408
Indiana.....	122,658	195,653	342,335	302,550	938,416
Illinois.....	42,929	102,254	318,738	375,287	851,470
Michigan.....	180,628

	1790-1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1790-1800.
Missouri.....			45,741		243,247	298,341	682,043
Wisconsin.....						274,246	
New York city.	27,358	35,884	27,333	78,883	110,121	202,797	482,414

STATES BELOW NEW YORK'S INCREASE.

Maine.....					99,996	81,295	
N. Hampshire.....		30,598		25,167	15,246	33,290	176,065
Vermont.....			18,051	44,888	11,296	22,172	229,004
Connecticut.....	12,861	11,040	13,160	22,463	12,333	60,813	132,650
Rhode Island..	12	7,909	6,028	14,140	11,631	38,714	78,434
New Jersey.....		33,606		43,248	52,483	116,249	315,416
Delaware.....	5,177	8,401	75	3,999	1,337	13,450	32,439
Maryland.....	21,820		26,804	36,690	22,979	113,016	263,307
Virginia.....					28,392	181,864	
N. Carolina.....					15,432	115,484	475,152
S. Carolina.....				78,444	13,213	74,109	419,434
Florida.....							87,401
Alabama.....						180,915	
Mississippi.....		31,502		61,173			
Louisiana.....				62,332		159,563	
Tennessee.....						173,415	
Kentucky.....					91,911	202,577	
Indiana.....		19,645					
Michigan.....			4,134	22,743		185,387	397,654
Missouri.....				73,869			
Wisconsin.....							305,191
Iowa.....						149,102	192,214
Arkansas.....				16,115	67,136	112,165	209,639

From the foregoing table it appears that the numerical increase of thirteen States, from 1790 to 1800, was decidedly larger than that of the city of New York—that of only four States being less. In the next decennial period, 1800-10, the increase of thirteen was larger, and of seven smaller; from 1810 to 1820, the increase of eighteen was larger, and six smaller; in the fourth period, 1820-30, the increase of thirteen States was larger, and thirteen less; fifth period, 1830-1840, there were thirteen States having a larger, and fourteen a smaller increase; and in the sixth period, 1840-50, the increase of but ten States equalled that of New York, and nineteen fell behind. Only four States, (three beside New York,) Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Georgia, exhibit in each period from 1790 a larger increase than New York city; and of the States admitted since that period, only Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois have attained as large increments of gain. On the other hand, six States—Connecticut, Rhode Island, Delaware, Florida, Arkansas, and Iowa have in no one period had an increase equal to that of New York. Maryland, Michigan, and Wisconsin have had an equivalent increase in only one instance each, and New Hampshire, Vermont, New Jersey, Alabama, and Louisiana in but two of the six periods. In the general result, if Texas were counted, (of whose population we have no statement back of 1850,) fifteen States have made a larger increase in population since the adoption of the government than the city of New York, and fifteen have fallen behind. Of the "Old Thirteen" nine are in the latter class.

RATIO OF GROWTH COMPARED TO STATES AND TO UNITED STATES.

The ratio of growth of New York, as compared to that of several of the States, sections, and of the United States, in the decennial periods from 1790, have been as follows:—

	New York city.	Maine.	Connect- icut.	N. Y. State.	Virginia.	Ohio.	North-west section.	S-west section.	United States.
1790-1800 ...	82.6	57.1	5.4	72.5	17.6	208.1	35.0
1800-1810 ...	59.3	50.7	4.3	63.4	10.7	408.7	442.0	100.3	36.4
1810-1820....	28.4	30.4	5.0	43.1	9.3	152.0	191.1	76.7	33.3
1820-1830....	63.8	33.9	8.1	39.7	13.7	61.3	85.4	54.6	33.2
1830-1840....	54.3	26.2	4.1	26.6	2.3	62.0	101.9	54.8	32.7
1840-1850....	64.8	16.1	19.6	27.5	14.7	30.3	59.1	47.8	36.2
1790-1850... 1,456.0	504.0	56.0	810.7	90.0	4,265.0	9,291.0	4,350.0	491.5	
Average....	58.9	35.7	7.7	45.5	11.4	142.9	155.9	97.0	34.5

It will be noticed herein, that while those States, which commenced with a very high ratio, have, in consequence of the growing magnitude of the base on which that ratio is computed, suffered a great decline in that respect, New York still maintains her ratio. So New York is constantly gaining upon the States, and is growing proportionately larger constantly toward the whole United States. The latter fact is made more evident in the following statement of the per centage of the population of New York at the different periods, and of the United States at corresponding dates:—

1790	0.84	1830.....	1.58
1800	1.14	1840.....	1.83
1810	1.33	1850.....	2.22
1820	1.28		

In comparing the city of New York with the States of the Union, it may be remarked that the city is not only equal to several in population and wealth, but is much more powerful, and has, although possessed independently of municipal powers only, much greater elements of *nationality* than many of them, even among the more populous. She could maintain a far more respectable position as an independent nation than could above three quarters of the States, singly. Some of the most memorable nations of antiquity were only great cities, having no country region, or but an insignificant and unproductive patch of territory.

COMPARISON TO FOREIGN CITIES.

The only cities of the world which equal or exceed New York in population are those here named:—

IN EUROPE.		IN ASIA.	
London, (with suburbs)....	2,363,141	Pekin, (China)	3,000,000
Paris	1,035,000	Suchon "	2,000,000
St. Petersburg.....	535,000	Nankin "	2,000,000
Constantinople.....	550,000	Canton "	1,000,000
		Fuchau Fu, (China).....	600,000
		Miaco, (Japan)	600,000
		Calcutta, (Hindustan)	650,000
		Benares "	600,000
		Surat "	600,000

In Europe, no other city beyond the four named is much above half as large as New York. Of the cities of Asia, the accounts are, in some cases, rather apocryphal. The Orientals have never been remarkable for their devotion to statistical subjects. They would be more likely to resort to imagination, a faculty which they are reputed to keep as a worker of all service, for what information they might desire on the matter, than to go to the drudgery of taking actual enumerations. Their princes would be satisfied with a general survey of their realms, giving them an approximate idea of

the extent of territory and density of population. Had they full statistical information, few of them would have any idea of its use, and therefore could not be expected to seek it. The population of Asiatic cities and countries is undoubtedly overestimated, yet it is certain that Asia has the largest cities in the world.

PERIOD OF DUPLICATION.

The population of New York has progressively doubled upon itself at about the periods named below:—

Numbers.	Years.	Intervals.	Numbers.	Years.	Intervals.
515,545 reached in.	1850	..	8,055 about.....	1725	40 years.
257,772 about....	1834	16 years.	4,027 "	1692	33 " "
128,886 "	1820	14 " "	2,013 "	1668	24 " "
64,443 "	1801	19 " "	1,056 "	1656	12 " "
32,221 "	1790	11 " "			
16,110 "	1765	25 " "			
			Average period.....		21½ "

If we take the period from 1790, New York has within that time doubled four times, making the average period fifteen years. From 1800, the period of duplication is once in $16\frac{1}{3}$ years. The following is a comparison with the duplicative periods of other cities, States, sections, and of the United States. The statement as to the latter and all places within it, relates to their progress since 1800, excepting Cincinnati, Louisville, and Buffalo:—

	Years.		Years.
New York	15	Washington	14
Boston.....	20½	Charleston	33
Philadelphia.....	22	Albany.....	13½
Baltimore.....	20	Buffalo.....	8½
Cincinnati.....	6½	New York State	19
New Orleans	15	Virginia.....	70
St. Louis.....	10	New England.....	45
Brooklyn.....	9	North-West	7
Pittsburg.....	7½	United States.....	23½
Louisville.....	8	London, (about).....	40

ART. IV.—THE BLASTING OF ROCKS UNDER WATER WITHOUT DRILLING.

NEW YORK, August 10, 1852.

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

DEAR SIR:—We take great and sincere pleasure in sending you the following communication relative to the new method of BLASTING ROCKS UNDER WATER WITHOUT DRILLING, which was invented by Mr. MAILLEFERT, and for about one year has been most successfully practiced in this country.

This communication will, as soon as possible, be followed by another, relative to the REMOVAL OF BARS IN AND AT THE MOUTH OF RIVERS BY DRAGGING, a method which, in many instances, has been most successfully applied in Europe, and is destined to be extensively used in this country.

We feel very much gratified for the room which you were pleased to offer us for these communications in the columns of your highly estimated Magazine, the name of which is the very best introduction to an intelligent class of readers.

When Mr. Maillefert first presented his plans for the removal of those dangerous

rocks in Hell-Gate, which for centuries past had been a terror to navigators, he had patiently to submit to the doubts and objections raised from all sides, and even to the far more discouraging ridicule, which some persons thought proper to throw over his contemplated operations.

A strong conviction and a good deal of energy upheld, however, his courage, and carried him through a severe trial to a complete triumph.

A trip to Hell-Gate on one of the many beautiful steamers that are daily running through a passage which bore its name but too properly, will now be sufficient to convince even the most skeptical.

They will not any more find that terrible whirlpool which made them hold their breath in anxiety and awe, until they got safely out of it—none of those foaming eddies, which it seemed impossible to avoid. However strong may have been their doubts, they will gladly acknowledge that a wonderful change has taken place, that if they had not known Hell-Gate before, they should not be able to comprehend how it could be thus denominated, and that the few and harmless eddies that yet remain seem to be placed there rather to improve the scenery, and perhaps with a view of recalling to the mind of those who are too quick in forgetting what Hell-Gate was a year ago, and what it will never be again. Hell-Gate has lost its terrors, and may be made the best and safest entrance to the harbor of New York, if the necessary means be found to continue operations which, from the very outset, have given such beautiful and important results.

You will, in the following communication, find a short account of the progress of the operations in Hell-Gate up to the present day; the difference between Mr. Maillefert's method of blasting rocks under water, and those hitherto used; what may be expected from it; its peculiar advantages and applications towards the improvement of our rivers, harbors, and maritime thoroughfares.

We feel it our duty, in submitting the following communication to your readers, to apologize for the foreignisms it may contain, and which we trust they will kindly excuse, in consideration of our sincere endeavor to contribute our share to the development of the immense resources of this great and hospitable country.

We have the honor to be, dear sir, with high and sincere respect,

Your very obd't serv'ts,

B. MAILLEFERT, } Submarine Engineers.
W. RAASLOFF, }

THE blasting of rocks under water without drilling for which Mr. Maillefert has taken out a patent, dated the 2d of March, 1852, is an invention which is intimately connected with the general desire for improvements in rivers, harbors, and maritime thoroughfares. We do not, however, intend to say, that this invention has been directly called forth by that desire, for such is not the case; but we feel convinced that nothing short of a general and strong feeling in favor of such improvements could have prevailed upon private individuals to furnish the pecuniary assistance which was requisite in order to give a fair trial to an invention, which, at the outset, met with so many doubts and objections, and had to encounter an almost general incredulity.

The trial has been most successful throughout, and has been carried out to an extent which at once secures to the invention a prominent place among the operations to be used for the improvement of our maritime highways.

Notwithstanding the difficulties and delays always and unavoidably attending experiments, the most remarkable results have been obtained.

The first submarine charge was fired by Mr. Maillefert on Pot Rock, in

Hell-Gate, the 19th of August, 1851, and from that day the operations have been continued in that difficult and dangerous thoroughfare, being interrupted only during the severest frost, and during Mr. Maillfert's illness consequent upon an accident which happened the 26th of March last.

It will be necessary, for a just appreciation of the magnitude of the undertaking, and of the difficulties with which these operations were attended, to give a short description of the character of this thoroughfare, and the dangers to navigation arising from the crookedness and narrowness of the channel, the violence of the currents, and the great number of sunken and visible rocks which obstruct it.

The very picturesque appearance which Hell-Gate bore in former times, and which it derived from the whirlpool called the Pot, the violent agitation of the water rushing through it, the foaming eddies indicating the existence of the dangerous sunken rocks, has inspired Cooper with some of his most thrilling descriptions of maritime scenery and daring sea-adventures.

A more sober and business-like description than those which the great American romancer has given us in the "Red Rover," and in the "Water-Witch," are to be found in some able and lucid reports from Lieuts. Com. C. F. Davis and D. D. Porter,* from which we will give some of the prominent passages.

Lieut. Davis states in his report as follows:—

"Of the sailing vessels that enter the Hurl-Gate passage, it is estimated that one in fifty sustains more or less injury by being forced by the violence of the currents on the rocks or shoals; and the accident to the Oregon, which nearly proved fatal to her passengers, shows that even steamboats, with a motive power that keeps them under perfect control, and guided by the most experienced pilots, are not secure from peril.

"Such an improvement in the channels of Hurl-Gate as would render them navigable to vessels of all classes under common circumstances, would supply to the Commerce of New York a new outlet to the sea—one in a different direction from the harbor channels, and available when those were temporarily closed by adverse winds or other causes—and would therefore be a permanent and valuable resource both for those vessels outward bound and for those returning home.

"But a still more serious consideration is that of the increased facilities for naval defense which this improvement would afford. In the event of a rupture with a naval power, there can be no doubt that the attempt in the last war to ravage the shores of Long Island Sound, and to prey upon its domestic Commerce, will be repeated. The means of resisting or preventing such hostilities must be drawn chiefly from New York; and if the Hurl-Gate passage be made secure, not only our largest men-of-war, but our steamboats of a superior class, which, on such occasions, would be armed for the purpose of defence, would be at once enabled to hasten to the scene of danger.

"The steamboats are now constantly passing through Hurl-Gate; but the difficulties of the passage would to them be seriously increased if they were pressed down by a naval armament and equipped for action.

"During the war with Great Britain our frigates were blockaded in the harbor of New York, which could not have been the case if the Hurl-Gate passage had been open. Commodore Decatur ventured to carry his squadron through, but with such risk that the attempt with a frigate was only made once afterwards, notwithstanding the constantly recurring necessity.

* Rep., made by Lieut. Com. C. F. Davis, of survey of Hurl-Gate channel, and communicated to the Chamber of Commerce of the city of New York, by Prof. A. D. Bache, Supt. U. S. Coast Survey, dated February 15 1848, and report made by Lieut. Com. D. D. Porter, etc., communicated by Prof. A. D. Bache, Supt. U. S. C. S., to Eben Meriam, for the use of the Chamber of Commerce of New York, dated October 30, 1848.

"The removal, therefore, of the obstructions to the safe navigation of Hurl-Gate, is recommended by a regard to the future naval defenses of the country.

"The dangers in this channel arise from the great strength of the current, and the number and position of the rocks and reefs. The strength of the current is such that sailing vessels can only stem its force or escape from it by a commanding breeze; but as the main course of the flood tide keeps the middle of the eastern channel, it is most secure for vessels which are coming from the westward, with the tide, to place themselves in the center of the stream, and follow its direction. They are thus carried through in safety. This plan, however, is inadmissible for any but small vessels, on account of two rocks, the 'Pot,' and the 'Frying Pan,' which lie in or very near the mid-channel, are in the way both going to the eastward and westward, and have but little water on them at low tide. There is also a reef called Way's Reef, which lies in the course followed by the steamboats principally when coming from the eastward against a strong flood. It is their custom to keep close around Pot Cove, and run up under Hallet's Point; by so doing they avoid the strength of the flood. In this part they find an eddy current in their favor.

"But in the ebb the greatest danger arises from the divergence of the current at a point marked (A) on the sketch, where the ebb tide branches off into three directions to take the course of the three channels; the main south channel, the middle channel, and the eastern channel.

"The safe navigation depends here upon deciding sufficiently soon at the point of separation which channel shall be taken; and the neglect to do this, or a loss of control over the vessel for any reason, frequently results in being carried on the Gridiron.

"When a vessel that has attempted the eastern channel finds herself carried towards the Gridiron, her only chance for safety is to run for the middle channel, which is narrow, and made precarious by the middle reef, the outer rock of which is the Negro Head.

"The Gridiron is, owing to the strong set of tide on it, the most dangerous reef in the passage.

"The reef known as the 'Bread and Cheese,' on the eastern end of Blackwell's Island, is also very dangerous. Vessels are liable to go on it on the flood when it is covered, by getting into the eddy near it, with a light wind. The chief danger is on the ebb, and from the same cause as that which makes the Gridiron dangerous, *i. e.*, the strong set of tide in that direction." * * * *New York Municipal Gazette*, p. 886.

Lieut. Porter states as follows:—

"It was my intention to have made you a full report on the subject, but a copy of the report of Lieut. Charles H. Davis, on Hell-Gate, was sent to me to-day, and I find it so full and correct in all its details, that I could say but little more without incurring the charge of plagiarism; in fact, the opinions expressed by Lieut. Davis, coincide with those I had formed previous to reading his report, and it only remains for me to point out the dangers I have noticed while surveying here, and which have escaped his attention. I have also had a better opportunity of measuring the size and shape of the rocks than he had, and herewith give a description of them.

"The first in order, and the principal obstruction in Hell-Gate, is 'Pot Rock,' on which I found eight feet of water at the lowest tides. * * *

"At half tides the depth of water does not increase on 'Pot Rock,' as there is at least a fall of four feet, and a vessel drawing over eight feet must strike upon it. A full rigged brig struck it three days since, and went down with a valuable cargo on board. This obstruction once removed, Hell-Gate would be less dangerous by one-half, and the eddies, which are now the cause of half the difficulties, would, in a measure, disappear. * * *

"There is a dangerous rock, called 'Bald-headed Billy,' fifteen yards from Hatter's Dock, which is dry at low water, and 'brings up' a number of vessels at high water. Three vessels struck upon this rock while I was at Hell-Gate: one we got off with some difficulty; another lost bowsprit, anchors, and chains. * * *

"Opposite 'Gibb's Point,' and within fifty yards of Blackwell's Island, is a large rock, which I have called 'Blackwell's Rock.' The current sets directly upon it with the flood tide, and it is a most dangerous obstruction. It is six feet out of water at low tide, and could be removed at small expense.

"The 'Frying Pan' rock is a ledge running north and south, and is a part of the chain of rocks which runs from 'Hog's Back' to 'Hallet's Point.' This rock removed, vessels would always drift through the main ship channel. The difficulties of removing it would be much greater than any other rock in the Gate, as it is so difficult to hit upon it.

"There is a small rock, though a very dangerous one, to the southward of Woolsey's Bath-House. It extends about fifty yards out into the channel, and is connected with the shore line at low water. * * *

"In a place where the interests of so many are at stake, the want of attention to the navigation of Hell-Gate appears like culpable neglect. No one can form an idea of the number of vessels that go on shore during the course of a month; eighteen went on shore during the period I was occupied there, (two months,) and many of them were very much injured. I am convinced that if proper measures were taken to protect the commercial interests of this great city, by blasting the rocks mentioned above, and docking it as proposed by Lieut. Davis, not one vessel would be lost in five years." * * * *N. Y. Municipal Gazette*, pp. 886, 887.

It will easily be understood that the operations in a thoroughfare like the one described, and through which more than three hundred vessels have been passing in a single day, were attended with various and peculiar difficulties, which hardly could be found in any other locality.

Pot Rock, the most dangerous of the sunken rocks, rose in the middle of the channel, from a depth of from fifty to eighty feet, to within eight feet below the surface (at mean low water). It was formed as a ledge, stretching across the Gate so as to present its broad side to the current; the western slope rose pretty gradually, but the eastern side was steep, and even overhanging. At a depth of twenty-four feet below the surface, this formidable rock had a length of about two hundred and fifty feet, and an extreme width of seventy-five feet; its upper part was prismatical, and its top had an area of only some few square yards.

On that side of the rock which turned towards the current, the waters were forced several feet above their natural level, and on the other side of it there was a corresponding depression—the consequence of which was a very dangerous whirlpool of considerable extent, and bordered with foaming eddies.

The violent agitation of the water above and around Pot Rock, and the wild roar which accompanied it, was exactly such as if some sea monster were struggling in agony, vainly attempting to reach the surface of the water. When the tide was running, Pot Rock could not even be approached in a small boat, and the only available time for sounding the rock, or for blasting it, was during slack water, when the tide had ceased running one way, and until it commenced running in the opposite direction. But owing to the situation and character of the channel, slack water lasted only some few, never beyond ten minutes, and the operations were therefore confined to that limited space of time.

It is evident that, under such circumstances, no other mode of operation than the one invented by Mr. Maillefert could possibly be made use of.

It was not only entirely impracticable to fix any apparatus for drilling upon Pot Rock, but even the mooring of a vessel or float on or near the spot, and during the tide, could not be seriously contemplated.

In the beginning of the operations, not more than two or three charges

could be fired per day; many days were entirely lost, the weather being unfavorable, and others had to be devoted to surveying operations, which also could be effected only during slack water, and in very favorable weather.

But all these difficulties were overcome, the work was gradually progressing, and a survey made on the 7th of November by Lieut. Bartlett, U. S. N., showed a depth of not less than *eighteen feet three inches*, at low water, on any part of Pot Rock. This result had been obtained in the course of two-and-a-half months, by the firing of one hundred and forty-three charges. A great improvement had then already taken place in the appearance of Hell-Gate. The whirlpool had entirely disappeared, and the eddies were almost reduced to mere ripples.

It had also, at that time, become evident that the removal of rocks by Mr. Maillfert's method was not only possible, but also very expeditious, and attended with proportionally small expense.

Although the season was then very much advanced, the operations were continued on Pot Rock, and commenced on several of the other most dangerous rocks. Among these, the "Frying Pan" offered almost the same difficulties as "Pot Rock," being situated in the middle of the channel, where the tide sometimes turned within two or three minutes.

The operations were thus continued until the 12th of December, when the very cold weather compelled Mr. Maillfert to suspend work until the 2d of February, 1852.

Pot Rock had then been broken down to *nineteen* feet below mean low water.

"Bald-headed Billy," a large and dangerous boulder, had been removed to deep water. Lieut. W. A. Bartlett, U. S. N., Ass. U. S. Coast Survey, states the following, in relation to this latter operation. "By accurate measurement of this 'boulder,' after a submarine explosion had dislodged it from its bed, it was found to be sixteen feet long, ten feet wide, and eight feet deep; and as it was too heavy to be floated whole, it was then split by drilling, and the two parts separately floated away to deep water, being lifted by the iron cylinder floats at high water."

Two other dangerous rocks, opposite Mr. Edwin Hoyt's mansion, also had been removed to deep water. On one of these rocks a vessel was wrecked shortly after the commencement of the operations in Hell-Gate.

Several charges had been fired on "Frying Pan," "Way's Reef," and "Diamond Reef," (New York harbor,) but the result had not been ascertained by a survey.

The operations were resumed the 2d of February, and continued in spite of the cold and stormy weather, until the 26th of March, when Mr. Maillfert was wounded by the disastrous explosion of a charge above water.

Pot Rock had already, since the 27th of February, been broken down to a depth of *twenty feet six inches* below mean low water, a depth which was deemed sufficient for commercial purposes, wherefore no operation has taken place upon Pot Rock since that day. This splendid and highly satisfactory result has been obtained by the firing of two hundred and eighty-four charges, of which twenty-seven were of seventy-eight pounds of gunpowder each, and two hundred and fifty-seven were of one hundred and twenty-five pounds each.

When Mr. Maillfert had recovered from his wounds, he recommenced operations the 12th of June, and has continued them since in Hell-Gate, as well as on Diamond Reef, lying between Governor's Island and the Battery.

The results obtained up to the 4th inst. are as follows:—

Pot Rock broken down from 8 to 20½ feet below mean low water; Way's

Reef from 5 to $14\frac{1}{2}$ feet; Frying Pan from 9 to $18\frac{1}{2}$ feet; Shelldrake Rock from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $16\frac{1}{2}$ feet; Diamond Reef from 16 to 18 feet.

Bald-headed Billy, a large boulder, and two small rocks opposite Mr. Edwin Hoyt's mansion, have been broken, and entirely removed into deep water.

The above depths at mean low water correspond with the following depths at mean high water:—

Pot Rock removed to a depth of $26\frac{1}{2}$ feet at mean high water; Way's Reef $20\frac{1}{2}$ feet; Frying Pan $24\frac{1}{2}$ feet; Shelldrake Rock $22\frac{1}{2}$ feet; Diamond Reef 24 feet.

The removal of these large and dangerous rocks constitutes a great and very sensible improvement. The appearance of Hell-Gate is greatly changed, the terrible whirlpool, called the "Pot," is not to be found any more, and the project of making Long Island Sound and Hell-Gate the main entrance for steam and other vessels coming from Europe or from the north to the harbor of New York, whereby, besides other great advantages, a distance of twenty-five miles may be saved, can now be seriously contemplated.

The experiment is now completed, and the results obtained by Mr. Maillefert's operations are undisputed and undisputable. They greatly surpass even the most sanguine expectations, and have established universal faith in the *modus operandi*, the efficiency of which was, at first, so generally doubted.

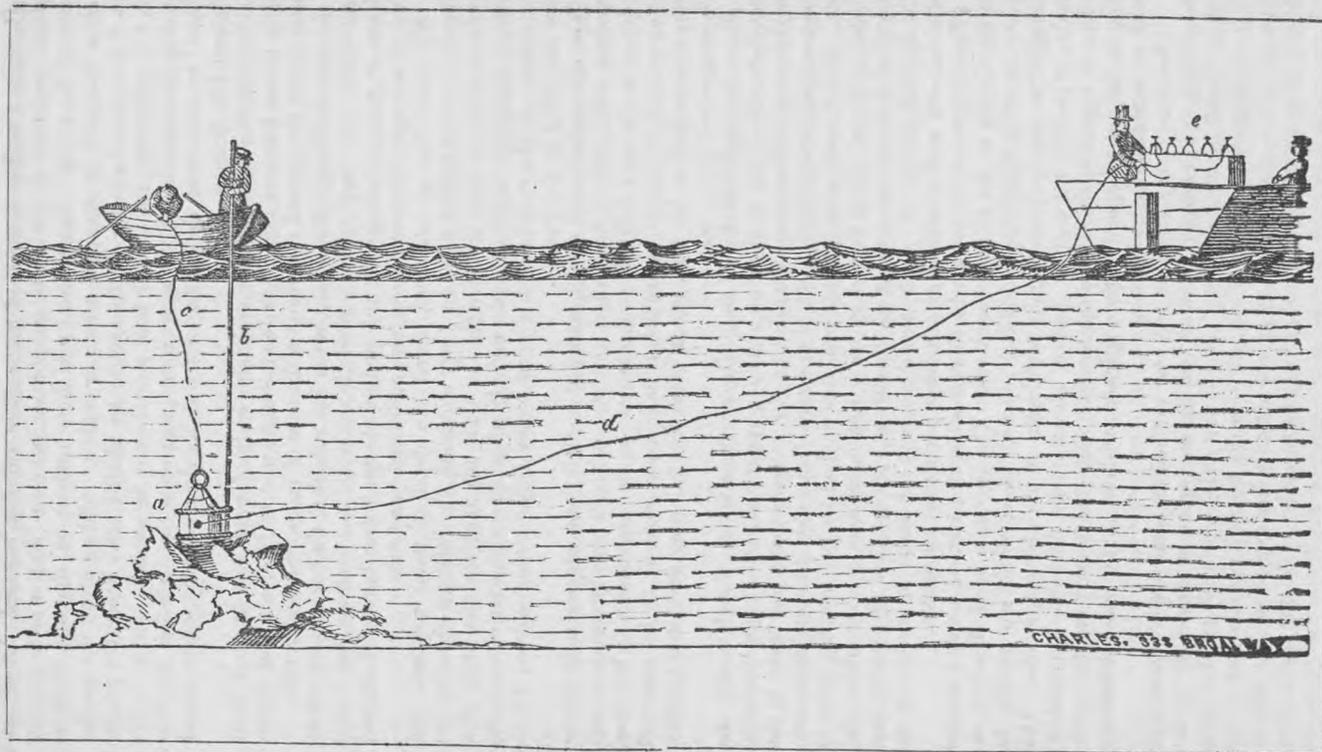
We will now proceed to show the difference between this mode of blasting rocks under water, and those hitherto used, its peculiar advantages, and applications.

It has always, heretofore, been the practice in all attempts to blast rocks under water, to insert the explosive charge in or under the rock, under the impression that the rock could not be separated or removed unless the charge were confined *within* the mass of the rock, or in some suitable cavity *under* it, or between it and the solid bottom, on which it rests. And as the drilling of the rock, or the making of the required excavation under it for the confinement or reception of the charge in many instances is entirely impracticable, and almost always attended with great labor and difficulty, when made under water, the discovery of a more generally applicable, as well as easier and cheaper method, has been for a long time a great desideratum.

Considering the great resistance which the water offers to the passage of bodies through it, and which is as the squares of the velocity and the mass of water to be displaced, Mr. Maillefert concluded that by placing a charge of gunpowder on or against the surface of the rock to be blasted, at a proper depth under water, and by firing off that charge, the considerable volume of gas which is almost instantaneously produced by such an explosion, would, in forcing its way through the water, meet with a resistance which would make it act in all directions, though in a different degree, somewhat like powder confined in a mine, and that the proportion of the concussion, which would thus be directed against the rock, would be sufficient to disintegrate even the hardest and most tenacious kinds.

This conclusion proved perfectly correct in all cases where a proper proportion existed between the depth of water above the charge, the quantity and quality of the powder exploded, and the character of the rock, and was therefore made the basis of this new method of blasting rocks under water, by which the difficulty, labor, and expense connected with drilling operations are entirely obviated.

Mr. Maillefert's mode of procedure in carrying out his method of blasting, is as follows:—



He takes a canister *a* made of tin or other suitable material, inserts an isolated conductor *d*, fills it with gunpowder, and closes it up so as to prevent access of the water. The cylinder *a* is then lowered on the rock, from a boat or float, and by means of a rope or chain *c*. Sliding along the guide-rod, *b*, it is placed exactly on the spot to be blasted, after which the guide-rod *b* is withdrawn, the boat or float moved away far enough not to be injured by the agitation of the water consequent upon the explosion, which is effected by connecting the conductor *d* with a galvanic battery, *e*, also placed at a suitable distance.

The explosion throws up a considerable body of water to a height of from thirty to one hundred feet, breaks and scatters part of the rock, and sometimes makes the ground tremble at a distance of more than half a mile.

As soon as the agitation of the water has subsided, the boats resume their station above the rock, which is carefully examined and sounded, by means of one or more sounding-rods, and another charge is then lowered down and fired on any spot discovered to require additional concussion.

We cannot here go into detail about the depth of water required, the quantity of rock broken down by every explosion, the rules for choosing the spots on which to place the charge, the time required for the firing of a charge, etc., all of which depends entirely upon the character of the rock, the velocity of the current, and a great many other circumstances, which vary according to the locality.

The above-mentioned results, obtained in Hell-Gate, where nearly sixteen hundred cubic yards of the hardest rock (Gneiss) have been broken down and removed under very difficult circumstances, as an experiment, in less than seven-and-a-half months, are sufficient to indicate what is to be expected from this method of blasting, which offers the following great and peculiar advantages:—

It can be applied under all such circumstances which would render the establishment or the working of a drilling apparatus entirely impracticable, or extremely difficult and expensive, as *f. i.* in open roads, and even in the open sea, all along the seacoast, in the most frequented thoroughfares, etc., etc. It is in such cases the only available method for the breaking down of rocks, reefs, and shoals formed by hard agglomerations, because either the depth of water or the violence of the current, the swell of the water, and the frequent passage of vessels, would render it impossible, or almost so, to establish and work a drilling or any other permanent apparatus.

The charges can be prepared either on shore or on board a vessel moored in the vicinity of the field of operations. The operation itself, therefore, requires no other apparatus than a float or two boats, which can readily be brought to the spot, and again withdrawn at the shortest notice. This makes it possible not only to profit of almost every favorable opportunity, either in regard to the tide or the weather, but also to carry out the operation in the most frequented thoroughfares, without in the least interfering with or impeding the navigation.

It furnishes a very excellent and easy method for removing boulders such as obstruct and endanger, more or less, the navigation of almost all our rivers and maritime thoroughfares. One or two charges properly applied being in most instances sufficient to remove even the heaviest boulders out of the channel, this mode of operation proves not only less expensive, but also infinitely more expeditious than the one hitherto used, viz: drilling the boulder,

blasting it to pieces, and subsequently picking up the pieces and carrying them on shore or into deep water.

It is a cheap method, both on account of its economy in labor and of its extreme expeditiousness. The greatest improvements to be made by this mode of operating, will hardly ever require more than one season to carry them to a successful end.

It can be very advantageously connected or combined with other submarine operations, as f. i. :—

With drilling, as an auxiliary operation towards facilitating and quickening the removal of those rocks, etc., which are so located that *breaking* them by blasting in connection with drilling, will involve less expense than the blasting without drilling.

With *dragging* and *dredging*, for the special purpose of breaking such obstructions as snags, or other solid objects, hard agglomerations, etc., which could not be overcome by the apparatus used for those operations, and by which, therefore, a considerable dragging or dredging operation might be stopped in its progress.

It can be most effectually used for the opening of navigation in thoroughfares obstructed by ice; and acting as well upon the bottom as upward, it will, in many instances, be the means of preventing the formation of bars in rivers, where such obstructions very often will accumulate under or against the ice bar.

This short account will be sufficient to indicate the many applications that may be made of Mr. Maillefert's invention, and to show that it is destined to take a prominent place among the agencies of those submarine operations upon which we must depend for the improvement of our maritime highways. It is calculated to overcome all the difficulties in the way of those grand improvements which could not hitherto be thought of, and we venture to say that, by its liberal application, the greater part of those dangerous rocks, reefs, and ledges, by which the navigation of the waters along our coast, and in our rivers and lakes, is made extremely perilous, causing every year numerous and most melancholy shipwrecks, can be removed in the course of a few years, if the necessary means (small when compared to the terrible losses which would thereby be obviated) can be obtained for such improvements, which the voice of humanity and the interests of the country loudly call for.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT FOR GOODS SOLD AND DELIVERED.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, Suffolk County, March term, 1852. Judge Fletcher presiding. The Frostburg Mining Company, vs. The New England Glass Company.

This was an action of assumpsit for goods sold and delivered. At the trial the plaintiffs produced one Child as a witness, who testified that he was the agent of the plaintiffs, who did their business in Baltimore, Md.; that about the 19th March, 1849, he received from the agents of the defendants, who do their business in Cambridge and Boston, a verbal order for a cargo of coal to be shipped by the plaintiffs from Baltimore in a vessel drawing not over ten feet of water, at a freight not over \$2 25 per ton. This order the witness forwarded to the

agent of the plaintiffs in Baltimore, and on the 14th April, 1849, the cargo was shipped on board a schooner which drew, when fully loaded, nine feet nine inches only. The bill of lading was forwarded by the plaintiffs to Mr. Child, and received by him in due course of mail on the 16th or 17th April, and specified the freight to be \$2 25 per ton. On the day it was received, it was indorsed by Mr. Child, and together with a bill of the coal left by him in the counting room of the defendants' agent, who was at that time absent. As soon as the defendants' agent returned, he sent back the bill of lading and refused to receive the coal. The bill for the coal reduced the price twenty cents per ton, so that the freight on the coal to be paid by the defendants would not exceed the limits of \$2 25 per ton. On the passage from Baltimore to Boston the vessel in which the coal was shipped, foundered. After being raised and repaired, she arrived in Boston, where the plaintiffs, by their agent, tendered the coal to the defendants, who refused to receive it.

It was proved at the trial that by the usage of the coal trade between Baltimore and Boston, when coal is ordered in Boston from Baltimore, the delivery of it on board a vessel consigned to the person ordering it, is a compliance with the order, and the coal is thereafter at the risk of the party ordering it.

Fletcher J. delivered the opinion of the Court. The defense was, that according to the provisions of the statute of frauds, this being a contract for the sale of goods, wares, and merchandise for the price of fifty dollars or more, and there being no note or memorandum of the bargain in writing, the contract was not binding unless the purchaser should accept and receive part of the goods, or give something in earnest to bind the bargain or in part payment. There was nothing given in part payment, or in earnest, and the only question was, whether the defendants did accept and receive the goods, or any part of them? That there was no actual taking or acceptance of the coal by the defendants, is quite clear. So soon as the defendants' agent had knowledge that the bill of lading was left at his counting-room, he forthwith sent it back to the plaintiff's agent, and expressly refused to receive the coal. When the coal itself arrived, and was tendered to the defendants' agent, he at once refused to receive it. So that the defendants had promptly repelled all attempts to make an actual delivery of the vessel to them, and had promptly refused to accept and receive the coal or any part of it. But it was contended by the plaintiffs' council that it is not necessary that there should be an actual manual taking or occupation of the coal, but that there may be a constructive accepting and receiving, and that the receiving on board the vessel was a sufficient accepting and receiving by the defendants. The proposition of the plaintiffs that there may be a constructive accepting and receiving, or a receiving without the actual manual occupation by the purchaser, seems to be well sustained by the authorities. Therefore, in many cases it is made a question to the Jury whether the purchaser by his mode of acting or forbearing to act, or by some acquiescence, has not accepted the goods though there has been no actual manual taking and occupation of them by him. The further proposition of the plaintiff, that the acceptance and receipt to satisfy the statute of frauds are not such as to preclude the purchaser from afterwards to the quantity or quality of the goods is certainly fully sustained by the case of *Morton vs. Tibbett* (15 Adol. & Ellis.) This case in this particular differs from many previous cases, which are all carefully referred to and commented on by the Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, in delivering the opinion of the Court. In *Morton vs. Tibbetts*, the receipt of the goods is considered as a substitute for writing, leaving to the purchaser the same right to object that the contract has not been complied with, which he would have if the contract had been in writing. The other and most material proposition on behalf of the plaintiffs, that the coal when delivered on board the vessel was accepted and received by the defendants, within the provision of the statute, remains to be considered.

That a delivery to a carrier is not sufficient to satisfy the statute, as a general proposition, is undoubtedly true, and is very properly admitted by the plaintiffs' council. But it is maintained that the master of the vessel under the particular circumstances of this case, was an agent to accept, to satisfy the statute, because in the first place he was a carrier nominated by the defendants. But the facts

show that the verbal order of the defendants was merely to transmit the coal shipped by the plaintiffs, from Baltimore, in a vessel drawing not more than ten feet of water, at a freight not over \$2 25 per ton. No reference was made to any particular vessel or master. Even this very general order was not complied with by the plaintiffs, as the freight was \$2 45 per ton, instead of \$2 25, as was ordered. This departure in the price of the freight would, perhaps, of itself be sufficient to exempt the defendants from the liability to take and pay for the coal. But it is not necessary to put the case on that ground, or attach any importance to that fact. The order as to a vessel was very general, referring to no particular vessel, or master, specifying only the draft of water and price of freight. The master was merely a carrier, and the taking by him would in no sense, and upon no principle, be regarded as a receipt by the vendee. The case of *Morton vs. Tibbetts* was much stronger than the present one. There, the defendant himself sent a particular lighterman to receive the wheat. But the delivery to the lighterman was not considered to be a receipt by the vendee, though other acts of the vendee, tending to show an acceptance by him, were regarded as sufficient to justify a verdict for the plaintiff. So also in *Bushel vs. Wheeler*, in the same volume, the vendee ordered the goods to be forwarded by a particular sloop, yet the delivery on board the sloop was not regarded as a receipt by the vendee within the statute, though the subsequent acts, and forbearing to act, on the part of the vendee, were held to be sufficient to go to the jury, to find an actual receipt by the vendee. It is therefore quite clear that a delivery on board the vessel, in this case, cannot be regarded as a receipt, within the provision of the statute, by the vendee, on the ground that the defendants ordered the coal to be forwarded in that way.

But it is further maintained by the plaintiffs, that the master of the vessel was an agent to accept, within the statute, because the usage of trade made him such in the coal trade between Boston and Baltimore. The usage, as shown, was that when coal is ordered in Boston from Baltimore, the delivery of it on board a vessel consigned to the person ordering it, is in compliance with the order, and the coal is thereafter at the risk of the party ordering it. It does not in terms appear whether or not this usage applies to mere verbal orders which are intended by the statute of frauds. Nor is it shown upon what ground this usage can be set up and maintained against established provisions and principles of law? Upon general principles of mercantile law, where a person accepts a written order, and delivers goods on board a vessel according to the order, consigned to the person ordering them, in common form, they are then of course at the risk of the consignee. When orders have been received and executed, and delivery has been made to the master of the ship and bills of lading signed and forwarded, the seller is *functus officio*, and can do nothing more, except so far as he may have a right of stoppage *in transitu*.

It is unnecessary to consider how far there could be any usage affecting the rights of the parties in this case, as it is quite clear that the case is not within the usage set up and relied upon. The usage is said to be, that when coal ordered is delivered on board a vessel consigned to the party ordering it, that is a compliance with the order, and the coal is thereafter at the risk of the party ordering it. But in the present case, the coal was not consigned to the party ordering it, but on the contrary was consigned to the plaintiffs' own agent. By the bill of lading the coal was to be delivered to Addison Child or his assigns. But the bill of lading expressed that it was to be delivered to Addison Child for the New England Glass Co., and when the bill of lading was received by the consignee he indorsed it and offered it to the defendants' agent, which it is said was a substantial compliance with the alleged custom. The supposed custom required the coal to be consigned to the defendants, but it was in fact consigned to the plaintiffs' agent. This, so far from being a substantial compliance with, was the widest possible departure from the custom. The bill of lading gave the defendants no right to, or control over the coal, and when indorsed and offered to defendants' agent, were promptly rejected. There was, therefore, no acceptance of the coal by the defendants, to satisfy the statute of frauds, and the plaintiffs must become nonsuit.

WHAT CONSTITUTES DUE DILIGENCE IN MAKING A DEMAND UPON THE DRAWER OF A NOTE, ETC.

The following opinions delivered by Judge Lewis, in the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, April, 1852, are of interest to the bar and business men. The one is in reference to the practice in pleadings, and the other relates to what constitutes due diligence in making a demand upon the drawer of a note.

Bennett vs. Young.—Lewis J.—In this case we are unable to perceive any error in the proceedings of the Court below. On the contrary we are gratified to find that the Court was so properly impressed, in regard to its powers and duties, and so careful of the rights of the parties as to instruct the jury distinctly that “the question of what is due diligence in making a demand upon the drawer, when the facts are undisputed, is a question of law exclusively, and that where it depends upon controverted facts, it is for the jury to determine what the facts are: and if the facts are ascertained the law settles it, whether there has been due diligence.” There was no error in this instruction.

But it seems that the Notary undertook to draw to himself the cognizance of the whole question of law and fact by a sweeping certificate that he had “made diligent search and inquiry” for the drawers. The Judge admitted this certificate in evidence, and that threw upon the defendant the burden of disproving the facts therein stated. This was rendered exceedingly difficult by the omission to state in the certificate the acts of the Notary, with the material circumstances of time, place and persons, which were supposed by him to amount to “diligent search and inquiry.” Where did he search? Did he go to the last place of residence of the drawers? Did he inquire of the holder himself, who is presumed to know, before he takes the note, the residence as well as the circumstances of the drawers? Did he even take the trouble to examine the common source of information, the Directory? The certificate is silent on all these questions. But difficult as the task was, the defendant gave ample evidence to show the dangerous nature of admitting the certificate of the notary as evidence of facts not distinctly stated, so that the party may have the means of rebutting the evidence, and the Court the means of judging, if the facts are not contested, whether they constitute due diligence or not. The act of January 2, 1815, makes the *official acts, protests, and attestations* of all Notaries Public acting under the authority of this Commonwealth, certified under their respective seals of office, *prima facie* evidence. But it has been properly said that this statute was not intended to enlarge the official duties of Notaries, but merely to furnish the means of authenticating such acts as were within their official authority before. Chief Justice Gibson, in delivering the opinion of the Court in *Bellimere vs. Bank of the United States*, 4 Whar. 113, states that “though generally if not universally employed on such occasions, the *official* character of a Notary extends *only* to the protest, and not to the hunting up of the parties.” Under our present view of the value of these certificates in the form in which this was made up, and the great abuse which may be practiced by means of them, we are not surprised that the Judge below told the jury that he had “some question whether the certificate was any evidence at all.” It is not necessary to decide the question at present. It is sufficient to say that this remark to the jury furnishes no ground for reversing the judgment. Judgment affirmed.

Smith et al. vs. Latour.—Where the facts set forth in a declaration or plan do not in *any form in which they may be stated*, constitute a good cause of action in the one case, or a valid defense in the other, the parties may, if they prefer that course, contest the facts in the first place before the jury, and afterwards call for the judgment of the Court upon them as found and set forth upon the record. But if the objections touch not the *substance*, but go merely to the *form*, in which the facts are set forth, this course cannot be pursued. He that stands upon matters of form—has a slippery footing, and if he slips at the time when the law requires him to stand, the objection is cured by his own inattention to the very matter which he charges upon his adversary. It is assuredly very late in the day to announce, in a decision of the highest Court in the State, that duplicity in a declaration and defects of form in setting forth a good cause of

action cannot be taken advantage of after verdict. The first is cause for *special demurrer* only, (Todd 647,) and the last is cured by the verdict, 2 Todd, 826. The second count, it is true, is informal; but we can readily perceive therein the elements from which a formal declaration, containing a good cause of action, might have been constructed.

The defendants below are therein charged with fraudulently obtaining goods from plaintiff below by pretending and asserting that they would pay the value, in a note against McMillan, which it is in effect asserted, they knew to be worthless. After verdict, we may understand this declaration as containing the averments that the defendants represented the note of McMillan to be good and valuable; that they knew at the time that this representation was false, that they intended by means of this falsehood to defraud the plaintiff, and that they thereby succeeded in fraudulently obtaining his goods. These facts properly set forth, constitute a good cause of action. But if this were not the case, it does not follow that the judgment should be reversed. It is the ordinary case of one entire verdict upon several counts, some of which are good and one is supposed to be bad. In that case, although the evidence may have been applicable to all the counts, the court below might have extended the verdict and judgment upon the good ones. Under the act of assembly which authorizes this court to enter the judgment which the court below ought to have entered, and upon the general principles which, now independent of the act of assembly govern the courts in administering the law according to common sense and justice, this court might now enter the verdict and judgment upon the counts admitted to be good. Having the whole evidence before us, we might do what was done in *Catherwood vs. Kohn*, 7 Barr, 392. But this is not necessary, as we are of opinion that the informality of the second count consists merely of the defective manner in which a good cause of action is set forth, and this, as already stated, is law by the verdict.

The court below was asked in the 14th point to instruct the jury that the first count in the declaration was defective; and it is here complained that the court refused to give this instruction, and stated that the defendants should have demurred to it or should move in arrest of judgment. This was undoubtedly correct. The jury was empanelled to try the issue of fact, not to assume the office of the court and determine the question of law arising upon the face of the declaration. What had the jury to do with the defects in the declaration? They were to ascertain whether the facts which it alleged were established by the evidence or not, and the effect of the finding was for the decision of the court afterwards. To permit a party to obtain a verdict of not guilty, upon technical objections to the form of the declaration, would be a prostration of justice. The court was perfectly correct in its view of this point of the case. Fifteen points were presented for the solution of the court below, and there are nineteen specifications of errors here. But we perceive no error in any part of the proceedings below. Judgment affirmed.

BROKERS—CONTRACT TO DELIVER STOCKS, ETC.

In the Superior Court, City of New York, February, 1852, before Judge Duer, Paine, and Bosworth. *John B. Staples, vs. Charles Gould.*

[Contract to deliver stock at stipulated price. Deposit by principal with broker to cover contingent loss in sale of stock on time. A contract to deliver stock on time when none is owned either by broker or principal, whether in name of broker or principal absolutely void under the statute. Money deposited with broker to secure him against loss in such transactions not recoverable.]

The pleadings and evidence establish the following facts:—The plaintiff, on the 15th of January, 1851, employed the defendant, a broker, to sell for him 200 shares of Canton Company stock, at the price of \$66 per share, deliverable, at the option of plaintiff, at any time within 30 days from that date, the stock to be paid for on delivery. In pursuance of such employment, the defendant, on the same day, as such broker and agent, and with the knowledge of the plaintiff, contracted to sell 100 shares to Gilbert, Cobb & Johnson, and 100 shares to Wheelock & Brothers, at \$66 per share, deliverable at the option of the plaintiff,

at any time within 30 days thereafter. The contracts were made in the name of the defendant, without his disclosing to the purchasers that the plaintiff was his principal.

On the same day, the plaintiff deposited with the defendant \$750 in money, "for the purpose of protecting the defendant against loss or damage in the business of such agency, and with the agreement and understanding between them that the defendant should have the right to retain so much of these moneys as should be necessary fully to indemnify and save him harmless from loss or damage, by reason of such sale to be made by him, as the broker and agent of the plaintiff." And the plaintiff agreed, in consideration of the acceptance of such agency by the defendant, to indemnify and save him harmless from all loss and damage by reason of such agency, and to fulfil and perform the contracts of sale so made by the defendant as his agent and broker. The plaintiff did not own any stock when he employed the defendant to make the contract of sale, nor at the time when the contracts were made, nor at any time within thirty days thereafter. Nor did the defendant own any of the stock at the time he made the contracts. On the 20th January, 1851, 350 shares of the stock of this company were transferred to the defendant on the transfer books of the company. On the same day he transferred to each of the purchasers the 100 shares of stock contracted on the 15th, to be sold to them respectively. This stock brought on the morning of the 20th, \$80, and at the close of the day \$85 per share. Before and at the expiration of the thirty days it was worth less than \$66 per share.

There was no evidence tending to show that the plaintiff knew of the delivery of the stock, on the 20th of January, to the purchasers, or that the defendant requested the plaintiff to furnish any stock to be delivered in satisfaction of the contracts, or that the plaintiff offered to furnish the stock to enable the defendant to perform his contracts, or as a satisfaction for the defendant's stock which had been delivered in execution of the contracts; there was no attempt to prove that the plaintiff during the thirty days next after the making of the contracts demanded a return of the \$750 from the defendant, or notified him not to perform the contracts.

This action was tried on the 9th of December, 1851, before the Chief Justice, who "reserved all the questions in the case; directed a verdict for the plaintiff, subject to the opinion of the court upon a case to be made, either party to be at liberty to turn the case into a bill of exceptions; the case to be heard at general term, without an appeal, and with liberty to the court to order a non-suit or judgment for the defendant."

The case made, shows the facts to be as before stated.

Bosworth, Justice.—The plaintiff advanced his money to the defendant to indemnify him against any losses he might incur by reason of making, or having made contracts for the sale of 200 shares of Canton stock. The obvious purpose of the advance was to furnish moneys with which the defendant might pay the amount of any increase there might be in the value of stock, on the day for the delivery of it, above the contract price of \$66 per share. The plaintiff did not own any stock at the time he authorized the contract to be made, nor at the time he was notified that the contracts had been made, nor within thirty days thereafter. The only inference is, that he employed the defendant to make a contract which is declared void by statute. If it was intended that the defendant should contract in the plaintiff's name as principal, then he employed the defendant to make a contract, falling within the express words of the statute in relation to stock-jobbing. (1 R. S. 710, § 6.)

It was probably intended that the defendant should contract in his own name without disclosing his principal. If this was not intended, the deposit of the \$750, as an indemnity against the consequences of contracting, would be an idle ceremony. For if it was intended that the defendant should expressly contract as agent, in behalf of the plaintiff as principal, no indemnity would be wanted, as the defendant could not then, in any event, be subjected to liability or loss, by reason of making the contract, whether the transaction was lawful or unlawful.

A contract on time for the sale of stock, made through the medium of a broker, where the name of the principal is not disclosed, is as much within the meaning of the statute, as if made by the principal personally in his own name. (6 Paige 124, Gram. vs. Stebbins and Stebbins. 2 Hall 162, J. & W. G. Ward vs. Van Duzer.)

The defendant did not own any stock when he made the contracts; the contracts were, therefore, void, whether regarded as his contracts or those of the plaintiff. The answer and complaint severally aver that the contracts were made by the defendant on account of the plaintiff.

The money advanced was delivered to the defendant, to secure his aid in furtherance of an object repugnant to the express provisions of the statute, and to be put by the latter to an unlawful use, if such use of it should become necessary, to save him from loss or damage on his contracts. It was, therefore, advanced to be used for an illegal purpose, and as an inducement to the defendant to engage, on account of the plaintiff, in transactions contravening the policy of a statute law of this State. It is well settled, that an act *malum prohibitum*, or *malum in se*, cannot be made the foundation of a civil right which will be enforced in a court of justice. If a person lends money, or sells property, to be put to an unlawful use, and if such an unlawful use enters into the contract, and is the inducement to the loan or sale, the lender cannot recover back the money lent, nor the vendor for the property sold, though not in any other respect a party to or connected with the unlawful transaction. (5 Denio, 364, Morgan, vs. Groff; 2d Sand, S. C. R. 146, Bell, vs. Quin; 7 Wend, 276, Pennington and Kean, vs. Townsend; 4 Mees and Wels, 434, McKennell, vs. Robinson vide! Gray, vs. Hook, 4 Coms, 449.)

The plaintiff cannot recover under § 8, of the statute. That section provides that "every person who shall pay and deliver any money, etc., by way of *premium* or *difference*, in *pursuance of any contract* or wager in the two last sections declared void, may recover such money, etc., of and from the party receiving the same and his personal representatives."

This was not paid or delivered as a *premium* or *difference*. It was paid or delivered to indemnify the defendant against the losses to which his contract might subject him. It was not paid either as a *premium* or *difference in pursuance* of the contract of sale which defendant made with Gilbert, Cobb and Johnson, or with Wheelock and Brother. There was never anything paid in pursuance of either of those contracts as a *premium* or *difference*. There was a literal performance of each of those contracts, by a delivery of the stock sold. That section evidently means that, where a person sells stock on time, not then being the owner of any, at a stipulated price, and instead of delivering it, pays the excess of its market value above the contract price, or receives the excess of the contract price above that of the market price, the party so paying the premium or difference may recover back the amount thus paid. The extent of the statutory provisions is simply this: The contract of sale is made void. It cannot be enforced by either party. Neither can recover damages for the breach of it. If instead of being literally executed, either party in *pursuance* of such contract, has paid or delivered money by way of *premium* or *difference*, he may recover it back. In this case the defendant, in substance and effect, received the money, to be paid by him by way of premium or difference, if the market value of stock at the period for fulfilling the contracts should exceed the contract price. This, at all events, is the interpretation of the object of the advance most favorable to the plaintiff, so far as his right to recover under the eighth section is concerned. If it was, in fact, advanced or deposited merely to secure the defendant from loss by means of making the contract, without any intention that it should be actually applied in any event to pay a premium or difference, then the advance or deposit is not such a payment or delivery as is specified in the eighth section of this act; therefore it cannot be recovered back under that section. (5 Denio, 373, Morgan vs. Groff.) Neither can the plaintiff say that he repented of his intended violation of the statute, before it was violated, that he so notified the defendant, revoked the agency, and demanded a return of the money, and, there-

fore he is entitled to recover it back. The plaintiff cannot recover on such grounds. Even if the law would aid him to recover back the money, on such a state of facts, it is sufficient answer to say that such are not the facts of this case.

There is no proof of the revocation of the agency; on the contrary the contracts were made for the plaintiff's benefit; he was so notified and did not dissent; no request for a return of the money was made until after the *whole time allowed*, by the terms of the contract, for the delivery of the stock, had elapsed; if the *locus penitentie* could continue beyond that period, it would continue until the plaintiff's claim should be barred by the statute of limitations; the repentance, for which the law gives opportunity to a party, is repentance of a purpose to offend against public policy, or to violate the laws, and not of having lost his money; that must be exercised while a contract is executory, or before the contingent event happens. "The happening of the event is the crisis in the contract which terminates all election, opinion or repentance." If that principle could by any possibility be applied to a case of this character, the rescission of the contract and a demand of a return of the money should have been made within the thirty days fixed for the delivery of the stock.—(12 J. R., Yates vs. Foot.)

What would have been the rights of the parties, if it had appeared that the plaintiff, during the thirty days, had not notified the defendant not to perform the contracts, and had demanded a return of the money advanced, it is unnecessary to discuss, and no opinion is intended to be expressed on that point.

On the case, as now presented to the court, the verdict should be set aside, and a judgment of nonsuit entered.

C. P. Kirkland for plaintiff; J. Lerocque for defendant.

ACTION UPON A PROMISSORY NOTE.

In the Supreme Court, (city of New-York, May 17th, 1852,) before Judge Sanford. Richard A. Reading and William H. Merchant, Ex'rs, against John Bacon & Son and Westlake & Coger.

This was an action upon a promissory note for \$1,620, made by J. Bacon & Son, 4th August, 1851, to the order of Westlake & Coger, and by them indorsed and negotiated to plaintiffs' testator.

It is claimed for the defense, that the note was delivered to Westlake & Coger to get it discounted for the benefit of the makers; but that they misappropriated it, and negotiated it for their own benefit; that the note was an accommodation note, without consideration between the original parties, and that it had been negotiated at a usurious rate of interest.

It appeared from the testimony of Westlake, called in behalf of his co-defendant, that he had taken the note to get it discounted for the makers, but that he diverted it from this use, and gave it to Merchant as collateral security on \$1,300 borrowed from him upon their check on the Manhattan Bank; and that Merchant had charged at the rate of one per cent per week upon this loan. It was also in evidence that this check, when presented at the bank, was credited to Merchant; but that, as soon as it was found that Westlake & Coger had no funds in the bank, Merchant was notified, the check protested, and charged to his account.

The court charged the jury to consider this action as two different suits, one against the makers, and the other against the indorsers—their right and interests being distinct and separate. As to the indorsers, the jury must leave out the testimony of Westlake, and then the case, as against them, was free from the charge of usury; that what happened at the bank, at the presentment of the check, did not amount to a payment. The testimony of Westlake alone supported the charge of usury, on which the defendants, the makers, relied for their defense; if the jury believed this testimony, the plaintiffs were not *bona fide* holders of the note, as against these defendants.

Verdict for the plaintiff—\$1,300, as against Bacon & Son; \$1,670 51, as against Westlake & Coger.

 COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL ASPECT OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—CREDITS AT THE SOUTH AND WEST—BLESSINGS AND DANGERS OF PROSPERITY—INCREASED VALUE OF PROPERTY—CONDITION OF THE NEW YORK STATE BANKS—DIFFICULTIES CONNECTED WITH THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM—NECESSITY OF A LIBERAL INTERPRETATION OF THE LAWS TO INSURE HARMONY BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT AND THE PEOPLE—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS FOR JULY—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY—CAUSE OF THE DECLINE FROM PREVIOUS YEARS—IMPORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST—WAREHOUSING MOVEMENT—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY, AND FOR SEVEN MONTHS—RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK—REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR 1851-2—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR FOUR YEARS—EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY, AND FOR SEVEN MONTHS—COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF SPECIE AND MERCHANDISE.

THE season for summer relaxation from the cares of business is about over, and those who have been wandering in search of health or pleasure have, for the most part, returned to their posts. Here and there we miss from 'Change, or the haunts of business, some well-remembered form, which has given way under the weight of years, or the toils of a too constant engagement, and while the laugh was gayest during the summer revel, has been quietly laid to rest. But most have again buckled on the harness, and braced themselves for a renewed struggle in the great arena. We have cause to congratulate those who are engaged in commercial affairs, (of all labor the most arduous,) upon the comparative absence of those fretting and anxious cares, which so often crowd upon the opening season. There is no stringency in the money-market, haunting the merchant with a constant fear of dishonored bills, or broken engagements. There are no suspicious whisperings of failing credit, the precursor of protests and bankruptcy. No one can now be prostrated in business by being crowded at an unexpected moment. Capital is freely supplied, and all who have, in any substantial property, a balance on the right side of their ledger, need have no trouble about meeting their liabilities. This prosperity is not confined to the large commercial markets; it is extended throughout the country. The South, which was at one time almost universally distrusted, has nobly sustained its credit. With a cotton crop of over three millions of bales, the price of this great staple has been maintained far above the usual average, thus fully realizing the hopes of the planter. Throughout the West there has been such a large distribution of money, that the merchants are seldom pinched for want of the means of payment. It is true that the price of wheat, and consequently of flour, has been lower than might be expected, as compared with other property; but pork, beef, Indian corn, and most other provisions and products of the soil, are unusually high. This general prosperity is not without its trials and dangers, some of them quite as real and palpable as those which attend upon adversity. There is danger that the avenues of business will be too much crowded; that the mass will forsake the slow and certain methods of acquiring, and rush into those which promise more rapid fortunes; that thousands will be lured by the general sunshine into spreading too much sail for their weight of ballast, and thus be shipwrecked in the first breath of an adverse gale. And yet a large multitude of the young and thrifty will take advantage of these golden hours to secure a

competency, for which they would have struggled in vain, or at least more anxiously, in less favorable circumstances. There has been a steady advance in the nominal value of most descriptions of permanent property, but as yet we have to notice very little rash speculation. The banks have not expanded beyond a safe limit, their large specie basis being constantly on the increase. In our last we gave a comparative statement of the condition of the New York city banks, as just compiled by order of the Controller; we now annex a summary of the condition of all the banks in the State of New York at the date of their last three quarterly statements:—

	Dec. 20, 1851.	March 27, 1852.	June 26, 1852
Loans and discounts	\$103,590,700	\$111,476,008	\$121,289,046
Stocks.....	15,093,733	14,918,189	15,367,298
Specie.....	8,306,829	10,730,634	13,304,356
Cash items	10,272,860	12,235,862	12,871,410
Bank notes	2,887,037	2,614,170	3,243,650
Due from banks	10,525,200	11,147,870	11,060,059
Capital	58,621,422	59,026,740	53,705,683
Circulation	26,228,553	27,312,054	27,940,947
Deposits	46,836,682	56,211,535	65,034,604
Due to banks	16,498,666	19,083,264	25,229,167

The increase in loans and discounts, as well as in specie, has been confined almost exclusively to the city, as will be seen by a recapitulation of a few items from the statement of the New York city banks:—

	Capital.	Loans and discounts.	Specie.
June 26, 1852.....	\$35,343,000	\$81,873,000	\$12,156,000
March 27, 1852.....	35,137,870	71,550,054	9,716,070
December 20, 1851.....	35,133,640	64,141,399	7,364,439

From the above it will be seen that the ratio between the specie and liabilities has been increased in favor of the former, and we may also mention that since the date of the above return, the stock of specie has received large accessions.

Some excitement has been manifested at New York in consequence of the introduction of new restrictions in connection with the entry of goods into private bonded warehouses. The Secretary of the Treasury claimed the right to make a suitable charge for watching and taking care of the goods thus stored, and there would seem to be nothing unreasonable in the principle of such remuneration. The importers asserted that the charge in question was contrary to law, and therefore submitted to the exaction under protest, and proceeded to test the question in the United States Courts. Whereupon, the Secretary forwards to New York a blank pledge, which he requires all to sign under penalty of the entire withdrawal from them of the privilege of private storage. This pledge not only provides against future protests, but also requires the signers to release all their past claims. This is resisted as unjust and oppressive. It is difficult, sometimes, to distinguish between the mutterings of a fault-finding spirit, and the remonstrances of those who feel sensible of having been wronged; but in this case it does appear as if the government were disposed to be a little arbitrary. The constant litigation between the importers and the officers in the Treasury Department, seems to have somewhat irritated the latter, and induced a partisan spirit, seldom found where no personal interests are at stake. This is all wrong, and the continued pressing of doubtful points will only increase the evil. The government have been defeated in a majority of the suits brought against it, and

that before the highest judicial tribunals of the country, where wrong has never triumphed. This would show that those connected with the collection of the revenue have been more intent upon gaining some advantage for the Department, than upon a judicious and liberal interpretation of the laws. We do not refer to any particular administration, but to the general tone of feeling which, with slight exceptions, has prevailed at Washington for years. Where there is any doubt of the meaning of an act, the scale should be turned in favor of the merchant, the government always having it in its power to protect itself by more explicit legislation. In cases where a judicial decision is asked by a claimant who fancies himself wronged, the executive should accede to it readily, and throw no obstacles in the way of its being speedily obtained. The exhibition on the part of the officers of the government of a contrary spirit, loses for the revenue more than it gains. The moment the government assumes an antagonistic position, and enters into the contest with the warmth of personal feeling, the importer is too apt to forget his own obligations, and take the opposite side, resolving to make the most he can, without regard to the real merits of the question. In the dispute particularly alluded to, the Department would appear to be doubtful in regard to the strict interpretation of the law, as the pledge offered requires a *renunciation* of the legal claim, without the privilege of a judicial decision.

We annex a statement of the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints for the month of July:—

DEPOSITS FOR JULY.				
	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold.....	\$228,413	\$235,981	\$4,040,000	\$4,200,000
Silver.....	1,372	12,643	20,000	21,500
Total.....	\$229,785	\$248,624	\$4,060,000	\$4,221,500
GOLD COINAGE.				
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....	10,750	\$215,000	209,093	\$4,181,860
Eagles.....	40,305	403,050
Half-eagles.....	40,924	204,620
Quarter-eagles.....	14,000	35,000	66,656	166,640
Gold dollars.....	43,860	43,860
Total gold coinage....	24,750	\$250,000	400,838	\$5,000,030
SILVER COINAGE.				
Quarter-dollars.....	96,000	\$24,000
Dimes.....	120,000	\$12,000
Three-cent pieces.....	862,400	25,872
Total silver coinage...	96,000	\$24,000	982,400	\$37,872
COPPER COINAGE.				
Cents.....	466,599	\$4,667
Total coinage.....	120,750	\$274,000	1,849,837	\$5,042,569

The total deposits of California gold for coinage at our mints since 1848 amount to about \$135,000,000, while the total production is over \$200,000,000.

We gave in our last number a statement of the imports at New York for the fiscal year ending June 30th. We have now compiled from official documents

a summary of the receipts for July, which show a falling off from July, 1851, of \$1,563,793, and from the same month of 1850 of \$6,231,729, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

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

Years.	Entered direct.	Entered warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	\$11,453,117	\$423,919	\$915,154	\$150,067	\$12,942,257
1851.....	12,374,701	1,022,725	1,027,481	81,143	14,506,050
1850.....	16,591,446	2,155,320	499,512	1,927,708	21,173,986

Most of the receipts for specie, as put down for 1850, came from Chagres, and consisted of California gold, which then cleared from thence as from a foreign port. The withdrawals from warehouse for the month were \$1,095,800 in 1852, \$1,167,644 in 1851, and \$944,127 in 1850. The stock in bonded warehouse is drawn down very low, and is much lighter than for several years.

This continued decline in the imports is just what might have been expected from the position of the markets in reference to foreign fabrics. Large losses had been suffered upon even the most desirable stock, and the natural result, instead of being the ruin of the merchants, as many predicted, has been a steady decrease in the imports.

The decrease at New York, where two-thirds of the foreign merchandise is received, has now reached a very considerable sum; the imports since January 1st, exclusive of specie, being \$13,205,295 less than for the corresponding seven months of 1851, and \$6,922,639 less than for the same period of 1850, as will appear from the following statement:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 31.

Years.	Entered direct.	Entered warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	\$58,498,029	\$5,451,668	\$8,259,939	\$2,028,248	\$74,237,884
1851.....	70,762,894	8,486,912	6,165,125	1,480,476	86,895,407
1850.....	63,254,488	9,916,433	5,961,354	9,064,489	88,196,764

The apparent excess of specie in the year last given above, is owing to causes already stated. It will be seen that the value of goods entered warehouse has materially declined. This shows that the demand has been much more active, although other causes have also been at work. The withdrawals from warehouse have, on the other hand, been much greater, amounting for the first seven months of 1852 to \$9,622,577, against \$6,879,985 for the corresponding period of 1851, and \$5,378,101 for the same period of 1850.

Of the decline in imports, as compared with last year, \$7,245,923 has been in dry goods, and \$5,959,372 in general merchandise. The imports of dry goods for July are \$1,620,254 less than for July, 1851, and \$4,302,086 less than for July, 1850, the falling off extending to nearly every variety of fabric:—

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

	ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.		
	1850.	1851.	1852.
M manufactures of wool.....	\$3,552,120	\$2,354,643	\$2,187,187
M manufactures of cotton.....	1,607,775	1,193,817	1,089,736
M manufactures of silk.....	4,572,161	3,933,092	3,074,265
M manufactures of flax.....	741,095	611,250	488,586
M iscellaneous dry goods.....	380,698	453,476	530,595
Total.....	\$10,853,849	\$8,546,278	\$7,870,369

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	\$314,619	\$318,717	\$237,434
Manufactures of cotton.....	104,880	157,371	96,970
Manufactures of silk.....	124,574	265,709	149,394
Manufactures of flax.....	24,695	37,782	32,064
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	10,984	21,109	12,416
Total.....	\$579,752	\$800,388	\$523,278
Add entered for consumption.....	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369
Total thrown upon market....	\$11,433,601	\$9,346,966	\$7,898,647

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	\$486,339	\$341,315	\$126,623
Manufactures of cotton.....	393,933	129,572	72,226
Manufactures of silk.....	222,142	268,318	130,624
Manufactures of flax.....	71,207	45,003	16,299
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	12,313	27,465	21,556
Total.....	\$1,185,934	\$811,673	\$367,328
Add entered for consumption.. . .	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369
Total entered at the port....	\$12,039,783	\$9,357,951	\$7,737,697

The value of goods *thrown upon the market* shows a less relative decline than the value entered at the port, from the fact, as already stated, that the withdrawals from warehouse have been larger than the entries. We annex, also, a comparison of the receipts of dry goods at the same port since January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 30.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	\$9,892,766	\$8,936,521	\$7,464,841
Manufactures of cotton.....	7,529,974	6,978,178	5,715,788
Manufactures of silk.....	12,433,150	15,742,584	12,242,731
Manufactures of flax.....	5,167,834	4,147,367	3,423,990
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	1,386,408	2,373,047	2,492,455
Total.....	\$36,410,132	\$38,177,697	\$31,339,805

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	\$724,050	\$896,547	\$1,079,138
Manufactures of cotton.....	753,530	1,008,874	1,125,786
Manufactures of silk.....	689,011	858,926	1,401,176
Manufactures of flax.....	258,158	397,349	615,523
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	88,123	260,821	239,265
Total.....	\$2,512,872	\$3,422,517	\$4,460,888
Add entered for consumption.....	36,410,132	38,177,697	31,339,805
Total thrown upon market....	\$38,923,004	\$41,600,214	\$35,800,693

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	\$1,312,992	\$1,165,289	\$915,183
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,356,312	1,038,237	640,864
Manufactures of silk	794,542	1,238,440	1,652,118
Manufactures of flax.....	473,336	390,664	223,779
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	67,363	229,890	222,545
Total	\$4,004,545	\$4,062,520	\$3,654,489
Add entered for consumption.....	36,410,132	38,177,697	31,339,805
Total entered at the port.....	\$40,414,677	\$42,240,217	\$34,994,294

The receipts for duties continue to decline, although not in the same proportion as the imports, the payments upon the stock taken from warehouse having otherwise added to the revenue. We annex a comparison of the total from the 1st of January for three years:—

RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
January 1st to March 31st.....	\$6,996,656 48	\$9,295,257 30	\$7,617,887 72
April 1st to June 30th	6,033,253 57	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16
July.....	4,210,115 95	3,558,400 12	3,240,787 18

Total since January 1st. . . . \$17,240,026 00 \$20,211,065 72 \$17,491,100 06

The revenue of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1852, is about \$2,500,000 less than for the preceding year, as will be seen by the following comparative statement, to which we also annex a summary of the imports for the last four years, the figures for 1852 being estimated from the duties, in anticipation of the official returns:—

REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Customs.	Total.	Years.	Customs.	Total.
1852.....	\$47,320,316	\$49,728,009	1850.....	\$39,668,686	\$43,375,798
1851.....	49,017,567	52,312,979	1849.....	28,346,738	31,074,347

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM FOREIGN PORTS.

Years.	Dutiable.	Free.	Total.
1852	\$178,000,000	\$25,000,000	\$203,000,000
1851	191,118,345	25,106,587	216,224,932
1850	155,427,936	22,710,332	178,138,318
1849	125,479,774	22,377,665	147,857,439

Considering the diminished imports, it would be but reasonable to expect a corresponding decline in the exports, but this has not thus far been realized, judging from the returns at the same port. The exports from New York to foreign ports for July have indeed fallen off from last year in the item of specie, but in the value of produce and merchandise there is no material difference.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR JULY.

Years.	Domestic produce.	Foreign dutiable.	Foreign free.	Specie.	Total.
1852	\$2,965,542	\$325,732	\$20,759	\$2,971,499	\$6,283,530
1851	3,188,027	284,397	2,311	6,004,170	9,478,905
1850	3,574,260	413,671	17,563	1,518,080	5,523,574

Taking the total from January 1st, (exclusive of specie,) the value of goods exported from New York show a slight advance upon the amount for the corresponding period of 1851, and a considerable excess as compared with the same period of 1850.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 31.

Years.	Domestic produce.	Foreign dutiable.	Foreign free.	Specie.	Total.
1852	\$25,111,363	\$2,745,307	\$541,978	\$15,595,508	\$43,994,156
1851	25,644,866	2,266,139	373,656	25,097,685	53,382,346
1850	22,491,133	2,411,578	444,533	3,971,812	29,319,056

It will be seen from this that the falling off from last year in shipments of specie amount to about nine-and-a-half millions of dollars, and this notwithstanding undiminished receipts from California. We annex a comparative summary of the total exports of merchandise, recapitulated from the above table:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS.

Years.	Specie.	Merchandise.	Total.
1852	\$15,595,508	\$28,398,648	\$43,994,156
1851	25,097,685	28,284,661	53,382,346
1850	3,971,812	15,347,244	29,319,056

We continue our monthly table of the comparative exports to foreign ports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce, showing the total from January 1st to August 20th, inclusive:—

	1851.	1852.	1851.	1852.	
Ashes—Pots' bbls.	13,968	11,450	Naval Stores bbls.	232,768	282,500
Pearls	1,333	481	Oils—		
Beeswax lbs	195,905	159,181	Whale galls.	831,367	30,912
Breadstuffs—			Sperm	277,005	448,896
Wheat flour bbls.	782,819	856,588	Lard	187,519	21,975
Rye flour	6,079	7,883	Linseed	4,718	9,731
Corn meal	30,197	33,076	Provisions—		
Wheat bush.	606,703	1,072,762	Pork bbls.	30,885	25,697
Rye		236,460	Beef	22,596	34,866
Oats	2,658	8,053	Cut meats lbs.	2,721,722	1,190,302
Barley		367	Butter	1,682,411	449,754
Corn	1,346,978	700,800	Cheese	2,755,493	551,456
Candles—Mould. bxs.	26,601	40,370	Lard	3,970,807	2,518,131
Sperm	1,601	2,669	Rice tcs.	19,976	22,378
Coal tons	3,517	26,431	Tallow lbs.	1,504,961	271,570
Cotton bales	227,065	273,051	Tobacco—Crude. pkgs.	11,437	16,887
Hay	4,354	6,393	Man'd. lbs.	2,273,798	2,583,799
Hops	123	482	Whalebone	1,126,549	577,636

There is considerable excitement in the market for breadstuffs, owing to the partial failure of the English wheat harvest, now thought to produce less than an average crop; and the prospect of damage to potatoes, which each succeeding arrival more fully confirms. The exports to supply the expected deficiency will be large for the coming month. It is well to notice the change in the description of breadstuffs shipped to English markets. During the "famine" year we shipped large quantities of Indian corn, intended for consumption in Ireland; ever since, the exports of this article have been gradually declining. It will be interesting to trace the progress of this decline, which has extended to all other ports, and we therefore annex a statement of the comparative shipments of the principal breadstuffs from New York for the last five years, which we have carefully compiled exclusively for this review:—

EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS FROM NEW YORK.

	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Flour bbls.	1,678,590	821,666	819,291	1,057,728	1,264,322
Wheat bush.	2,114,792	680,587	752,318	690,056	1,468,465
Corn	6,193,902	4,565,501	4,237,973	2,471,871	1,605,674

It would seem from this, that while our flour and grain have been well received, corn has been gradually given up. As an article of human consumption, it is certainly less popular than wheat, and wheaten flour. There is also another change; so much of our flour has reached its destination in bad order, that the grain is now evidently preferred; and the orders for wheat are disproportionately increased. We give a comparison of the shipments of these three items from the 1st of January to the 20th of August in each of the last three years:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Wheat flour.....bbls.	397,626	782,819	856,588
Wheat.....bush.	104,505	606,703	1,072,762
Corn.....	2,321,402	1,346,978	700,800

Thus we see that, while the export of flour has slightly increased from last year, that of wheat has been nearly doubled, and that of corn only about half as much, up to the present date. This difference will be still more perceptible as the season progresses. The late orders have been nearly all for wheat, and the clearances will now be quite large compared with the corresponding period of last year.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF NEW ORLEANS.

We are under obligations to W. H. GARLAND, of New Orleans, for a pamphlet, written by him, containing an expose of the financial affairs of that city, from which we gather the statements here presented:—

The indebtedness of New Orleans consists of two kinds:—1. That which was contracted before the division of the city into Municipalities, called the Old City Debt. 2. That which has been incurred by the Municipalities separately, since that division. The following is a statement of the Old Debt as it stood on the 8th November last:—

STATEMENT OF BONDS ISSUED FOR OLD CITY DEBTS AND OUTSTANDING ON NOV. 8, 1851.

Date.	Rate of interest.	When due and payable.	Interest a year.	Amount.
1830, May 1.....	6 per cent.	1850	\$3,420	\$57,000
1833, March 1.....	5 "	1851	8,850	177,000
1833, February 1.....	5 "	1853	7,500	150,000
1847, January 16.....	5 "	1854	450	9,000
1835, March 20.....	5 "	1855	450	9,000
1830, July 1.....	6 "	1855	6,000	100,000
1834, November 1.....	5 "	1855	17,500	350,000
1835, January 1.....	5 "	1859	5,000	100,000
1835, January 1.....	5 "	1860	5,000	100,000
1835, September 1.....	5 "	1860	5,000	100,000
1833, December 30.....	5 "	1863	10,000	200,000
1834, August 1.....	6 "	1864	21,540	359,000
1834, September 15.....	5 "	1864	2,250	45,000
1836, January 1.....	5 "	1866	25,000	500,000
1833, July 20.....	5 "	1873	18,200	364,000
1836, March 1.....	5 "	1876	2,300	46,000

\$138,460

\$2,666,000

Interest coupons due and unpaid on the 8th November, 1851.....

202,065

Total of Old City Debt.....

\$2,868,065

At the division of the city a sinking fund was created, with large assets, for the purpose of liquidating this debt, but through bad management and the changing vicissitudes of commercial revulsions, these assets have become almost worthless. With the exception of some \$60,000 of available assets still in the hands of the liquidators, the amount that may be obtained from the sale of the *Batture*, and the contingent hope of realizing something from the donation by Stephen Girard of negroes and land on the *Ouachita*, the means of paying this debt will have to be drawn from the general resources of the city.

There may, however, be deducted from this debt a series of bonds, originally \$500,000, issued to the Commercial Water Works, in exchange for an equal amount of the stock of the company. From the dividends arising from this stock, a portion of these bonds have been redeemed, and the amount remaining is \$364,000, while the city still holds the \$500,000 of stock in the water works. Although the market value of this stock is now only about \$40 a share, it will undoubtedly increase in value so far as to be amply sufficient to meet the bonds for which it was exchanged. From the sale of the *Batture*, it is estimated, sufficient will be received to pay the interest past due, \$202,065. These two sums amount together to \$566,065, and reduce the debt to \$2,302,000.

By an act of 8th March, 1836, the means of paying the interest on this debt were to be drawn from the several Municipalities in proportion to their respective resources, and not in proportion to their assessed wealth. The neglect of the Municipalities to respond to the requisition of the General Council for the payment of the interest of this debt, has had the effect to injure materially the credit of the city. The amount of the yearly interest is \$138,460, and, as will be seen by the table, the interest for about a year and a half, \$202,065, was remaining unpaid at the commencement of the present year, which, with \$234,000 past due of the principal of the debt, makes the sum of \$436,065 due to the holders of this stock. The neglect in question arises from no indisposition to meet the obligations which the city is so abundantly able to provide for, but is the result of the peculiar administration of her municipal affairs. The population of New Orleans is made up of classes not only differing from each other in language and manners, but confined according to these differences to particular sections, and constituting thus almost separate communities. Time and the genius of our institutions, it is admitted, are gradually wearing away these distinctions, but still they exist to a very considerable extent, with all their prejudices and influences. The prevalent feeling between the sections is a constant jealousy lest either one should acquire an undue influence, and should abuse its power by aggressions upon the others. To this sensitiveness, it has become necessary that the general principle, so much in favor as the conservator of the rights of the weak, representation based upon population, should bend—and hence the division of the city into Municipalities, supreme in certain matters within themselves, and among these, each liable only for such debt as it may itself contract. This is carrying into extended practice the principle involved in the old dogma of State Rights; and although this *may* be the best system that the city in question could adopt, under existing circumstances, it could not but be the occasion of serious inconveniences. Among others, is this very neglect, injurious alike to the city and to its creditors, of meeting punctually its obligations. The Mayor draws his warrant on the several Municipalities, and has done therein all that is required at his hands—farther authority in the matter he has none. The present Municipal Councils, not having contracted the debt themselves, and seeing that its adjustment is to pass through the Mayor's hands, profess to know little about the matter, and thus the government of the city fails of doing what it ought, in consequence of a *divided responsibility*, which is, of course, everywhere, *no responsibility*. The want of punctuality in the Municipalities gave rise to a system of giving twelve months' drafts upon them severally for the accrued interest; which drafts were paid or not, as circumstances would dictate. Against the injustice of this, no practical remedy has been found. Undoubtedly, the evil will continue, getting more and more aggravated, until some change is made in the construction of the city government. A prostration of credit, and the inconveniences therefrom, might induce a temporary promptness on the part of the Municipal Councils, in furnishing their respective contributions, but the evil would be sure to recur when the spur was no longer felt, and must at last permanently affect the reputation of the city. Such a change, at least, should be effected as will establish sufficient *centralism* to prevent all considerations of the *general interest* from being swallowed up in the intense selfishness of a morbid sectionalism.

The other debt, attaching to the several Municipalities, and contracted since the division of the city, was, at the commencement of the present year, as follows:—

Municip.	Funded debt.	Floating debt.	Total.	Cash assets.	Net debt.
First..	\$492,300 00	\$664,256 80	\$1,156,556 80	\$114,564 37	\$1,041,992 43
Second	1,749,660 00	1,011,650 98	2,761,310 98	463,262 32	2,298,048 66
Third..	636,480 00	263,705 37	900,185 37	900,185 37
	\$2,878,440 00	\$1,939,613 15	\$4,818,053 15	\$577,826 69	\$4,240,226 46

The total liabilities of the city, exclusive of means directly available for payment, are—

Old City Debt.....	\$2,302,000
Debts of Municipalities.....	4,240,226
Total.....	\$6,542,226

Municipalities.	Real estate.	Slaves, etc.	Capital.	Total.
First.....	\$17,449,300	\$1,863,650	\$2,584,400	\$21,897,350
Second.....	30,195,710	2,071,760	7,169,595	39,437,065
Third.....	6,794,623	7,931,653
	\$54,439,633	\$3,935,410	\$9,753,995	\$69,266,068

Dividing the aggregate debt between the several Municipalities in proportion to their real estate, the following table will show the per centage on real estate in each Municipality, necessary to liquidate the debt—and it shows, also, upon the basis of the white population, the per capitum indebtedness of each Municipality:—

Municipal-ities.	Debt proper.	Proportion of old city debt.	Total.	Value of real estate.	Per centage.	White populat'n.	Per capi-tum tax.
First.....	\$1,041,992	\$737,850	\$1,779,842	\$17,449,300	\$10.20	33,561	\$53.01
Second...	2,298,048	1,276,836	3,574,884	30,192,710	11.87	45,947	77.48
Third.....	900,185	287,314	1,187,499	6,794,623	17.47	19,890	59.70
	\$4,240,225	\$2,302,000	\$6,542,225	\$54,439,633	\$11.92	99,298	\$65.88½

The per centage of tax necessary to pay this debt, it will be seen, is, on the basis of real estate, 11.92; if the whole assessed property be taken, the per centage would be 9.44.

In the tables following are shown the expenses of the city government, as estimated for the year 1852, independent of any payment on account of the principal or interest of the debt:—

EXPENSES OF CITY GOVERNMENT, ESTIMATED FOR 1852.

Municipalities.	Salaries of Mayor and Municipal officers.	Public schools.	Police.	Lighting the Municipality.
First.....	\$39,139	\$54,000	\$55,000	\$32,200
Second.....	50,000	94,000	100,000	45,000
Third.....	17,046	18,580	19,260	7,240
	\$106,185	\$166,580	\$174,268	\$84,440
Municipalities.	Fire companies.	House of Refuge.	Workhouse, C. prison, P. jail, and courts.	Inquests.
First.....	\$10,000	\$16,000
Second.....	31,000	\$8,000	22,500	\$5,000
Third.....	3,720	2,067	1,500
	\$44,720	\$8,000	\$40,567	\$6,500
Municipalities.	Charity.	Commissions.	Board of Health.	Military companies.
First.....	\$5,000	\$7,000	\$6,000	\$2,000
Second.....	10,000	20,000	3,000	1,500
Third.....	800	5,480	500
	\$15,800	\$32,480	\$9,500	\$3,500

Municipalities.	Repair of markets.	Draining.	Cleaning streets.	Repairs to wharves & levees.
First.....	\$2,000	\$12,650	\$26,650	\$55,300
Second.....	3,700	2,800	42,060	71,650
Third.....	4,650	9,000
	<u>\$5,700</u>	<u>\$19,100</u>	<u>\$68,710</u>	<u>\$135,950</u>

Municipalities.	Repairs to streets.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
First.....	\$130,416	\$49,000	\$492,355
Second.....	58,580	47,000	615,791
Third.....	32,380	3,000	117,223
	<u>\$211,376</u>	<u>\$99,000</u>	<u>\$1,225,369</u>

In the annexed statement are shown the revenues of the city from other sources than direct taxation:—

RECEIPTS OF THE MUNICIPALITIES OTHER THAN FROM DIRECT TAXATION.

Municipalities.	Markets.	Ferry.	Levee dues.	Cabarets, coffee- houses, etc.	Merchants, drays, etc.	Ground rent.	Parish jail.	Public schools.
First.....	\$112,000	\$1,650	\$70,000	\$50,000	\$30,000	\$7,000	\$5,600	\$20,000
Second.....	80,000	500	100,000	58,000	86,500	978	30,000
Third.....	15,000	3,075	27,000	36,000	17,500	700	200	15,000
	<u>\$217,000</u>	<u>\$5,225</u>	<u>\$197,000</u>	<u>\$144,000</u>	<u>\$134,000</u>	<u>\$8,678</u>	<u>\$5,800</u>	<u>\$65,000</u>
Total—First Municipality.....								\$296,250
“ Second Municipality.....								355,978
“ Third Municipality.....								114,475
Total.....								\$766,703

The alteration of the rate of the levee duties probably reduced the revenue from that source about \$100,000 below what it would have been under the former rates.

Expenditures other than for debt.....	\$1,225,369
Revenue other than from direct taxation.....	766,703
Balance.....	<u>\$458,666</u>

This latter sum is, therefore, to be raised by direct taxation on real and personal estate, on account of the ordinary expenses of the year.

It is suggested by the author of the pamphlet from which these tables and the principal facts here embodied are drawn, that the whole debt of the city shall be consolidated so that there shall be but one species of obligation, and that to be represented by the bonds of the city of New Orleans. The debt thus consolidated will present all the guaranties that the city and people can give of its solvency and punctuality. Let authority, then, be given in an amended charter, to issue the bonds of the city at from 30 to 50 years, for the purpose of taking up the present indebtedness. In consolidating the debt let there be three series of bonds, marked A, B, and C, designating the debt respectively of each Municipality—the designation being made simply to mark the origin of the debt, and point out the source whence the means for the payment of interest and principal are to be drawn. An annual estimate is to be made of the amount necessary to pay the interest, and create a sinking fund for the liquidation of the series marked A, and this sum is to be assessed on the real estate of the First Municipality. A similar assessment in the Second Municipality is to meet the bonds B, and in the Third to meet the bonds C. To secure punctuality, it is proposed to deprive the several councils, by a provision in the charter, of the power to act upon other matters until they have passed the necessary ordinance for the protection of this debt; and that the executive department be impelled by strict penal enactments to a faithful discharge of its part of the duty. Thus will direct responsibility be attached to those with whom the power lies, and care and promptitude fully secured.

VALUE OF PROPERTY IN THE PROVINCE ON NOVA SCOTIA.

Under the department of the *Merchants' Magazine* for the present month, devoted to "STATISTICS OF POPULATION," we have given from the official report from the Financial Secretary's office, (politely forwarded to the editor by D. McCULLOCH, Secretary to the Board of Statistics,) a complete view of the census of Nova Scotia, taken in 1851. From the same official source we derive the subjoined tabular statement of the value of property, taxation, &c., for the Province in 1851:—

VALUE OF PROPERTY AND ASSESSMENTS IN NOVA SCOTIA IN 1851.

Counties.	Probable value of real estate.	Assessed value of real estate.	Assessed val. of property.	Sum asses'd for county rates.	Sum asses'd for poor rates.	Highest rate for poor and county.	Lowest rate for poor & county.
Halifax.....	£1,893,887	£1,461,195	£1,134,912	0 0 1	0 0 1
Lunenburg....	414,830	£350	£377	£3 10 0	0 2 0
Queens.....	252,506	104,236	220	313	10 16 8	0 2 0
Shelburne....	137,090	93	194
Yarmouth....	286,703	357,415	348,000	98	530	16 8 4	0 0 10
Digby.....	281,173	150,667	34,713	118	226
Annapolis....	454,624	313,560	56,568	181	658	3 17 6	0 0 2
Kings.....	618,166	582,988	173,556	235	435	3 15 0	0 0 9
Hants.....	585,809	203,811	126	459
Cumberland...	590,224	500,741	112,610	119	222
Colchester....	572,318	114,954	304	288	3 5 0	0 0 4
Pictou.....	655,619	91,880	456
Sydney.....	278,689
Guysboro'....	166,361	207	372	5 1 0	0 1 0
Inverness....	316,787	328,453	116,560	250	...	1 13 4	0 0 6
Richmond....	127,096	194
Cape Breton } Victoria.... }	419,041
Total.....	£8,050,923						

CONDITION OF THE NORTH-WESTERN BANK OF VIRGINIA.

STATEMENT OF THE NORTH-WESTERN BANK OF VIRGINIA, INCLUDING ITS BRANCHES OF WELLSBURG, PARKERSBURG AND JEFFERSONVILLE, 1851-52.

RESOURCES.

	July 1, 1851.	Jan. 1, 1852.	April 1, 1852.	July 1, 1852.
Bills discounted.....	\$1,661,453 33	\$1,749,855 88	\$1,766,690 87	\$1,702,358 69
St'k of North-Western B'k	33,600 00	27,000 00	65,400 00	61,500 00
Stock of Wheeling and Belmont Bridge Co....	20,000 00	20,000 00	20,000 00	20,000 00
Other stocks.....	5,000 00	5,000 00	5,000 00
Unpaid instalments on st'k subscribed.....	300 00	200 00	100 00
Banking houses.....	23,792 44	30,024 37	32,182 02	35,448 84
Other real estate.....	26,870 13	10,440 00	10,440 00	10,590 00
Due by other banks..	285,648 88	161,272 81	178,102 62	312,325 57
Notes of other b'ks, checks and certificates of dep..	91,706 09	77,044 79	60,215 59	102,078 49
Coin.....	356,773 26	321,492 65	348,824 43	376,534 14
Expense account.....	7,875 70	7,639 93	3,787 05	9,865 96
In transit between bank and branches.....	2,010 76	13,421 45
Total.....	\$2,510,030 09	\$2,423,391 88	\$2,490,742 58	\$2,635,520 69

LIABILITIES.				
	July 1, 1851.	Jan. 1, 1852.	April 1, 1852.	July 1, 1852.
Capital stock.....	\$792,100 00	\$792,100 00	\$792,100 00	\$794,100 00
Circulation of bank and branches.....	1,336,088 00	1,320,604 00	1,397,453 00	1,432,272 00
Due Depositors.....	239,291 68	187,846 23	175,125 64	236,386 67
Due other banks.....	36,617 24	29,873 65	39,866 98	49,294 14
Discount account.....	36,502 07	52,796 54	23,610 31	49,017 25
Exchange and collection account.....	5,752 30	9,041 75	4,150 77	7,442 74
Rent account.....	434 31	648 23
Contingent fund.....	53,244 49	30,481 48	52,134 94	52,938 65
In transit between bank and branches.....	6,300 94	14,069 24
Total	\$2,510,030 09	\$2,423,391 88	\$2,490,742 58	\$2,635,520 69

EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1789 TO 1851.

STATEMENT OF THE EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1789 TO 1851, INCLUSIVE.

ANNUAL AVERAGE DURING EACH ADMINISTRATION.

Administration.	Civil list,				
	foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous.	Military service.	Revolutionary and other pensions.	Indian department.	
Washington	\$633,152 35	\$1,105,503 34	\$72,507 62	\$27,251 72	
John Adams	1,186,236 50	2,019,187 67	89,169 26	24,799 97	
Jefferson	2,049,057 69	1,334,528 63	77,346 85	141,150 00	
Madison	1,899,201 40	11,287,490 44	96,707 27	260,608 01	
Monroe	3,295,303 51	4,596,847 73	1,535,417 78	438,360 24	
John Quincy Adams	2,934,562 96	3,671,907 74	1,173,029 20	733,315 84	
Jackson	4,259,584 28	6,263,460 29	2,182,365 78	1,701,285 63	
Van Buren	7,193,858 70	10,648,054 49	2,643,633 10	3,678,234 91	
Harrison and Tyler.....	5,528,600 62	5,884,750 96	1,659,603 98	1,387,210 04	
Polk.....	6,175,532 96	20,122,220 46	1,767,815 22	1,163,564 56	
Taylor and Fillmore	15,576,777 62	12,057,174 65	1,647,746 68	1,328,084 01	

Administration.	Expenditures, exclusive of public debt.			
	Naval establishment.		Public debt, paid.	Total expenditure.
Washington.....	\$106,768 29	\$1,986,337 31	\$4,511,619 61	\$6,497,956 92
John Adams.....	2,017,694 38	5,337,087 79	4,739,490 67	10,076,578 46
Jefferson.....	1,535,665 33	5,137,598 58	8,148,299 81	13,285,898 39
Madison.....	4,541,637 99	18,085,618 10	10,428,617 19	28,514,235 29
Monroe.....	3,181,996 91	13,045,438 69	12,670,763 90	25,716,202 59
John Quincy Adams..	3,862,662 55	12,625,480 82	11,325,883 35	23,951,364 17
Jackson	3,986,375 24	18,224,095 91	9,361,800 48	27,585,896 39
Van Buren	6,268,621 55	30,432,450 29	5,208,036 07	35,640,486 36
Harrison and Tyler ..	6,156,057 64	20,616,198 76	7,007,429 76	27,623,628 13
Polk.....	7,504,468 18	33,777,221 61	7,189,315 12	40,966,536 73
Taylor and Fillmore..	8,896,976 35	36,557,595 20	*15,265,451 63	51,823,846 20

RAISING MONEY BY PAWNBRONING IN IRELAND.

Pawbrokers' tickets issued in Limerick last year	634,392
Amount lent	£85,690
In Dublin the amount lent was.....	560,492
In Cork.....	192,795
In Belfast.....	125,740
In Waterford.....	85,690

* This includes the average annual amounts of \$5,896,000, paid to Mexico under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES.

The following statement shows the revenues of the United States for the four quarters of the fiscal year 1851 and 1852, ending June 30:—

	Mineral.	Lands.	Customs.	Total.
September	\$249,627	\$581,892	\$14,754,909	\$12,586,428
December	34,289	585,243	9,601,500	10,228,639
March	31,860	624,355	12,109,761	12,765,976
June	44,873	247,947	10,854,146	11,146,966
Total year	\$360,649	\$2,044,037	\$47,320,316	\$49,728,009
Total 1850	1,847,218	1,359,394	39,668,686	43,375,798

This shows an increase in the items of regular revenue; but the customs of the quarter show a decline of \$596,001 from the corresponding quarter of last year, and the lands have declined half that amount. The expenditure of the government has, however, for the quarter been less, by nearly one-half, than that for the corresponding quarter last year.

PRICES OF MANUFACTURING STOCK IN NEW ENGLAND.

The following table, prepared by JOSEPH G. MARTIN, Stock and Exchange Broker, Boston, for the *Evening Gazette*, includes twenty of the most prominent stocks. It will be seen that all but two have declared dividends within the time embraced in the table, making the present value stand the amount of the dividend better in comparison with six months since:—

	February 25.		August 21.		Last dividend. Per ct.
	Offered.	Asked.	Offered.	Asked.	
Appleton.....	675	700	880	895	3 June.
Amoskeag.....	965	910	1,040	1,045	4 August.
Atlantic Mills	600	650	840	850	*
Bay State Mills.....	670	715	785	800	5 February.
Boott Mills.....	800	...	950	980	3 May.
Cocheo, (par 500)	475	475	500	506	4 July.
Dwight	600	625	...	900	3 May.
Great Falls, (par 200)	183	185	202	205	3 August.
Hamilton	740	750	920	960	4 June.
Laconia	650	700	900	950	4 August.
Lancaster, (par 450).....	300	325	350	375	3 July.
Lawrence.....	810	900	950	1,000	3* March.
Massachusetts Mills	750	775	980	990	4 July.
Merrimack.....	1,130	1,140	1,240	1,250	5 May.
Nashua, (par 500).....	380	...	430	450	3 June.
Stark	550	600	880	..	3 July.
Suffolk.....	675	700	960	1,010	4 August.
Thorndike	595	595	...	800	5* January, 1851.
Tremont.....	535	...	770	950	3 August.
York	750	840	900	940	3 May.

VALUE OF A MUTILATED BANK NOTE.

A merchant of Pittsburg sued the Exchange Bank of that city for refusing to redeem a \$5 note on the bank, of which one-fifth part had been cut out. It was contended on the part of the bank, that by cutting from several in the same manner, a new note may be formed, and the bank defrauded of the value of it. The judge before whom the case was tried, decided that the prosecutor was entitled to only four dollars, as the value of the note, and consequently rendered judgment in his favor to that amount.

* The Atlantic Mills have made no regular dividends since going into operation. They are now doing a good business, and having paid up previous losses, may declare a dividend in November next. The Lawrence Manufacturing Co. will doubtless pay a dividend in September. The Thorndike Manufacturing Co. have made no dividend since January, 1851, but the prospect is somewhat favorable for one in January next.

CONSUMPTION OF GOLD IN THE ARTS AND MANUFACTURES.

The following curious statistics, relative to the consumption of gold, were stated in a lecture lately delivered at the Geological Society at London :—

The entire amount of gold in circulation is said to be £48,000,000; of which the wear and waste is stated to be 3½ per cent annually, or £1,680,000. The consumption of gold in arts and manufactures is as follows :—

In the United Kingdom.....	\$2,500,000
France.....	1,000,000
Switzerland.....	450,000
Other parts of Europe.....	1,600,000
United States.....	500,000
	<hr/>
Total.....	£6,050,000

In Birmingham alone there is a weekly consumption of gold for chains only amounting to 1,000 ounces. The weekly consumption for gold-leaf in London is 400 ounces; in other places in Great Britain, 184 ounces.

One of the potteries in Staffordshire consumes £3,500 worth of gold annually in gilding; and the whole consumption for gilding porcelain in England is estimated at about 8,500 ounces annually.

THE SALARIES OF FOREIGN MINISTERS.

GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES.

The following are the salaries paid to their ministers, at several points, by Great Britain, France, and the United States :—

	Great Britain.	France.	United States.
London.....	\$28,500	\$9,000
Paris.....	\$37,700	9,000
Washington.....	21,800	11,400
St. Petersburg.....	29,000	22,880	9,000
Vienna.....	24,200	17,100	4,500
Madrid.....	24,200	15,200	9,000
Berlin.....	24,200	13,300	9,000
Río Janeiro.....	19,360	11,400	9,000
Constantinople.....	33,900	15,200	6,000

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING AUGUST 2, 1852.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, August 2, 1852.

Amount outstanding of the several issues prior to 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office.....	\$107,911 64
Amount outstanding of the issues of 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office.....	12,250 00
Amount outstanding of the issue of 28th January, 1847, as per records of this office.....	8,350 00
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$128,511 64
Deduct cancelled notes in the hands of accounting officers, all under acts prior to 22d July, 1846.....	150 00
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$128,361 64

FOUR BANK NOTES OF ONE MILLION STERLING.

What would be the sensation of an individual accustomed to handling one dollar relief notes, to receive a bank-bill for one million sterling? The Bank of England, it appears, issued four notes of that denomination, and after these four were engraved, the plates were destroyed. Of these impressions the Rothschilds have one, the late Mr. Coutts had another, the Bank of England the third, and Mr. Samuel Rogers, the poet and banker, now decorates his parlor with the fourth, suspended in a gold frame.

BRANCH MINT OF UNITED STATES IN CALIFORNIA.

The following Act, establishing a Branch Mint of the United States, in California, passed during the First Session of the Thirty-second Congress, was approved by the President, July, 3d, 1852:—

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH A BRANCH OF THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES IN CALIFORNIA.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that a branch of the mint of the United States be established in California, to be located by the Secretary of the Treasury, for the coinage of gold and silver.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That suitable buildings shall be procured or erected, for the purpose of carrying on the business of said branch mint; and the following officers shall be appointed as soon as public interests may require their services, upon the nomination of the President, [by] and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to wit: one superintendent, one treasurer, one assayer, one melter and refiner, and one coiner. And the said superintendent shall engage and employ as many clerks and as many subordinate workmen and servants as shall be provided for by law; and until the thirteenth of June, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-five, the salaries of said officers and clerks shall be as follows: to the superintendent and to the treasurer, the sum of four thousand and five hundred dollars each; to the assayer, to the melter and refiner, and to the coiner, the sum of three thousand dollars each; to the clerks, the sum of two thousand dollars each; to the subordinate workmen, such wages and allowances as are customary and reasonable, according to their respective stations and occupations.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the officers and clerks to be appointed under this act shall take an oath or affirmation before some judge of the United States, or the Supreme Court of the State of California, faithfully and diligently to perform the duties thereof, and shall each become bound to the United States of America, with one or more sureties, to the satisfaction of the director of the mint and the Secretary of the Treasury, or the District Attorney of the United States for the State of California, with condition for the faithful and diligent performance of their offices.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the general direction of business of said branch of the mint of the United States, shall be under the control and regulation of the director of the mint at Philadelphia, subject to the approbation of the Secretary of the Treasury; and for that purpose, it shall be the duty of the said director to prescribe such regulations, and require such returns periodically and occasionally, as shall appear to him to be necessary for the purpose of carrying into effect the intention of this act in establishing the said branch; also, for the purpose of discriminating the coin which shall be stamped at said branch and at the mint itself; and also, for the purpose of preserving uniformity of weight, form, and fineness, in the coins stamped at said branch; and for that purpose, to require the transmission and delivery to him at the mint, from time to time, of such parcels of the coinage of said branch as he shall think proper, to be subjected to such assays and tests as he shall direct.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That all the laws and parts of laws now in force for the regulation of the mint of the United States, and for the government of the officers and persons employed therein, and for the punishment of all offences connected with the mint or coinage of the United States, shall be, and they are hereby declared to be in full force in relation to the branch of the mint by this act established, so far as the same may be applicable thereto.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That no permanent location of said mint shall be made, or buildings erected therefore, until the State of California shall, by some law or other public act, pledge the faith of the State that no tax shall, at any time, be laid, assessed, or collected by the said State, or under the authority of the said State, on the said branch mint, or on the buildings which may be erected therefor, or on the fixtures and machinery which may be used therein, or on the lands on which the same may be placed; but nothing in this section contained shall be understood as implying an admission that any such power of taxation rightfully exists.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted,* That the said branch mint shall be the place of deposit for the public moneys collected in the custom-houses in the State of California, and for such other public moneys as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct; and the treasurer of said branch mint shall have the custody of the same, and shall per-

form the duties of an assistant treasurer, and for that purpose, shall be subject to all the provisions contained in an act entitled "An act to provide for the better organization of the Treasury, and for the collection, and safe keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved August the sixth, one thousand eight hundred and forty-six, which relates to the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That, if required by the broker, gold in grain or lumps shall be refined, assayed, cast into bars or ingots, and stamped in said branch mint, or in the mint of the United States, or any of its branches, in such a manner as may indicate the value and fineness of the bar or ingot, which shall be paid for by the owner or holder of such bullion, at such rates and charges, and under such regulations, as the director of the mint, under the control of the Secretary of the Treasury, may from time to time establish.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That so soon as the said branch mint is established in the State of California, and public notice shall be given thereof in the mode to be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury, then so much of the act making appropriations for the civil and diplomatic expenses of the government for the year ending thirtieth June, eighteen hundred and fifty-one, and for other purposes, as provides for the appointments of a United States assayer, and the contracting for the assaying and fixing the value of gold in grain or lumps, and for forming the same into bars, be, and the whole of the clause containing said provisions shall be hereby repealed.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That before the Secretary of the Treasury shall procure or erect the buildings provided for in the second section of this act, or commence operations under any of the provisions of the same, at San Francisco, State of California, it shall be his duty to make a contract or contracts, for the erection of said buildings, and procuring the machinery necessary for the operations of the mint, at a sum or sums which shall not in the whole exceed the sum of three hundred thousand dollars, which said contract or contracts shall be secured by good and sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the said Secretary of the Treasury and the President of the United States.

WILL GOLD DEPRECIATE ?

[FROM THE GLASGOW EXAMINER.]

In a former number we stated that the production of the precious metals had risen from eleven millions in 1848 to twenty-seven millions in 1850, thirty-four millions in 1851, and this year, there was every reason to expect, they would amount to forty-three millions, being a four-fold increase in as many years. The greater part of this increase is in gold, for, while only four millions were produced in 1848, the production in 1851 swelled to twenty-five millions, and they are annually and rapidly increasing.

What has hitherto made gold so valuable? It has been its scarcity, and the quantity of labor required to produce it. Limitation of supply has imparted a high value to this metal, and whenever it becomes of easy access, and abundant, it is certain to fall in price. Diamonds alone are more valuable in price, entirely the result of their being scarcer, as not six are in existence above an ounce each in weight, and the King of Persia possesses a bracelet worth a million sterling, because it includes two of these. Were a locality discovered where they could be obtained as abundantly as acorns, they would be reduced to a mere nominal value, and be in the possession of all. Take, for another example, the article of guano, which, though a great descent from gold, illustrates our principle. About ten years ago it was only procurable from Peru, and was sold at about twenty pounds the ton; large deposits were discovered at Ichaboe, on the west coast of Africa, and, as a consequence, the price fell to from six to eight pounds. Apply this principle of scarcity to whatever commodity we think proper, the results will be found, in every case, to be the same; while abundance as uniformly produces an opposite result.

As a natural induction from these premises, we may confidentially infer, that gold, owing to its great abundance, must speedily fall in price. The fall may not be sudden, but may spread itself over a number of years, and the effects will not be so marked as they would have been, were its value reduced in a convulsive manner. There is a difficulty in connection with this subject, which it is not easy to remove, and on which the most contradictory opinions are entertained. By act of Parliament the Bank of England is compelled to give £3 17s. 10½d. for every ounce of gold offered to it for sale, and it is a general opinion that the Bank will be relieved from this liability, and

allowed to diminish the price which is now the standard. Those persons, who so argue, refer to the fluctuations in the price of gold during the war, and affirm, that from 1811 to 1815 it varied in price from £4 2s. to £5 10s. the ounce, and in the latter year alone, while in May it was £5 6s., in December it had fallen to £4 2s. However, we were placed in quite different circumstances at that period to what we are now, for when the war was carried on, large supplies of gold were required for exportation to pay our soldiers, and also as subsidies to the European powers to enable them successfully to repel the inroads of Napoleon; hence it became scarce and dear; but at the present time we have attained a state of complete surfeit, and scarcely know what to do with our superabundant supplies. Independent of the scarceness or abundance of gold, however, there is a want of definiteness in the ideas of those who conceive that a lower price will be given for gold. What is the obligation of the Bank of England? Simply to return weight for weight for what is deposited with it, or its equivalent in bank-notes, payable on demand. It is a matter of perfect indifference what specific value is attached to the ounce of gold—as the Bank can neither gain nor lose by the transaction, being only bound to return what they had received, but with the assumption of another form. As a commercial community, we must possess a standard of value, that our various transactions may be balanced and regulated in an exact manner, and we have chosen gold for this purpose, from its compactness and comparative scarcity, and therefore value, as the great regulator of our exchanges. It is a mere matter of convenience, and we are almost singular in adopting this standard, as the other nations of Europe, and also the United States of America, have chosen a silver standard. The islanders in the Indian Archipelago have shells, and in Abyssinia they have salt to serve the same purpose.

It is, however, apparently contradictory to assert that the standard of gold will remain unchanged, and at the same time become depreciated; but our meaning will be better understood, by affirming, that while gold retains a fixed value, the price of all other commodities and productions will be enhanced in relation to it. Supposing gold becomes, in the course of six years, depreciated to the extent of 25 per cent, and supposing pig iron to be now worth forty shillings the ton, it will at that period bring fifty shillings. During the interval, the labor required to produce gold having diminished, has cheapened it to that extent, and the labor required to produce pig iron having remained stationary, has resulted in this striking change. The real value of gold has diminished, but its nominal value, or its exchangeable value, is unaltered, and hence the value of all other commodities will be enhanced in their relation to gold as a fixed and unchangeable standard.

It may illustrate our subject still better if we affirm as a fact, that during the last thirty years the real value of gold has increased 25 per cent. Though nominal, its value is the same, for its standard price is unaltered, yet its ability to employ labor, to purchase commodities, to command productions, has very greatly augmented. In that interval our national taxation has undergone a diminution to the extent of almost twenty millions, and the reduction has chiefly taken place by repealing or reducing taxes upon articles of consumption, which has considerably reduced their prices; tea, coffee, sugar, and corn, have all fallen in price, or, in other words, a sovereign will command almost 50 per cent more of these commodities at the present time, than it could do in 1820. In manufactured articles, whether of cotton, silk, or worsted, a similar, and as great a reduction has occurred in their relation to gold as a standard of value. Money has been continually enhancing its importance, and our large capitalists have increased their stores without a risk incurred, or an intelligent effort. It inspired the deepest fear for our productive classes to anticipate this process to be continued for another quarter of a century, but California and Australia have opened their golden treasures when the clouds were dark and lowering, and hope was almost about taking her departure—they have arrested the cheapening process, or in clearer language, are cheapening gold, and bringing it to a level with other commodities—which event will introduce an unexpected but bright day in our history.

We have shown that gold, while it maintains its present standard of value, will also, owing to its abundance, fall in price, or that it will require a greater quantity of it to purchase our products than it does at present; we maintain this to be an established and incontrovertible fact from our commercial history during the past thirty years, in which we find that gold, though always of the same standard of value, has really increased in price, for its power in purchasing our products has been greatly augmented; the large supplies we are now receiving will equalize the relative value of all these articles, much to our national advantage.

THE MINTS OF FRANCE.

The most important and best conducted mint out of Paris is at Strasbourg. At both these places the sinking is done by means of steam. The other French mints are at Bordeaux, Rouen, Lille, Lyons, and Marseilles. While upon this subject, it may not be amiss to give the following official information:—

By a law of the 26th December, 1827, a central commission, instituted at Paris, overlooks all the operations of the mint, decides the value of the different pieces, and allows none to be put in circulation which are not perfectly good. The directors of the mints do the business, however, on their own account, and are paid by the government according to the amount of coinage. In addition to the coining of money, the mints strike off an immense number of medals, sometimes for the government, but in most instances for private individuals. At the commencement of the fourteenth century the Paris Mint was situated in the *Rue de la Monnaie*, a locality now known as the *Rue Boucher*. By a decree of Louis XV., dated in 1768, the old mint, being in a state of decay, was ordered to be demolished, and two mansions, known as the *Grand et Petit Hotel de Conti*, together with several houses adjoining, were purchased by the government, upon the site of which was built the present mint. The administration of the mint comprises at Paris:—1. The coinage of money. 2. The striking of medals. 3. The fabrication of dies and instruments used at the mint. 4. The manufacture of postage-stamps. 5. A bureau for assaying. The *personnel* of the administration and the *agents du controle* are paid by the government. The tariff of charges must be approved by the Minister of Finances. In 1847, the amount of money coined in Paris was 85,991,177 francs; 7,706,020 francs in gold, and 78,285,157 francs in silver. The charges allowed to the director were 804,423 francs. The number of clerks was 10; the number of workmen varied from 55 to 108. In 1848, the amount of money coined was 159,514,985 francs; 39,697,740 francs in gold, 119,731,095 francs in silver, and 86,150 francs in copper. The charges allowed to the director for this year were 1,319,916 francs. The number of clerks employed was 14; the number of workmen from 65 to 125. In 1847, medals were struck off to the amount of 433,521 francs; namely, 107,021 francs in gold; 295,597 francs in silver; 30,759 francs in copper; 144 francs in *platina*. The cost of fabrication was 69,915 francs. The number of clerks was 4; that of workmen from 28 to 35. In 1848, medals were struck off to the value of 224,887 francs; namely, 38,093 francs in gold; 167,559 francs in silver; 18,919 francs in copper; 316 francs in *platina*. The cost of manufacture was 38,930 francs. The number of clerks was 4; the number of workmen from 22 to 30. The salaries of the clerks vary from 1,000 to 4,000 francs per year; the wages of the workmen from 3 to 8 francs per day. In 1848, the amount paid for engraving, sinking dies, &c., was 52,260 francs. In this department the number of persons employed in 1848 was 19. The *chef d'atelier* received 3,400 francs per year; one engraver received 2,400 francs per year; another 1,800 francs per year; another (working by the piece) 2,400 francs; one forger 8 francs per day; another 6 francs; and the rest of the workmen from 3 to 5½ francs per day.

The *ateliers* for the manufacture of postage-stamps was opened in December, 1848. The number of persons employed is 11, who gain from 3 to 6 francs per day. This department is under the management of the Assistant-Engraver of the mint, who receives a franc-and-a-half per thousand for the stamps, he furnishing the wood upon which they are engraved, and paying the workmen.

The Bureau of Assay is managed by the Assayer-in-Chief, who receives his pay from the charge which the law allows him to make upon the articles assayed. The amount of gold and silver assayed in 1848 was 4,500,000 francs of the former, and 9,000,000 francs of the latter. The number of persons employed was 16, of whom one assistant-assayer gained 2,800 francs per year; six assistant-assayers 1,800 francs; six others from 1,250 to 1,650 francs; one clerk 1,250 francs; another clerk 950 francs; and one cutter 1,100 francs.

THE BOARD OF BROKERS.

The proposition to found a new Board of Brokers in New York, says the *Mercantile Journal*, makes sure progress, and although that progress is slow, the scheme will shortly assume public importance. Complaint has long been made that the proceedings of the present body are despotic, and that their customary mode of carrying on

business with closed doors creates a mystery and a monopoly which the public good demands should be abolished. On none of the commercial marts of Europe, with the exception of London, are the sales of the Stock Exchange people conducted with a privacy restricted to the members of the Board, and it must be conceded, the peculiar constitution of that body in some measure justifies the exclusion practiced by them. Although the Royal Exchange has for centuries been considered the focus of the great monetary, exchange, and commercial operations of the kingdom, the mode of doing business has varied with the change of the times; and the ancient custom of the merchants of a particular nation or trade having possession of a certain part of the area called a *walk* has fallen into desuetude. The great bulk of the merchants are now divided into classes, each of whom possess an exchange or mart, exclusively occupied or devoted to their peculiar branch of Commerce; thus, in London, there is a Stock Exchange, the Corn Exchange, the Coal Exchange, a Shipping and Insurance Exchange, (*Lloyd's Rooms*), and subsidiary Halls and Sales Rooms, and Coffee Houses, where the merchants congregate and have desks; and where the large sales of foreign produce, wool, &c., periodically take place.

The stock operations in London have only assumed their present importance since the middle of the seventeenth century, when the business of dealing in securities was separated from that of banking. The market, for a series of years after its institution, was held at various places in the Royal Exchange and its neighborhood. In 1801, the vast growth of the transactions induced the brokers to seek a permanent location, when the present building in Bartholomew Lane, was erected by subscription. The transactions of the brokers are usually divided into three branches—English, (for stocks and Exchequer bills;) Foreign, (stocks;) and the Share Market—these branches are called Houses. The members are of two classes—Brokers and Jobbers—and the business, as in this city, consists of two kinds—genuine and speculative—the former for money and the latter for time. A jobber is a capitalist who usually keeps a large amount of stocks on hand, and is always ready to sell in any desired quantity, thereby saving time and trouble both to the broker and the party desiring the investment. The members of the Stock Exchange are subjected to a rigid discipline, by a committee elected by themselves. A candidate for membership must be recommended by members, who attest that they have known him for an honorable man for more than two years, and they are required to give security for him for a certain period of time. The committee assist in winding up the affairs of members who are defaulters upon the market; they also act as arbitrators in any difference arising among the members; and as no member is allowed to be a partner in any other business, few losses are suffered by the members from each other. It is mostly the brokers who suffer from their outside connections. No member who fails to meet his engagements is allowed to appear in the house, until his creditors have received a stipulated composition, and the names of members who are defaulters, on the stated "settling" or "account days," are chalked on a black-board, exposed in the hall, which constitutes the Stock Exchange method of expulsion. The Board are munificent contributors to public charities, and have a fund for decayed members, which is liberally supported. Strangers are not permitted to enter the Stock Exchange, and the minor speculators assemble at the Hall of Commerce, in the adjacent street.

From the foregoing it will be perceived that the Committee of the London Stock Exchange, in the supervision which they exercise over the business conduct and character of their members, furnish the best and most valid reason for their exclusion of the uninitiated. The same causes do not exist in New York, and we have yet to learn the propriety of the course adopted by the present Board.

LOUISIANA BANKS AND LOANS.

The new constitution recently adopted by the Louisiana Convention, contains the following provisions relative to banking and State loans:—

"Corporations with banking or discounting privileges may be either created by special acts, or formed under general laws: but the Legislature shall, in both cases, provide for the registry of all bills and notes issued or put in circulation as money, and shall require ample security for the redemption of the same in specie.

"The Legislature shall have no power to pass any law sanctioning in any manner, directly or indirectly, the suspension of specie payments by any person, association, or corporation, issuing bank-notes of any description.

"In case of insolvency of any bank or banking association, the billholders thereof

shall be entitled to preference in payment over all other creditors of such bank or association."

The following resolution passed the convention by a vote of one hundred and three yeas to five nays:—

"Resolved, That when the Legislature shall contract a debt to an amount exceeding \$100,000, except in case of war, to repel an invasion, or suppress insurrection, it shall, in the law creating the debt, provide the means for payment of the current interest and the principal when it shall become due, and the law shall be irrevocable until principal and interest are paid."

The new constitution thus stops the very proposal for repudiation of State debts in the Legislature.

THE NORTH BRANCH LOAN.

The bids for the State loan of \$850,000 authorized by the last Legislature of Pennsylvania for the completion of the North Branch Canal, were opened at Harrisburg on Saturday, June 12th, 1852, and the loan was allotted to the most favorable bidders. The successful parties were Charles Henry Fisher, of Philadelphia; Duncan, Sherman & Co., of New York, and George Peabody, of London. They took the whole loan, at par, as follows: \$200,000 at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, interest per annum; \$650,000 at 5 per cent interest per annum.

The abatement of interest on this amount makes the bid equal to a premium of about 1.90 for the whole loan at 5 per cent per annum. The whole of it was taken on foreign account, and it may be considered a most fortunate allotment for the State, and a new proof of the public confidence, both at home and abroad, in the credit of Pennsylvania. The successful bidders also offered to take the whole amount of the loan as follows:—

\$450,000	at 5 per cent,	at 101 77-100	premium.	
\$400,000	at 5	“	at 102 03-100	“

This amounts to about the same thing as the former bid, and makes it about equal to a premium of 1.90 on a 5 per cent loan.

ORIGIN OF COINS.

The Philadelphia *Bulletin*, has the following on the origin of coins:—

The rare beauty of the World's Fair medals, one of which we inspected last week, suggested a train of reflections on the history of medals and coins, and the means of coining, which it may be worth while, perhaps, to lay before our readers.

In the early ages of mankind, all traffic, as is well known, was conducted by means of barter. The herdsman exchanged his cattle for goods, or the merchant his goods for food to eat. But such a rude condition of affairs could not, it is clear, continue long; and the necessities of mankind, therefore, led to the substitution of a medium of exchange, or representative of value. The precious metals, from their intrinsic worth as well as their portable character, naturally suggested themselves for this purpose. At first, however, they were used in simple bars, without even stamp or coinage, and were, in such cases necessarily weighed, and often assayed, at every transfer. But this being found inconvenient, the expedient was hit upon of authenticating the weight and standard by a mark. Afterwards that the needs of Commerce might still further be consulted, the bars were made of various sizes. In the end, still further to impress the character of a legalized currency on the gold, silver, bronze, or copper employed, appropriate shapes, differing from those of the simple bar, were selected, the circular form of the present coin being that most generally adopted.

It was not always, however, that money was made round. Our British ancestors, prior to the invasion of Julius Cæsar, employed rings, sometimes singly, but oftener made into a chain, for currency. Large quantities of this species of coin have been dug up in England, Ireland, Wales, and Scotland. The smallest piece of money of this description, which has yet been discovered, is a gold ring weighing half a penny-weight. But others containing three times this weight, or five, ten, ten, sixteen, or twenty-two times this weight, up to the weight of a pound troy, have also been discovered; thus proving that the rings were not intended for ornaments but for

currency. Even among the Romans, circular coins were not in use until the time of Servius Tullius, and in Great Britain they were not employed till some time after the conquest by Cæsar. Of all ancient nations, the Greeks produced the most beautiful coins—those of the Romans not being particularly elegant till a late period in their history. The method of stamping the piece of money was simple. Usually the blow, which gave the impress, was struck by a hammer; and, at first, the die was cut in the face of the instrument itself. So late as two centuries ago, the coining of money, even in England, was conducted in a comparatively rude manner; and many a Spanish quarter, yet in circulation, bears decisive evidence of uncouth coining.

Even at this day, the coined money of Europe generally, is disgraceful to art, and is frequently basely alloyed. The exceptions are the gold and silver pieces of England, France, Belgium, and Prussia. Our own coins are not so good as they might be, a fact which any person may verify by comparing them with well executed medals—that struck in honor of Mr. Clay, or those issued at the World's Fair, for instance. Some of the finest coins and medals ever executed were those issued by the Emperor Napoleon. Generally, however, the European coins are as much inferior to those of the United States, as these latter are to the coins of England or France. The worst executed coins, among civilized nations, are those of Mexico and the South American States generally.

A word more and we shall have "coins" enough, at least for one reading, on coins and coining. Money is a word, we are told by Chambers, derived from the temple of Jupiter *Moneta*, where a metallic currency was first struck by the ancients. Cash comes from the French word *caisse*, a coffer or chest in which money is kept. And pecuniary is derived from *pecus*, the Latin for a flock or herd of animals, these being in the earlier ages the equivalents for money.

THE EARLY DISCOVERY OF COAL,

Bituminous coal, or sea coal, was known upwards of a thousand years ago, in the year of our Lord 853, but did not come into general use until the 16th century, and was not used in the manufacture of iron until the 17th century. Anthracite coal came gradually into use so late as the 19th century, and was not used as fuel in the manufacture of iron until about 16 years ago.

So early as 1790 anthracite coal was known to abound in the county of Schuylkill, in the State of Pennsylvania, but it being a different quality from that known as sea coal, or bituminous coal, and being hard of ignition, it was deemed useless until the year 1795, when a blacksmith of Pennsylvania, named Whetstone, brought it into notice. His success in burning it induced persons to dig for it, but when found, every person connected with the enterprise had to experiment on its combustion, and vain were the attempts to burn it by the majority of them, and all came to the conclusion that it would not come into general use.

About the year 1800, Mr. Morris, who had a large tract of land in Schuylkill County, Pennsylvania, procured a quantity of coal therefrom, and took it to Philadelphia City, but he was unable with all his heroic exertions to bring it into notice, and abandoned all his plans. From that time until 1806 it was talked about as a humbug; when accidentally a bed of coal was found in digging a tale race for a water wheel for a forge, which induced another blacksmith, David Berlin, to make a trial of it. His success was generally made known, which induced others to try to burn Pennsylvania coal.

THE BONDS OF THE PLANTERS' BANK OF MISSISSIPPI.

The following is the Act passed by the late Legislature of Mississippi, with regard to the bonds issued by the State on account of the Planters' Bank:—

AN ACT TO SUBMIT TO THE PEOPLE THE QUESTION OF THE PAYMENT OF THE BONDS OF THIS STATE ISSUED ON ACCOUNT OF THE PLANTERS' BANK OF THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.

SEC. 1. Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of Mississippi: That it shall be the duty of the returning officer at all the election precincts of this State at the

next election, to propound the question to each voter where he presents his vote: "Will you submit to a direct tax to the payment of the Planters' Bank Bonds, issued by the State on account of the Planters' Bank of the State of Mississippi," and who shall keep a correct record of the number of those who shall answer in the affirmative, and of those who shall answer in the negative; and make due returns thereof to the general returning officer of the county in which said election shall be holden, and it is hereby made the duty of said general returning officer in this State to transmit to the Secretary of the State, within ten days thereafter a true return of said vote in their respective counties.

SEC. 2. Provides for the publication of the Act.

SEC. 3. Be it further enacted: That unless a majority of the whole number of votes cast for election at the said presidential election, shall be cast against the payment of said bonds, the result of said vote shall be instructive to the next legislature to provide the most suitable plan for the payment of said bonds.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF FRANCE IN 1852.

The official returns of the trade and navigation of France, with her colonies and foreign countries, during the first six months of the present year, have just been published, the results of which, as compared with the same period in the previous year, are very favorable. Thus, the total duties received upon importations have been 69,002,964f.; in 1851 they amounted to 54,655,161f.; and in 1850 to 57,561,643f. The receipts for the first six months of this year, therefore, show an excess of 14,347,803f. over the corresponding period of 1851, and of 11,441,321f. over that of 1850. A very large increase is shown in the importation of the various materials used for manufacturing purposes, such as raw cotton, wool, silk, indigo, cochineal, dye woods, whale oil, copper, zinc, and nitrate of soda. In colonials there has also been a very large increase in the imports of coffee and sugar, both of colonial and foreign growth. The principal decrease is shown in lead, nitrate of potash, and olive oil. The import of linen thread and linens has been about the same as last year. In regard to exports the returns afford evidence of an increased foreign trade, which is principally shown in the articles for which France has always found an extensive demand abroad, such as wines, brandy, soap, printed cottons, linens, hides, leather, books, engravings, porcelain, and glass. In the export of grain, woolen yarn, and haberdashery, there is, as compared with 1851, a slight falling off; as also in silks, plain calicoes, and silk manufactures; but the only important decrease is in the export of refined sugar, which has been very much below that of previous years.

THE MACKEREL FISHERIES.

The following is the estimate of the Inspector-General of Massachusetts, showing what interest Massachusetts has in the fishery question:—

Tons, 54,040, being 858 vessels, navigated by 9,174 men and boys.	
Value of vessels and outfits.....	\$3,532,000
Annual value of catch.....	2,400,000
The value for the rest of New England may be considered as nearly equal to this amount, say, value of vessels and outfits.....	2,500,000
Value of catch.....	1,600,000

Tons, 30,000—6,000 men and boys.

But only an approximation can be made, as many vessels are employed in both cod and mackerel.

The Massachusetts mackerelmen, in 1851, caught their fares as follows:—

In American waters.....	bbls.	188,336
In waters, the exclusive right to which is now claimed by Earl Derby...		140,906

TABLE OF EXPORTS OF SOME OF THE LEADING ARTICLES FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE THREE YEARS ENDING JUNE, 1852.

Month.	Pot Ashes, bbl ^s			Pearl Ashes, bbls.			Cotton, bales.			Cotton Goods, packages.			Flour, bbls.		
	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-1.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-52.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-52.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.
July	1,577	3,140	1,627	188	463	174	12,123	20,292	12,856	3,904	540	269	113,498	47,921	231,084
August	2,356	4,776	3,469	182	676	237	9,947	55,077	20,775	439	946	1,907	74,417	148,462	192,180
September	2,856	2,312	1,156	466	380	70	20,765	37,624	10,619	2,897	3,486	1,448	74,575	215,084	93,895
October	1,879	2,791	2,266	289	640	44	11,592	22,755	9,268	417	500	1,731	45,286	141,687	73,290
November	1,569	2,208	2,097	192	369	241	34,868	20,027	12,493	1,235	2,896	1,762	69,145	155,268	100,601
December	3,699	2,952	1,131	764	105	40	21,456	15,162	22,064	1,035	232	453	80,160	96,555	80,040
January	1,522	2,588	815	525	784	67	12,680	22,051	31,612	645	1,716	322	56,302	49,855	39,336
February	1,559	1,340	1,509	266	348	57	23,271	21,769	27,056	2,613	864	8,270	33,007	28,002	61,263
March	1,466	891	569	176	162	91	22,091	37,204	60,944	3,448	9,013	6,429	27,181	27,649	62,612
April	1,595	833	826	285	54	..	18,988	40,478	60,075	3,623	7,305	513	23,331	44,805	76,750
May	2,656	2,881	2,371	269	206	117	30,031	43,219	62,223	12,088	7,803	6,916	29,276	97,286	142,606
June	3,829	2,186	2,994	297	76	100	43,029	25,061	18,679	1,198	4,662	6,041	55,406	97,466	149,583
Total	26,563	28,898	20,630	3,899	4,263	1,938	260,841	360,719	348,661	33,542	39,963	35,055	681,584	1,150,040	1,303,249

	Wheat, bushels.			n bushels.			Beef, packages.			Pork, bbls.			Lard, kegs.		
	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.
July	14,095	100	192,096	848,404	119,072	175,895	398	4,113	7,321	2,714	6,003	3,252	3,598	1,661	10,056
August	9,680	45,954	209,396	192,159	11,936	39,423	774	2,375	4,230	5,594	9,420	3,343	5,334	8,165	3,844
September	27,283	64,266	214,945	61,978	51,518	25,227	1,688	1,839	2,514	6,415	4,940	3,794	16,617	7,488	3,758
October	41,716	103,229	125,353	193,131	24,671	114,080	1,330	1,954	3,165	5,244	4,463	4,462	48,083	4,181	12,898
November	69,610	265,822	230,757	145,805	18,943	73,382	13,318	7,676	2,662	6,963	6,682	2,928	26,691	3,384	9,784
December	116,577	164,227	241,423	70,792	49,345	15,849	6,089	9,935	6,904	5,089	2,652	4,275	12,994	4,371	1,853
January	38,802	23,641	88,819	97,662	53,672	42,199	7,819	4,342	4,566	4,006	4,514	3,192	16,772	2,909	5,737
February	14,568	103,554	522,423	42,809	50,823	5,152	2,593	2,297	5,368	1,855	2,510	23,839	2,935	4,336
March	2,010	40,693	120,608	463,141	25,065	78,819	3,996	3,687	5,960	8,682	4,087	3,341	23,432	5,073	6,643
April	3,138	20,081	136,142	360,034	67,310	107,255	3,716	6,235	3,341	6,774	6,843	3,313	23,065	11,898	4,672
May	65,755	165,617	414,529	510,537	190,126	2,759	3,056	4,344	7,601	5,915	2,494	8,938	8,314	4,299
June	11,640	60,525	82,044	419,515	424,327	104,609	4,277	4,207	4,265	3,049	2,356	4,501	3,362	44,837	8,984
Total	349,119	854,253	1,910,754	3,789,573	1,399,205	1,017,687	50,316	52,015	50,559	67,499	59,730	41,405	212,725	105,216	78,866

FISHERIES OF THE BRITISH PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

From the official statistics of the Province of Nova Scotia (referred to in other departments of the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine*) we derive the subjoined statistics of the Fisheries of that Province as taken in 1851:—

STATEMENT OF THE FISHERIES OF NOVA SCOTIA IN 1851.

Counties.	No. of vessels employed.	Tonnage.	No. of men.	No. of boats employed.	No. of men.	No. of nets and seines.	Quantity of dry fish cured.	No. of bbls. of salmon.
Halifax.....	96	2,184	255	1,437	1,054	6,764	14,684	25
Lunenburg.....	186	2,478	659	458	640	5,610	21,057	7
Queens.....	27	1,178	228	119	229	612	8,998	..
Shelburne.....	109	27,229	694	419	679	1,342	35,417	50
Yarmouth.....	71	2,206	477	49	76	396	20,270	..
Digby.....	34	990	169	82	112	256	10,901	..
Annapolis.....	6	247	19	62	86	197	602	..
Kings.....	7	580	38	32	45	131	994	30
Hants.....	8	11	19	87	6
Cumberland.....	3	109	18	25	23	273	680	97
Colchester.....	2	25	6	28	50	96	229	15
Pictou.....	6	13	97	34	75
Sydney.....	6	90	26	180	153	1,056	1,033	184
Guysboro'.....	71	2,350	289	833	1,005	7,227	15,834	601
Inverness.....	74	1,007	264	247	379	955	11,901	193
Richmond.....	99	2,197	456	522	860	2,654	32,255	42
Cape Breton.....	21	463	83	654	1,298	2,469	21,458	344
Victoria.....
Total.....	812	43,333	36,81	5,161	6,713	30,154	196,434	1,669

Counties.	No. of bbls. of shad.	No. of bbls. of mackerel.	No. of bbls. of herring.	No. of bbls. of alewives.	Quantity of smoked herring.	Value.	Quantity of fish oil.	Value.
Halifax.....	1	29,835	5,085	182	93	£53,573	17,895	£1,508
Lunenburg.....	..	9,417	4,878	202	..	15,113	8,401	875
Queens.....	..	1,441	4,880	..	30	..	10,274	1,055
Shelburne.....	..	4,610	6,680	61	275	22,215	40,992	3,977
Yarmouth.....	..	1,129	1,398	611	100	15,000	7,988	851
Digby.....	43	1,385	5,213	10	4,830	7,615	1,356	327
Annapolis.....	20	108	529	16	7,362	1,555	752	132
Kings.....	856	2	849	164	2,115	1,200	242	27
Hants.....	546	..	340	..	107
Cumberland.....	563	36	678	162	150	1,810	932	98
Colchester.....	1,450	..	112	..	300	2,404	98	9
Pictou.....	50	12	13	2
Sydney.....	..	1,828	1,250	32	2,518	252
Guysboro'.....	4	20,054	8,460	815	..	28,208	21,378	1,641
Inverness.....	..	5,401	2,287	2,172	6	18,492	17,174	1,914
Richmond.....	25	15,373	4,398	851	..	50,085	22,947	1,782
Cape Breton.....	28	9,428	6,113	53	41	..	36,290	3,304
Victoria.....
Total.....	3,536	100,047	53,200	5,343	15,409	217,270	189,250	17,754

IMPORTS OF BRANDIES INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

SHIPMENTS OF COGNAC BRANDIES FROM CHARENTE TO ALL THE PORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM THE 1ST OF JULY, 1851, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1852.

	Punchions.	Hhds.	Qr. casks.	Cases.
Martell & Co.....	1,017	11,706	4,283	449
Jas. Hennessy & Co.....	1,334	8,169	5,003	2,366
George Salignac.....	561	3,405	2,774	2,338
Otard, Dupuy & Co.....	316	1,600	1,172	1,079
Sundry parties.....	698	7,287	9,147	31,766
Total.....	3,956	32,167	23,924	37,998

ROCHESTER FLOUR TRADE.

QUANTITY OF FLOUR SHIPPED FROM ROCHESTER IN EACH MONTH OF THE SEASON OF 1851, COMPARED WITH FOUR PREVIOUS YEARS, AS PUBLISHED IN THE ROCHESTER DEMOCRAT.

	1851.	1850.	1849.	1848.	1847.
April	52,152	38,039
May	61,758	56,641	89,508	93,279	127,059
June	29,616	35,665	58,081	67,585	74,932
July	40,805	33,301	40,833	51,958	78,390
August.....	43,390	58,445	56,792	67,753	61,965
September.....	63,887	88,196	77,486	92,396	74,474
October	112,637	94,348	153,004	98,946	111,030
November.....	96,683	127,291	124,411	108,865	103,712
December	8,447	1,044	651
Total	500,330	552,729	570,757	584,426	631,574

QUANTITIES SHIPPED FOR SERIES OF YEARS.

1844.....bbls.	400,388	1848.....bbls.	584,426
1845.....	518,318	1849.....	570,757
1846.....	540,232	1850.....	552,729
1847.....	631,574	1851.....	500,330

The Rochester and Syracuse Railroad carried 20,513 barrels in 1851. This is a small comparative amount. In 1848 that road took 58,137 barrels, and in 1850 about 30,000 barrels. The amount of flour left here by canal during the year is 26,888 barrels. Last year there were 44,443 barrels left by canal. The Western Railroad during 1851 brought down 49,000 barrels, in 1850, a little more than that. Adding to the amount shipped by canal, the difference in the amount left here during the year, and the shipments are still less than any previous year named, excepting 1844-5.

To the amount shipped must be added the amount consumed by 40,000 inhabitants, and by a large number of people living in the suburbs and vicinity.

The amount of wheat left here by both canals for two years is as follows:—

	1850.		1851.	
	Genesee Valley.	Erie.	Genesee Valley.	Erie.
April.....	9,680	26,638	16,448
May.....	47,876	28,420	86,974	53,387
June.....	36,349	13,485	45,347	36,081
July.....	33,263	47,824	81,491	37,770
August.....	58,576	122,277	59,187	22,294
September.....	50,187	124,018	159,472	18,751
October.....	83,328	149,162	395,990	61,754
November.....	104,915	226,465	178,892	62,287
December.....	29,499	50,735	79,856	40,830
Total.....	453,673	762,286	1,113,857	351,607

The following is the quantity left by both canals for a series of years:—

1844.....bbls.	884,141	1848.....bbls.	1,443,133
1845.....	1,169,281	1849.....	1,426,436
1846.....	1,503,546	1850.....	1,215,759
1847.....	1,778,116	1851.....	1,465,454

The Western Railroad has left 175,000 bushels, which is more by 50,000 than it brought here the year previous.

A rough estimate of the amount of flour manufactured here in the course of a year is 600,000 barrels, to manufacture which, computing five bushels of wheat to each barrel, would require three million bushels. The whole amount left here by canal and railroad is 1,640,454 bushels, leaving 1,359,546 to be made up from receipts by wagons from the country towns. The product of this county is computed at about that amount. A considerable portion of what is grown in this county is brought in by canal, while no small amount is brought from adjoining counties by land carriage. Some wheat is received by lake vessels, both from Canadian and American ports. The amount arriving last year is much smaller than usual, but we have not been able

to obtain the precise figures. Canadian produce dealers have found this an unprofitable market, as their wheat can scarcely compete with Genesee upon paying terms, and they do not often venture to send a cargo to our port.

BRITISH IMPORTS OF SUGAR FROM HER POSSESSIONS.

From a return, printed by order of the British House of Commons, we find that in 1851, 36,777,717 lbs. of sugar were imported from British Possessions, which, as compared with the previous year's imports, shows a decrease of 2,955,326 lbs. Of cocoa 4,349,051 lbs. were imported, being an increase over the previous year of 2,360,454 lbs. Cotton wool was imported to the extent of 123,075,603 lbs., exceeding the imports of 1850 by 3,974,948 lbs. The imports of foreign sugar from all parts amounted last year to 2,296,304 cwts., being more than the previous year by 945,781 cwts. Refined sugar, foreign, was imported to the amount of 53,084 cwts., and of British produce 153 cwts. The sugar imported from British possessions amounted to 5,693,082 cwts. The imports of rum from British possessions amounted to 4,652,232 gallons, being a small increase over the previous year.

COMMERCE OF HOLLAND IN 1852.

By a comparative statement of the imports, exports, and transit of merchandise in Holland during the first six months of 1852, published in the *Staats Courant*, it is shown that the quantity of raw cotton imported in that period is nearly double that imported in the same period of 1851. Cotton yarn also shows an increase of fully one-third; the value of iron imported has been increased by nearly 1,500,000 florins; the quantity of raw sugar, 15,000,000 lbs.; coffee, 10,000,000 lbs.; rice, 6,000,000 lbs.; leaf tobacco, 6,000,000 lbs.; and tin by 1,000,000 lbs. In the exports there has been an increase of 1,200,000 florins' value upon iron, 3,000,000 lbs. upon raw cotton, 8,000,000 lbs. upon coffee, 1,000,000 lbs. upon sundry manufactured goods, 6,500,000 lbs. upon rice, 600,000 lbs. upon sugar, 6,000,000 lbs. upon leaf tobacco, and 1,000,000 lbs. upon cotton yarns.

THE FOREIGN TRADE OF LONDON.

It appears from a return to Parliament, that in 1841 the number of British vessels which had entered the port of London, engaged in the foreign trade, was 4,016 sailing and 623 steamers, and in ten years—in 1851—the number was 5,190 sailing and 1,403 steamers; while of foreign vessels there were, in 1841, 1,927 sailing and 72 steamers, and last year the number had increased to 3,474 sailing and 274 steam vessels.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

BELVIDERE KNOLL AND HOOPER'S STRAITS.

The Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey has communicated to the Secretary of the Treasury the following information, which was published officially for the benefit of mariners:—

COAST-SURVEY STATION, near Petersburg, Va., August 7, 1852.

SIR:—I have the honor to communicate a notice to mariners in relation to buoys recently placed, by request of the collector of Baltimore, on the Belvidere Knoll, near the entrance to the Patapsco, and near a wreck in Hooper's Straits, and respectfully ask authority to publish it.

A buoy painted red, with a white band near the top of the spar, has been placed near the sunken wreck of a collier, in the entrance of Hooper's Straits, (Chesapeake Bay,) which is a dangerous impediment to vessels entering the straits from the northward. The buoy is placed in seventeen feet water, seven yards from the bows of the wreck, with the following bearings by compass:—

Light-ship in Hooper's Straits.....	E. by S.
Tom's point.....	N. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.

Vessels should pass to the westward of the buoy, and approach it no nearer than thirty yards.

A similar buoy has been placed on Belvidere Knoll, S. E. from the Bodkin, (Chesapeake Bay,) and east of the swash channel, into Patapsco River, (Baltimore entrance,) with the following bearings by compass:—

Bodkin's Light-house.....	N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N.
Sandy point.....	S. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.

Very respectfully, yours, &c., A. D. BACHE, Superintendent.

BEACON AT ENTRANCE OF BOMBAY HARBOR.

COMMODORE'S OFFICE, BOMBAY, May 19, 1852.

The beacon on the Island of Kennery, situate at the entrance of Bombay Harbor, the completion of which was made known by a notification published in the Bombay Government *Gazette*, and dated April 3d, 1851, having been partially destroyed by the heavy rains of the monsoon, was taken down.

A new beacon has since been commenced on, and is now sufficiently advanced towards completion to be visible to vessels approaching the harbor, and it is expected will be entirely finished by the 1st of June next.

The new beacon is of a cylindrical form, and rises to the height of 70 feet above the foundation.

The beacon is painted black, and can be seen at a distance of 16 miles on a clear day.

The following are a few of the bearings from Kennery:—

Outer light.....	N. by W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W. $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles.
Light-house.....	N. $11\frac{1}{2}$ miles.
Inner light.....	N. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. 11 miles.
Northern light.....	N. E. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. 8 miles.

BOQUERON CHANNEL, PORT OF CALLAO.

The following notice to mariners is extracted from a letter of Lloyds' agent at Callao, dated June 25th, 1852:—

"The channel (Boqueron) is not the usual one to enter the port, and lately a number of vessels have come on shore from attempting to come in that way, rather than the ordinary one round the north point of the island of San Lorenzo. The Peruvian vessels generally enter by the former channel, but most of them are small, and the masters are, by practice, well acquainted with it. The Peruvian government have prohibited vessels laden with guano from entering by the Boqueron Channel, and as it is not a safe one for persons unacquainted with it, we consider that the underwriters and masters of vessels should be aware of the risk and danger incurred."

BEARINGS OFF BULL'S BAY LIGHT-HOUSE.

Bring the light-house on the north-east of Bull's Island to bear N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. by compass, and run for it until over the bar, then follow the beach round by the lead, until the point of the island gives you a harbor. This course will give you not less than nine feet on the bar at low tide, rise of tide about six feet.

LIGHT-HOUSE ON BULL'S ISLAND.

The light-house lately constructed on Bull's Island, about 30 miles north of Charleston, was lighted on the 1st of August. Bull's Bay affords a safe anchorage ground for vessels of light draft, which may be obliged to seek a safe harbor by stress of weather.

W. J. GRAYSON, Superintendent.

NOTICE TO UNITED STATES CONSULS.

Our consuls abroad will serve the interest of Commerce and Navigation by forwarding to the Editor of the *Merchants' Magazine* any authentic information touching light-houses, port charges, &c., &c.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

SPANISH COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

We are enabled, through ALEXANDER BURTON, Esq., United States Consul at Cadiz, Spain, to lay before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* the subjoined information in relation to the Spanish tariff of 1849, &c. :—

The Spanish Custom-House Tariff of 1849 has undergone modifications in the names of some articles of importation, principally of European manufacture, as also in regard to the duties payable thereon, of all which the Spanish Government has recently ordered the publication.

The decree of 17th December last, relative to port dues on vessels arriving in Spain, went into operation the 1st of February last.

The shipping of the United States continues subject to the payment of the following duties :—

Light-house, 2 reals; anchorage, 2 reals; loading, 5 reals; unloading, 5 reals; per ton of 2 000 pounds Spanish; and one-eighth is added to the English tonnage of 20 cwt., to reduce it to the Spanish ton of 20 quintals.

Anchorage and light money to be paid at the port first touched at; loading and unloading as often as either takes place.

Vessels coming strictly in ballast, and loading salt at Cadiz, are exempt from light duty, but subject to the payment of all the other dues.

A consumption duty is levied on the provisions brought into port by vessels and used on board by their crews and passengers. This duty may be assessed on difference between the quantity of provisions manifested at time of entry and what may exist at the time of clearing, duty being charged on the excess; but in order to avoid such a vexatious inspection, it is permitted, by agreement with the Administration of Contributions, to compound at four marvedis per day for each person on board.

The sanitary regulations in regard to quarantine remain without alteration since December 31st, 1850.

The pilotage from and to sea, and also the health office, charges for visitor and tender on vessels and cargo; and searchers' fees are regulated by a tariff of fifty years' standing.

A royal order of the 25th of April, explanatory of that of 17th of December last, says, that the charges for anchorage, loading and unloading, are to be exacted from vessels in all ports of the Peninsula; and by ports is to be understood those points of the coast where artificial works may have been constructed, to afford shelter and secure means of loading, without more exception than roadsteads and open bays (*radas y calas abiestas*). Under this order of the 25th of April, the chief of the custom-house at Algeciras has given notice to the foreign vice-consular agents there resident, that the anchorage duty will be exacted from all foreign vessels entering that bay for shelter or other cause (*arribada forzosa*); and claims the delivery of manifests and crew lists. The object is probably to oblige all wind-bound vessels so anchoring, and without performing any mercantile operation, to enter and clear at the custom-house, thus causing delay and increase of expenses, ruinous to voyages of vessels with cargoes of fruit and other perishable articles.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION, BETWEEN THE U. S. & GUATEMALA.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Whereas a General Convention of Peace, Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between the United States of America and the Republic of Guatemala, was concluded and signed in the city of Guatemala, by the respective Plenipotentiaries, on the third day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-nine; which Convention, being in the English and Spanish languages, is, word for word, as follows :
General Convention of peace, amity, Commerce and navigation, between the United States of America and the republic of Guatemala.

The United States of America and the republic of Guatemala, desiring to make firm and permanent the peace and friendship which happily prevails between both

nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear, distinct, and positive, the rules which shall in future be religiously observed between the one and the other, by means of a treaty or general convention of peace, friendship, commerce and navigation.

For this most desirable object, the President of the United States of America has conferred full powers on Elijah Hise, charge d'affaires of the United States near this republic, and the Executive Power of the republic of Guatemala on the Sr. Ldo D. Jose Mariano Rodriguez, Secretary of State and of the Department of Foreign Relations, who, after having exchanged their full said powers in due and proper form, have agreed to the following articles:

ARTICLE I. There shall be a perfect, firm, and inviolable peace and sincere friendship between the United States of America and the republic of Guatemala, in all the extent of their possessions and territories, and between their people and citizens, respectively, without distinction of persons or places.

ART. II. The United States of America and the republic of Guatemala, desiring to live in peace and harmony with all the other nations of the earth, by means of a policy frank and equally friendly to all, engage mutually not to grant any particular favor to other nations, in respect of Commerce and navigation, which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy the same freely, if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation, if the concession was conditional.

ART. III. The two high contracting parties, being likewise desirous of placing the commerce and navigation of their respective countries on the liberal basis of perfect equality and reciprocity, mutually agree that the citizens of each may frequent all the coasts and countries of the other, and reside and trade there in all kinds of produce, manufactures and merchandise, and they shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions in navigation and commerce which native citizens do or shall enjoy; submitting themselves to the laws, decrees, and usages there established, to which native citizens are subjected. But it is understood that this article does not include the coasting trade of either country, the regulation of which is reserved to the parties, respectively, according to their own separate laws.

ART. IV. They likewise agree, that whatever kind of produce, manufacturer, merchandise of any foreign country can be from time to time lawfully imported into the United States in their own vessels, may be also imported in vessels of the republic of Guatemala; and that no higher or other duties upon the tonnage of the vessels or her cargo shall be levied and collected, whether the importation be made in vessels of the one country or the other: and, in like manner, that whatever kind of produce, manufacture, or merchandise of any foreign country can be from time to time lawfully imported into the republic of Guatemala in its own vessels, may be also imported in vessels of the United States; and that no higher or other duties upon the tonnage of the vessel or her cargo shall be levied and collected, whether the importation be made in vessels of the one country or of the other. And they further agree, that whatever may be lawfully exported or re-exported from the one country in its own vessels to any foreign country, may be in like manner exported or re-exported in vessels of the other country. And the same bounties, duties, and drawbacks shall be allowed and collected, whether such exportation or re-exportation be made in vessels of the United States or of the republic of Guatemala.

ART. V.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any articles the produce or manufactures of the republic of Guatemala, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the republic of Guatemala of any articles the produce or manufactures of the United States, than are or shall be payable in like articles being the produce or manufactures of any other foreign country; nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed in either of the two countries on the exportation of any articles to the United States or to the republic of Guatemala, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the exportation or importation of any articles the produce or manufactures of the United States or of the republic of Guatemala, to or from the territories of the United States, or to or from the territories of the republic of Guatemala, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

ART. VI. It is likewise agreed, that it shall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ships, and other citizens of both countries, to manage themselves their own business in all the ports and places subject to the jurisdiction of each other, as well with respect to the consignment and sale of their goods and merchandise, by wholesale or retail, as with respect to the loading, unloading, and sending off their

ships; they being in all these cases to be treated as citizens of the country in which they reside, or at least to be placed on a footing with the subjects or citizens of the most favored nations.

ART. VII. The citizens of neither of the contracting parties shall be liable to any embargo, nor be detained with their vessels, cargoes, merchandise, or effects, for any military expedition, nor for any public or private purpose whatever, without allowing to those interested a sufficient indemnification.

ART. VIII. Whenever the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be forced to seek refuge or asylum in the rivers, bays, ports, or dominions of the other with their vessels, whether merchant or of war, public or private, through stress of weather, pursuit of pirates or enemies, they shall be received and treated with humanity, giving to them all favor and protection for repairing their ships, procuring provisions, and placing themselves in a situation to continue their voyage without obstacle or hindrance of any kind.

ART. IX. All the ships, merchandise, and effects belonging to the citizens of one of the contracting parties, which may be captured by pirates, whether within the limits of its jurisdiction or on the high seas, may be carried or found in the rivers, roads, bays, ports, or dominions of the other, shall be delivered up to the owners; they proving in due and proper form their rights, before the competent tribunals; it being well understood that the claim should be made within the term of one year, by the parties themselves, their attorneys, or agents of their respective governments.

ART. X. When any vessel belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be wrecked, foundered, or shall suffer any damage, on the coasts or within the dominions of the other, there shall be given to them all assistance and protection, in the same manner which is usual and customary with the vessels of the nation where the damage happens, permitting them to unload the said vessel (if necessary) of its merchandise and effects, without exacting for it any duty, impost, or contribution whatever, provided the same be exported.

ART. XI. The citizens of each of the contracting parties shall have power to dispose of their personal goods within the jurisdiction of the other, by sale, donation, testament, or otherwise, and their representatives, being citizens of the other party, shall succeed to their said personal goods whether by testament or *ab intestato*, and they may take possession thereof, by themselves or others acting for them, and dispose of the same at their will, paying such dues only as the inhabitants of the country wherein said goods are or shall be subject to pay in like cases. And if, in the case of real estate, the said heirs would be prevented from entering into the possession of the inheritance on account of their character of aliens, there shall be granted to them the term of three years to dispose of the same as they may think proper, and to withdraw the proceeds, without molestation, and exempt from all duties of detraction on the part of the government of the respective States.

ART. XII. Both the contracting parties promise and engage formally to give their special protection to the persons and property of the citizens of each other, of all occupations, who may be in the territories subject to the jurisdiction of the one or of the other, transient or dwelling therein, leaving open and free to them the tribunals of justice for their judicial recourse, on the same terms which are usual and customary with the natives or citizens of the country in which they may be; for which they may employ, in defense of their rights, such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors as they may judge proper in all their trials at law; and such citizens or agents shall have free opportunity to be present at the decisions and sentences of the tribunals in all cases which may concern them, and likewise at the taking of all examinations and evidence which may be exhibited in the said trials.

ART. XIII. It is likewise agreed, that the most perfect and entire security of conscience shall be enjoyed by the citizens of both the contracting parties in the countries subject to the jurisdiction of the one and the other, without their being liable to be disturbed or molested on account of their religious belief, so long as they respect the laws and established usages of the country. Moreover, the bodies of the citizens of one of the contracting parties who may die in the territories of the other be buried in the usual burying-grounds, or in other decent or suitable places, and shall be protected from violation or disturbance.

ART. XIV. It shall be lawful for the citizens of the United States of America and of the Republic of Guatemala to sail with their ships, with all manner of liberty and security, no distinction being made who are the proprietors of the merchandise laden thereon, from any port, to the places of those who now are or hereafter shall be at enmity with either of the contracting parties. It shall likewise be lawful for the citi-

zens aforesaid to sail with the ships and merchandise aforementioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security, from the places, ports, and havens of those who are enemies of both or either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy before mentioned to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of one power or under several. And it is hereby stipulated, that free ships shall also give freedom to goods, and that everything shall be deemed to be free and exempt which shall be found on board the ships belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties, although the whole lading or any part thereof should appertain to the enemies of either—contraband goods being always excepted. It is also agreed, in like manner, that the same liberty be extended to persons who are on board a free ship, with this effect: that although they be enemies of both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ship unless they are officers or soldiers, and in the actual service of the enemies; provided, however, and it is hereby agreed, that the stipulations in this article contained, declaring that the flag shall cover the property, shall be understood as applying to those powers only who recognize this principle; but if either of the two contracting parties shall be at war with a third and the other neutral, the flag of the neutral shall cover the property of enemies whose governments acknowledge this principle, and not of others.

ART. XV. It is likewise agreed that in the case where the neutral flag of one of the contracting parties shall protect the property of the enemies of the other, by virtue of the above stipulation, it shall always be understood that the neutral property found on board such enemy's vessels shall be held and considered as enemy's property, and as such shall be liable to detention and confiscation, except such property as was put on board such vessel before the declaration of war, or even afterwards, if it were done without the knowledge of it; but the contracting parties agree that, two months having elapsed after the declaration, their citizens shall not plead ignorance thereof. On the contrary, if the flag of the neutral does not protect the enemy's property, in that case the goods and merchandises of the neutral embarked in such enemy's ship shall be free.

ART. XVI. This liberty of navigation and Commerce shall extend to all kinds of merchandises, excepting those only which are distinguished by the name of contraband; and under this name of contraband or prohibited goods shall be comprehended:—

1st. Cannons, mortars, howitzers, swivels, blunderbusses, muskets, fuses, rifles, carbines, pistols, pikes, swords, sabers, lances, spears, halberds, and grenades, bombs, powder, matches, balls, and all other things belonging to the use of these arms.

2d. Bucklers, helmets, breastplates, coats of mail, infantry belts, and clothes made up in the form and for a military use.

3d. Cavalry belts, and horses, with their furniture.

4th. And generally all kinds of arms and instruments of iron, steel, brass, and copper, or of any other materials, manufactured, prepared, and formed expressly to make war by sea or land.

ART. XVII. All other merchandise and things not comprehended in the articles of contraband explicitly enumerated and classified, as above, shall be held and considered as free, and subjects of free and lawful Commerce, so that they may be carried and transported in the freest manner by both the contracting parties, even to places belonging to an enemy, excepting only those places which are at that time besieged or blockaded; and to avoid all doubt in this particular, it is declared that those places only are besieged or blockaded which are actually attacked by a belligerent force capable of preventing the entry of the neutral.

ART. XVIII. The articles of contraband before enumerated and classified, which may be found in a vessel bound for an enemy's port, shall be subject to detention and confiscation, leaving free the rest of the cargo and the ship, that the owners may dispose of them as they see proper. No vessel of either of the two nations shall be detained on the high seas on account of having on board articles of contraband, whenever the master, captain, or supercargo of said vessels will deliver up the articles of contraband to the captor, unless the quantity of such articles be so great and of so large a bulk that they cannot be received on board the capturing ship without great inconvenience; but in this and in all other cases of just detention the vessel detained shall be sent to the nearest convenient and safe port for trial and judgment according to law.

ART. XIX. And whereas it frequently happens that vessels sail for a port or place belonging to an enemy without knowing that the same is besieged, blockaded, or in

vested, it is agreed that every vessel so circumstanced may be turned away from such port or place, but shall not be detained; nor shall any part of her cargo, if not contraband, be confiscated, unless, after warning of such blockade or investment from the commanding officer of the blockading forces, she shall again attempt to enter; but she shall be permitted to go to any other port or place she shall think proper. Nor shall any vessel of either of the parties, that may have entered into such port or place before the same was actually besieged, blockaded, or invested by the other, be restrained from quitting such place with her cargo: nor, if found therein after the reduction and surrender, shall such vessel or her cargo be liable to confiscation, but they shall be restored to the owners thereof.

ART. XX. In order to prevent all kind of disorder in the visiting and examination of the ships and cargoes of both the contracting parties on the high seas, they have agreed, mutually, that whenever a vessel of war, public or private, shall meet with a neutral of the other contracting party, the first shall remain out of cannon shot, and may send its boat, with two or three men only, in order to execute the said examination of the papers concerning the ownership and cargo of the vessel, without causing the least extortion, violence, or ill treatment, for which the commanders of the said armed ships shall be responsible, with their persons and property; for which purpose, the commanders of the said private armed vessels shall, before receiving their commissions, give sufficient security to answer for all the damages they may commit. And it is expressly agreed, that the neutral party shall in no case be required to go on board the examining vessel for the purpose of exhibiting her papers, or for any other purpose whatever.

ART. XXI. To avoid all kind of vexation and abuse in the examination of the papers relating to the ownership of the vessels belonging to the citizens of the two contracting parties, they have agreed, and do agree, that in case one of them should be engaged in war, the ships and vessels belonging to the citizens of the other must be furnished with sea-letters or passports expressing the name, property, and bulk of the ship, as also the name and place of habitation of the master or commander of the said vessel, in order that it may thereby appear that the ship really and truly belongs to the citizens of one of the parties. They have likewise agreed, that such ships, being laden, besides the said sea-letters or passports, shall also be provided with certificates containing the several particulars of the cargo and the place whence the ship sailed, so that it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods be on board the same; which certificates shall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ship sailed in the accustomed form; without which requisites said vessel may be detained to be adjudged by the competent tribunal, and may be declared legal prize, unless the said defect shall be satisfied or supplied by testimony entirely equivalent.

ART. XXII. It is further agreed, that the stipulations above expressed relative to the visiting and examination of vessels shall apply only to those which sail without convoy; and when said vessels shall be under convoy, the verbal declaration of the commander of the convoy, on his word of honor, that the vessels under his protection belong to the nation whose flag he carries, and, when they are bound to an enemy's port, that they have no contraband goods on board, shall be sufficient.

ART. XXIII. It is further agreed, that in all cases the established courts for prize causes in the country to which the prizes may be conducted shall alone take cognizance of them. And whenever such tribunal of either party shall pronounce judgment against any vessel, or goods, or property claimed by the citizens of the other party, the sentence or decree shall mention the reasons or motives on which the same shall have been founded; and an authenticated copy of the sentence or decree, and of all the proceedings in the case, shall, if demanded, be delivered to the commander or agent of said vessel without any delay, he paying the legal fees for the same.

ART. XXIV. Whenever one of the contracting parties shall be engaged in war with another State, no citizen of the other contracting party shall accept a commission or letter of marque for the purpose of assisting or co-operating hostilely with the said enemy against the said party so at war, under the pain of being treated as a pirate.

ART. XXV. If by any fatality (which cannot be expected, and which God forbid) the two contracting parties should be engaged in a war with each other, they have agreed, and do agree, now for then, that there shall be allowed the term of six months to the merchants residing on the coasts and in the ports of each other, and the term of one year to those who dwell in the interior, to arrange their business and transport their effects wherever they please, giving to them the safe conduct necessary for it,

which may serve as a sufficient protection until they arrive at the designated port. The citizens of all other occupations who may be established in the territories or dominions of the United States of America and the Republic of Guatemala shall be respected and maintained in the full enjoyment of their personal liberty and property, unless their particular conduct shall cause them to forfeit this protection, which, in consideration of humanity, the contracting parties engage to give them.

ART. XXVI. Neither the debts due from individuals of the one nation to individuals of the other, nor shares nor moneys which they may have in public funds or in public or private banks, shall ever, in any event of war or of national difference, be sequestered or confiscated.

ART. XXVII. Both the contracting parties, being desirous of avoiding all inequality in relation to their public communications and official intercourse, have agreed, and do agree, to grant to the envoys, ministers, and other public agents, the same favors, immunities, and exemptions which those of the most favored nation do or shall enjoy; it being understood that whatever favors, immunities, or privileges the United States of America or the republic of Guatemala may find it proper to give the ministers and public agents of any other power, shall, by the same act, be extended to those of each of the contracting parties.

ART. XXVIII. To make more effectual the protection which the United States of America and the republic of Guatemala shall afford in future to the navigation and commerce of the citizens of each other, they agree to receive and admit consuls and vice-consuls in all the ports open to foreign commerce, who shall enjoy in them all the rights, prerogatives, and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the most favored nation; each contracting party, however, remaining at liberty to except those ports and places in which the admission and residence of such consuls and vice-consuls may not seem convenient.

ART. XXIX. In order that the consuls and vice-consuls of the two contracting parties may enjoy the rights, prerogatives, and immunities which belong to them by their public character, they shall, before entering on the exercise of their functions, exhibit their commission or patent in due form to the government to which they are accredited; and, having obtained their *exequatur*, they shall be held and considered as such by all the authorities, magistrates, and inhabitants in the consular district in which they reside.

ART. XXX. It is likewise agreed, that the consuls, their secretaries, officers, and persons attached to the service of consuls, they not being citizens of the country in which the consul resides, shall be exempt from all public service, and also from all kinds of taxes, imposts, and contributions, except those which they shall be obliged to pay on account of Commerce or their property, to which the citizens and inhabitants, native and foreign, of the country in which they reside, are subject; being in everything besides subject to the laws of the respective States. The archives and papers of the consulate shall be respected inviolably, and under no pretext whatever shall any magistrate seize or in any way interfere with them.

ART. XXXI. The said consuls shall have power to require the assistance of the authorities of the country for the arrest, detention, and custody of deserters from the public and private vessels of their country, and for that purpose they shall address themselves to the courts, judges, and officers competent, and shall demand the said deserters in writing, proving, by an exhibition of the registers of the vessel's or ship's roll, or other public documents, that those men were part of the said crews; and on this demand, so proved, (saving, however, where the contrary is proved,) the delivery shall not be refused. Such deserters, when arrested, shall be put at the disposal of the said consuls, and may be put in the public prisons, at the request and expense of those who reclaim them, to be sent to the ships to which they belonged, or to others of the same nation. But if they be not sent back within two months, to be counted from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall be no more arrested for the same cause.

ART. XXXII. For the purpose of more effectually protecting their Commerce and navigation, the two contracting parties do hereby agree, as soon hereafter as circumstances will permit, to form a consular convention, which shall declare specially the powers and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the respective parties.

ART. XXXIII. The United States of America and the republic of Guatemala, desiring to make as durable as circumstances will permit, the relations which are to be established between the two parties by virtue of this treaty, or by general convention of peace, amity, Commerce, and navigation, have declared solemnly, and do agree to, the following points:—

1st. The present treaty shall remain in full force and virtue for the term of twelve years, to be counted from the day of the exchange of the ratifications, and further until the end of one year after either of the contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of said term of twelve years. And it is hereby agreed between them, that on the expiration of one year after such notice shall have been received by either from the other party, this treaty, in all its parts relative to Commerce and navigation, shall altogether cease and determine, and in all those parts which relate to peace and friendship it shall be perpetually binding on both powers.

2d. If any one or more of the citizens of either party shall infringe any of the articles of this treaty, such citizens shall be held personally responsible for the same, and the harmony and good correspondence between the nations shall not be interrupted thereby; each party engaging in no way to protect the offender or sanction such violation.

3d. If, (which indeed cannot be expected,) unfortunately, any of the articles contained in the present treaty shall be violated or infringed in any other way whatever, it is expressly stipulated that neither of the contracting parties will order or authorize any acts of reprisal, nor declare war against the other, on complaints of injuries or damages, until the said party considering itself offended shall first have presented to the other a statement of such injuries or damages, verified by competent proof, and demanded justice and satisfaction, and the same shall have been either refused or unreasonably delayed.

4th. Nothing in this treaty contained shall, however, be construed or operate contrary to former and existing public treaties with other sovereigns or States.

The present treaty of peace, amity, Commerce, and navigation, shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by the government of the republic of Guatemala, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the city of Washington or Guatemala within *eighteen* months, counted from the date of the signature hereof, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the plenipotentiaries of the United States of America and of the republic of Guatemala, have signed and sealed these presents, in the city of Guatemala, this third day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-nine,

[L. s.] ELIJAH HISE,
[L. s.] J. MARIANO RODRIGUEZ.

And whereas the said convention has been duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications of the same have been exchanged—

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, MILLARD FILLMORE, President of the United States of America, have caused the said convention to be made public, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this twenty-eighth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, and of the independence of the United States of America the seventy-seventh.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

By the President:

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

OF ALLOWANCE FOR TARE ON MERCHANDISE.

CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, JUNE 23, 1852.

The Supreme Court of the United States, in a recent decision made in the case of Cornelius W. Lawrence, plaintiff in error, vs. John Caswell and Solomon Caswell, having laid down a principle adverse to the construction and practice heretofore prevailing upon the subject of allowances for tare, draft, leakage, breakage, &c., on imported merchandise, it becomes the duty of the department to instruct the collectors and the officers of the customs, that hereafter in the assessment of duties on imported

merchandise, none of the allowances specified in the fifty-eighth and fifty-ninth sections of the General Collection Act of 2d March, 1799, are to be made, the court having intimated such allowances to be inapplicable to any article of merchandise subject under the existing Tariff Act to the payment of *ad valorem* duty.

No more than the actual weight of the cask or package can therefore in any case be allowed; and if the collector has any doubt as to the correctness of such weight or tare, in any invoice offered for entry, it will be his duty to ascertain the correctness of it by emptying such number of packages as he may think advisable, in order to ascertain the actual weight or tare of the cask or package, but in no instance is any allowance to be made on a claim for alleged erroneous tare, or for other causes, actual damage only excepted, where the full gross or net weight landed is equal to the invoice weight. So likewise in case there should have been any shrinkage or drying in an article during the voyage of importation, no allowance can be made for such shrinkage and drying where the full quantity shipped of such article has been landed, though in all cases actual drainage, leakage, or damage, will be allowed as heretofore.

The Supreme Court in the above decision says, "when the Act of 1846 changed the duty on brandy from a specific one on the gallon to an *ad valorem* one, it was no longer within the provisions of the Act of 1799, and consequently no longer entitled to the deduction of the 2 per cent. Under this decision, the deduction of the said 2 per cent will in no case be allowed on liquids subject to gauge.

As regards the return of duties illegally exacted, the court says: "In order that the opinion of the court may not be misunderstood, that when we speak of duties illegally exacted, the court mean to confine the opinion to cases like the present, in which the duty demanded was paid under protest, stating specially the ground of objection. Where no such protest is made, the duties are not illegally exacted in the legal sense of the term: for the law has confided to the Secretary of the Treasury the power of deciding in the first instance upon the amount of duties due on the importation. And if the party acquiesces, and does not by his protest appeal to the judicial tribunals, the duty paid is not illegally exacted, but is paid in obedience to the decision of the tribunal to which the law has confided the power of deciding the question.

"Money is often paid under the decision of an inferior court, without appeal, under the construction of a law which is afterwards in some other case, in a higher and superior court, determined to have an erroneous construction. But money thus paid is not illegally exacted. Nor are duties illegally exacted where they are paid under the decision of the Collector, sanctioned by the Secretary of the Treasury, and without appealing from that decision to the judicial tribunals by a proper and legal protest."

Under this opinion of the court, no duties will hereafter be returned except in such cases where a protest, in writing, may have been or shall be made at the time, stating specially the ground of objection, nor will the allowances specified in sections fifty-eight and fifty-nine of the Act of 2d March, 1799, be allowed in any claim for return duties on importations heretofore made.

Any previous circular instructions or regulations conflicting with the preceding are hereby repealed.

WM. L. HODGE, Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

TARIFF OF THE PERUVIAN GOVERNMENT.

Information has been communicated to the Department of State, by EDWARD McCALL, Esq., Consul of the United States at Lima, that the new tariff, or rates of duties, lately approved and published by order of the Peruvian Government, goes into effect on all goods or merchandise imported from the United States on the 20th of September next. This tariff very materially modifies the rate of duties at present collected on foreign merchandise, and particularly on the staple articles of domestic cottons imported from the United States. These cottons are now subject to a duty of 40 per cent, but after the 20th of September they will pay only 15 per cent; flour will pay 30 per cent—about one-third of the duty now exacted. Chairs, wood and cane seats, 25 per cent; furniture, all classes, 30; silks and linens, all classes, 28; woollens, all classes, 25.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

POPULATION AND REPRESENTATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We understand, says the *National Intelligencer*, that on the 2d of August, 1852, the Secretary of the Interior, in compliance with the provisions of the act of Congress, approved 23d May, 1850, providing for the taking of the seventh and subsequent censuses, transmitted to the House of Representatives his official certificate of the number of representatives apportioned to each State under the last or Seventh Enumeration of the Inhabitants of the United States, and that certificates are being prepared to be sent to the Executive of each State of the number to which such State is entitled. These certificates are in accordance with and founded upon the following table, showing the federal and representative population of the United States on the 1st day of June, 1850:—

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, SEVENTH CENSUS, 1850, WITH THE APPORTIONMENT OF REPRESENTATION AND THE FRACTIONS FOR EACH STATE.

States.	Whites.	Free colored.	Total.	Slaves.	Federal representative population.	Representations of each State. No. Fractions.
Maine.....	581,813	1,356	583,169	583,169	6 22,649
New Hampshire...	317,456	520	317,976	317,976	3 37,716
Vermont.....	313,402	718	314,120	314,120	3 33,860
Massachusetts.....	985,704	8,795	994,499	994,499	11 *60,299
Rhode Island.....	143,875	3,669	147,544	147,544	2 *54,124
Connecticut.....	363,305	7,486	370,791	370,791	4 *90,531
New York.....	3,049,457	47,937	3,097,394	3,097,394	33 14,534
Pennsylvania.....	2,258,463	53,323	2,211,786	2,211,786	25 *69,706
Ohio.....	1,956,108	24,300	1,980,408	1,980,408	21 18,588
Indiana.....	977,628	10,788	988,416	988,416	11 *54,216
Illinois.....	846,104	5,366	851,470	851,470	9 10,690
Michigan.....	395,097	2,557	397,654	397,654	4 23,974
Wisconsin.....	304,565	626	305,191	305,191	3 24,931
Iowa.....	191,879	335	192,214	192,214	2 5,374
California.....	91,632	965	92,597	92,597	†2
New Jersey.....	465,523	23,807	489,330	225	489,465	5 22,365
Delaware.....	71,169	18,073	89,242	2,290	90,616	1
Maryland.....	417,943	74,723	492,666	90,368	546,886	6 *79,786
Virginia.....	895,304	53,829	949,133	472,528	1,232,649	13 18,189
North Carolina....	553,118	27,373	580,491	288,412	753,538	8 6,178
South Carolina....	274,623	8,900	283,523	384,984	514,513	6 *47,413
Georgia.....	521,438	2,880	524,318	381,681	753,326	8 5,966
Alabama.....	426,486	2,293	428,779	342,892	634,514	7 *73,994
Mississippi.....	295,738	898	296,637	309,898	482,595	5 15,495
Louisiana.....	255,416	17,537	272,953	244,786	419,824	4 46,144
Tennessee.....	756,893	6,271	763,164	239,461	906,840	10 *66,060
Kentucky.....	761,688	9,736	771,424	210,981	898,012	10 *57,232
Missouri.....	592,077	2,544	594,621	87,422	647,074	7 *88,554
Arkansas.....	162,068	589	162,657	46,982	190,846	2 4,006
Florida.....	47,167	925	48,092	39,309	71,677	1
Texas.....	154,100	331	154,431	58,161	189,327	2 2,487
Dist. of Columbia..	38,027	9,973	48,000	3,677
Minnesota.....	6,038	39	6,077
New Mexico.....	61,530	17	61,547
Oregon.....	13,087	206	13,293
Utah.....	11,330	24	11,354	26

* All the States marked thus (*) have an additional member for the fraction.
 † One representative added for California under the act of Congress, approved 30th July, 1852.

TOTAL POPULATION IN THE THIRTY-ONE STATES.

Whites.....	19,427,259	
Free colored.....	419,451	
		19,846,710
Slaves.....		3,200,380
Federal representative population.....		21,766,931
Federal representative ratio.....		93,420

TOTAL POPULATION, INCLUDING THE TERRITORIES.

Whites.....	19,557,271
Free colored.....	429,710
Slaves.....	3,204,093
Total.....	23,191,074

COMPLETE CENSUS OF THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA IN 1851.

We are indebted to D. McCulloch, Esq., Secretary to the Board of Statistics (Financial Secretary's office) for complete "statistics of each county of the British Province of Nova Scotia, exhibiting a view of the population, pursuits, industry, and resources of the country, within each county of the Province, as taken in 1851." Under the present head we give all that relates to population, according to the classification of the official document from which the subjoined statements are copied:—

NUMBER OF PERSONS IN THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA ENGAGED IN LEARNED PROFESSIONS, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, MECHANICS, AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, NAVIGATION, AND LUMBERING.

COUNTIES.	No. of clergy-men.....	No. of lawyers.	No. of doctors.	No. of merchants and traders...	No. of persons employed in manufactures.	No. of mechanics.....	No. of farmers..	No. of persons engaged in the fisheries.....	No. of registered seamen.....	No. of persons employed at sea.....	No. of persons engaged in lumbering.....	No. of persons engaged in
Halifax.....	44	57	31	760	253	2,023	2,099	1,823	86	271	92	
Lunenburg... ..	11	5	9	324	300	380	3,018	1,155	24	178	192	
Queens.....	15	4	6	85	293	257	400	316	..	135	289	
Shelburne... ..	13	2	5	43	105	337	317	1,806	282	263	54	
Yarmouth... ..	16	3	8	135	125	449	1,151	406	210	553	17	
Digby.....	14	2	7	89	134	279	1,331	202	48	350	21	
Annapolis... ..	21	10	11	93	178	476	1,993	48	23	266	7	
Kings.....	21	7	10	81	107	486	2,500	22	46	113	4	
Hants.....	17	5	6	74	225	404	1,822	3	105	267	10	
Cumberland..	16	11	15	80	482	624	1,932	11	99	138	220	
Colchester... ..	17	5	8	64	367	502	2,333	42	74	189	223	
Pictou.....	21	9	11	159	280	1,089	3,463	5	204	55	13	
Sydney... ..	12	7	2	62	73	301	2,113	197	52	83	..	
Guysboro'... ..	16	4	3	107	57	242	1,248	1,222	81	125	38	
Inverness... ..	12	2	2	73	87	373	2,118	473	41	108	7	
Richmond... ..	4	3	4	67	40	171	490	1,022	3	594	1	
Cape Breton. } ..	18	7	7	119	94	502	3,276	1,124	35	273	66	
Victoria..... }	
Total.....	288	143	145	2,415	3,200	8,895	31,604	9,927	1,413	3,961	1,254	

CENSUS OF THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA, EXHIBITING THE AGGREGATE NUMBERS, AGES, AND SEXES OF EACH DESCRIPTION OF PERSONS.

Counties.	No. of persons under 10 years of age.		No. of persons from 10 to 20 years of age.		No. of persons from 20 to 30 years of age.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Halifax.....	5,408	6,291	4,228	4,659	2,543	3,553
Lunenburg.....	2,576	2,618	1,877	1,860	1,387	1,293
Queens.....	1,107	1,081	975	841	555	550

Counties.	No. of persons under 10 years of age.		No. of persons from 10 to 20 years of age.		No. of persons from 20 to 30 years of age.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Shelburne.....	1,490	1,412	1,909	1,502	714	788
Yarmouth.....	2,227	2,083	1,713	1,645	917	987
Digby.....	2,099	1,912	1,468	1,454	863	941
Annapolis.....	2,214	2,133	1,733	1,653	987	1,181
Kings.....	2,245	2,122	1,720	1,679	1,082	1,086
Hants.....	2,345	2,261	1,719	1,629	1,044	1,168
Cumberland.....	2,442	2,370	1,665	1,680	1,099	1,079
Colchester.....	2,520	2,412	1,912	1,866	1,116	1,142
Pictou.....	4,158	4,038	3,036	3,105	1,772	2,196
Sydney.....	2,095	2,129	1,749	1,788	973	1,161
Guysboro'.....	1,817	1,737	1,405	1,374	834	873
Inverness.....	2,814	2,727	2,906	2,014	1,451	1,397
Richmond.....	1,750	1,650	1,197	1,275	839	872
Cape Breton.....	4,613	4,476	3,359	3,420	2,101	2,118
Victoria.....
Total.....	44,000	43,452	33,791	33,444	20,277	22,385

Counties.	No. of persons from 30 to 40 years of age.		No. of persons from 40 to 50 years of age.		No. of persons above 50 years of age.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Halifax.....	2,485	2,616	1,761	1,608	1,906	1,974
Lunenburg.....	885	843	718	848	640	850
Queens.....	378	593	275	283	392	426
Shelburne.....	496	518	374	370	507	542
Yarmouth.....	652	647	479	456	669	667
Digby.....	637	635	505	454	635	649
Annapolis.....	751	793	580	633	827	801
Kings.....	777	737	527	539	824	800
Hants.....	754	728	585	538	825	734
Cumberland.....	888	772	496	582	755	611
Colchester.....	818	838	585	546	916	798
Pictou.....	1,240	1,359	1,062	922	1,379	1,326
Sydney.....	596	605	428	468	713	762
Guysboro'.....	519	496	351	339	601	492
Inverness.....	820	831	532	507	824	904
Richmond.....	539	521	387	371	498	482
Cape Breton.....	1,380	1,333	971	907	1,467	1,405
Victoria.....
Total.....	14,615	14,665	10,616	10,271	14,378	14,223

Counties.	No. of married persons of both sexes.	No. of widow's.	No. of widows.	No. of rate payers.	No. of paupers.	Deaf and dumb.		Blind.	
						M.	F.	M.	F.
Halifax.....	11,392	380	1,129	4,187	339	23	10	13	13
Lunenburg.....	4,595	85	277	2,469	24	3	1
Queens.....	2,253	61	144	1,260	29	..	3
Shelburne.....	2,868	77	234	1,710	15	2	3	1	3
Yarmouth.....	4,088	85	240	2,197	25	3	6	2	3
Digby.....	3,659	95	213	1,854	65	5	5	3	1
Annapolis.....	4,378	122	306	1,961	56	8	2	5	3
Kings.....	4,286	128	317	2,194	63	7	8	2	3
Hants.....	4,184	126	274	2,304	49	3	2	1	1
Cumberland.....	4,066	97	193	2,048	20	6	5	5	..
Colchester.....	4,701	135	238	2,399	17	7	8	3	2
Pictou.....	7,103	215	539	3,062	117	16	7	5	7
Sydney.....	3,242	99	329	1,788	15	10	4	7	5
Guysboro'.....	3,030	80	198	1,670	32	7	3	7	7
Inverness.....	4,295	129	387	2,298	55	10	17	7	4
Richmond.....	2,993	88	247	1,319	31	5	2	2	2
Cape Breton.....	7,568	236	654	3,668	60	17	12	11	8
Victoria.....
Total.....	78,701	2,238	5,916	38,388	1,072	132	98	74	62

Counties.	Lunatics.		Idiots.		Indians.		Colored persons.		Total pop'n.
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	Males.	Females.	
Halifax.....	30	35	10	6	78	91	733	955	39,112
Lunenburg.....	4	6	4	2	11	10	7	4	16,395
Queens.....	..	1	4	2	25	27	107	106	7,256
Shelburne.....	2	..	4	5	16	9	209	231	10,622
Yarmouth.....	1	3	8	6	11	2	126	121	13,142
Digby.....	..	5	12	11	74	80	226	228	12,252
Annapolis.....	6	3	6	5	54	64	253	230	14,286
Kings.....	3	6	12	3	4	2	95	90	14,138
Hants.....	2	3	7	13	31	33	75	95	14,330
Cumberland.....	..	2	4	3	1	..	61	75	14,339
Colchester.....	3	6	9	5	10	5	10	10	15,469
Pictou.....	8	5	25	9	47	55	13	7	25,593
Sydney.....	4	3	17	8	62	52	73	89	13,467
Guysboro'.....	2	2	6	6	37	25	294	309	10,838
Inverness.....	4	5	15	12	2	7	1	2	16,917
Richmond.....	2	1	11	5	11	8	20	21	10,381
Cape Breton.....	5	4	22	22	50	62	18	14	27,580
Victoria.....
Total.....	76	90	176	123	524	532	2,321	2,587	276,117

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE COLLINS AND CUNARD STEAMERS.

We are indebted to J. H. C. CAMPBELL, Esq., of Boston, for the subjoined statistics of the Collins and Cunard steamers. Mr. Campbell's well-known accuracy as a statistician is a sufficient guaranty for the fidelity of the compilation. The statements for previous periods, published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for September, 1851, and March, 1852, were compiled by Mr. Campbell:—

FOR LIVERPOOL FROM NEW YORK—COLLINS LINE.						
Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Specie.	D.	H.	M.
January 10.....	Pacific.....	49	\$625,510	11	2	30
" 24.....	Atlantic.....	27	245,000	10	23	..
February 7.....	Arctic.....	61	1,040,680	9	18	30
" 21.....	Pacific.....	63	550,000	10	20	30
March 6.....	Baltic.....	31	73,500	12	21	..
" 20.....	Arctic.....	60	11	6	..
April 3.....	Pacific.....	104	2,000	11	18	15
" 17.....	Atlantic.....	124	12	3	..
May 1.....	Arctic.....	138	65,000	10	15	30
" 15.....	Baltic.....	172	75,000	10	20	..
" 29.....	Atlantic.....	165	520,000	10	5	..
June 12.....	Arctic.....	160	450,000	10	13	30
" 26.....	Baltic.....	167	480,000	10	19	5

FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK—COLLINS LINE.						
Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Commander.	D.	H.	M.
January 7.....	Arctic.....	45	Luce.....	13	20	..
" 28.....	Pacific.....	44	Nye.....	15	4	30
February 11.....	Atlantic.....	36	West.....	14	21	30
" 25.....	Arctic.....	20	Luce.....	11	17	30
March 10.....	Pacific.....	40	Nye.....	11
" 24.....	Baltic.....	34	Comstock.....	11	21	15
April 7.....	Arctic.....	47	Luce.....	10	18	..
" 21.....	Pacific.....	83	Nye.....	11	4	..
May 5.....	Atlantic.....	69	West.....	11	9	30
" 19.....	Arctic.....	99	Luce.....	10	19	30
June 2.....	Baltic.....	77	Comstock.....	10	23	30
" 16.....	Atlantic.....	77	West.....	10	3	..
" 30.....	Arctic.....	120	Luce.....	11	2	..

FOR LIVERPOOL FROM NEW YORK—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Specie.	D.	H.	M.
January 14	Africa	50	\$600,253	10	22	30
" 28	Asia	40	500,000	10	10	..
February 11	Niagara	40	958,860	12	1	..
" 25	Canada	32	688,000	11	22	..
March 10	Africa	50	73,000	12	11	..
" 24	Asia	72	84,000	12	21	30
April 7	Europa	60	4,500	11	11	..
" 21	Africa	107	10	19	..
May 5	Asia	113	130,000	10	5	..
" 19	Europa	123	575,000	10	6	..
June 2	Africa	100	408,150	10	11	..
" 16	Asia	157	923,000	10	16	..
" 30	Europa	112	404,000	11	1	30

FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Commander.	D.	H.	M.
January 3	Asia	49	Judkins	13	9	45
" 17	Niagara	47	Stone	20	19	..
" 31	Canada	41	Lang	17	21	..
February 14	Africa	52	Ryrie	14
" 28	Asia	90	Judkins	12	20	..
March 13	Europa	59	Lott	12
" 27	Africa	36	Harrison	11	6	30
April 10	Asia	76	Judkins	10	23	..
" 24	Europa	52	Lott	12	5	30
May 8	Africa	52	Harrison	11	19	30
" 22	Asia	55	Judkins	10	19	..
June 5	Europa	51	Lott	11	4	..
" 19	Africa	80	Harrison	11	12	30

FOR LIVERPOOL FROM BOSTON—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Specie.	D.	H.	M.
January 7	Canada	33	\$25,000	10	21	..
" 21	Cambria	17	65,000	11	10	..
February 4	America	28	152,716	11	4	30
" 18	Europa	16	207,463	11	2	..
March 3	Cambria	10	21,000	12	23	..
" 17	America	13	12	8	..
" 31	Niagara	29	12,000	13	9	15
April 14	Canada	21	13	..	45
" 28	America	44	10	15	..
May 12	Niagara	60	12,250	12	8	45
" 26	Canada	63	241,400	10	11	45
June 9	Cambria	57	157,000	10	23	..
" 23	America	62	289,000	11	6	30

FROM LIVERPOOL TO BOSTON—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Commander.	D.	H.	M.
January 10	America	18	Shannon	16	3	..
" 24	Europa	36	Lott	15	7	..
February 7	Cambria	29	Leitch	15	19	30
" 21	America	23	Shannon	13	..	40
March 6	Niagara	46	Stone	12	8	..
" 20	Canada	63	Lang	11	3	..
April 3	America	47	Shannon	13	3	45
" 17	Niagara	46	Stone	12	12	..
May 1	Canada	51	Lang	12	17	..
" 15	Cambria	52	Douglas	12	17	..
" 29	America	51	Shannon	11	16	30
June 12	Niagara	50	Stone	11	16	..
" 26	Canada	78	Lang	11	2	10

THIRTEEN TRIPS COLLINS LINE TO LIVERPOOL.

	Days.	Hours.	Min.
Total time occupied.....	143	17	50
Average time per trip.....	11	1	..
Quickest trip since January, by Arctic, February 7.....	9	18	20
Longest " " by Baltic, March 6.....	12	21	..
Average number of passengers.....			102

THIRTEEN TRIPS CUNARD LINE TO LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied.....	145	13	30
Average time per trip.....	11	5	..
Quickest trip since January, by Asia, May 5.....	10	5	..
Longest " " " March 24.....	12	21	30
Average number of passengers.....			81

THIRTEEN TRIPS CUNARD LINE BOSTON TO LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied.....	151	23	30
Average time per trip.....	11	16	..
Quickest trip since January, by Canada, May 26.....	10	11	45
Longest " " by Niagara, March 31.....	13	9	15
Average number of passengers.....			35

THIRTEEN TRIPS OF THE COLLINS LINE FROM LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied.....	154	20	15
Average time per trip.....	11	22	..
Quickest trip since January, by Atlantic, June 16.....	10	3	..
Longest " " by Pacific, January 28.....	15	4	30
Average number of passengers.....			61

THIRTEEN TRIPS OF THE CUNARD LINE FROM LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied.....	170	15	45
Average time per trip.....	13	3	3
Quickest trip since January, by Asia, May 22.....	10	19	..
Longest " " by Niagara, January 17.....	20	19	..
Average number of passengers.....			57

THIRTEEN TRIPS OF THE CUNARD LINE TO BOSTON FROM LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied.....	169	5	35
Average time per trip.....	13
Quickest trip since January, by Canada, June 26.....	11	2	10
Longest " " by America, January 10.....	16	3	..
Average number of passengers.....			45

COLLINS LINE.

Total amount of specie shipped since January.....	\$4,126,690
" " number of passengers sailed since January.....	1,321
" " " arrived since January.....	791
Largest " " in, per Arctic, June 30.....	120
" " " out, per Baltic, May 15.....	172
" " amount of specie shipped, per Arctic, February 7.....	\$1,040,680

CUNARD LINE—NEW YORK.

Total amount of specie shipped since January.....	\$5,348,773
" " number of passengers sailed since January.....	1,056
" " " arrived since January.....	740
Largest " " in, per Asia, February 28.....	90
" " " out, per Asia, June 16.....	157
" " amount of specie shipped, per Niagara, February 11.....	\$958,860

CUNARD LINE—BOSTON.

Total amount of specie shipped since January.....	\$1,182,829
" " number of passengers sailed since January.....	453
" " " arrived since January.....	590
Largest " " in, per Canada, June 23.....	78
" " " out, per Canada, May 26.....	63
" " amount of specie shipped, per America, June 23.....	\$289,000

Specie shipped per Collins and Cunard steamers from New York, January to July 1st, 1852.....	\$9,475,468
Specie shipped per Cunard line from Boston, January to July 1st, 1852.....	1,182,829
Total Collins and Cunard since July, 1851.....	32,159,613

COLLINS LINE.

Quickest trip ever performed—	Days.	Hours.	Min.
Outwards, Arctic, Captain Luce, February 7, 1852.....	9	18	30
Inwards, Baltic, Captain Comstock, August 6, 1851.....	9	13	40

CUNARD LINE—NEW YORK.

Outwards, Asia, Captain Judkins, May 7, 1851.....	10	2	..
Inwards, Africa, Captain Ryrie, August 2, 1851.....	10	6	..

CUNARD LINE—BOSTON.

Outwards, Asia, Captain Judkins, December 10, 1851.....	9	20	45
Inwards, Canada, Captain Lang, June 28, 1851.....	10	1	30

The Niagara, which sailed from Liverpool January 17th, put into Halifax in distress, having been at sea nearly seventeen days, and encountering severe weather. The Atlantic sailed from Liverpool February 11th, and when within six hundred miles of New York broke a part of her machinery connecting with the larboard crank, which detained her two days. The America from Liverpool, February 21st, was seized in Boston, March 8, by United States officers, on a charge of smuggling. Several merchants of high standing immediately gave the required bonds, and she sailed on her regular day. Very little specie has been brought by either line. The Canada, March 20, America, April 3d, and Pacific, April 21st, each delivered small shipments. It will be seen that the Collins line yet takes the lead, both as regards passengers and speed. Captain Luce, of the Arctic, has the honor of having accomplished the passage from New York to Liverpool in nine days eighteen hours and thirty minutes.

This, with the famous trip of Captain Comstock in the Baltic, places the Collins line in a proud position. The steamship Arabia, now finishing for the Cunarders, is expected to prove a formidable rival for Collins, but it must not be supposed that improvements cannot be made upon the models of the American ships. J. H. C. C.

STATISTICS OF THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

Incorporated in 1833; opened throughout October, 1834; length, 156 miles; length of double track, 54 miles; cost, January 1, 1852, \$9,953,700.

The following table exhibits the operations of the road, during the last ten years; its cost, and the market price of the stock, at the beginning of each year. The item of "interest" is not included in the receipts or expenses:—

Year.	Cost.	Val., p'r shr.	Gross rec'pts.	Run'g expenses.	Net income.	Div. p.c.
1842.....	\$80	\$512,689	\$266,619	\$246,070	.
1843.....	\$7,087,200	45	573,882	303,973	269,909	.
1844.....	7,501,200	53	753,753	314,074	439,679	3
1845.....	7,686,200	91	813,480	370,621	442,859	5
1846.....	7,741,700	96	*878,418	*412,679	*465,739	6
1847.....	8,185,800	99	1,325,327	676,689	648,647	8
1848.....	8,769,500	105	1,332,068	652,357	679,711	8
1849.....	9,900,100	102	1,343,810	588,322	755,488	8
1850.....	9,926,900	101	1,369,514	607,549	761,965	8
1851.....	9,963,700	104	1,353,895	597,756	757,139	8
Total.....	10,256,845	4,790,639	5,466,206	A. 5 2-5

THE COAL TRAFFIC OF RAILWAYS.

As we mentioned a few weeks back, the Great Western Railway Company will shortly, by means of the South Wales Line, commence to bring coals to London. In the neighborhood of the South Wales Line there are coals in great quantities and of

* For eleven months.

various qualities—some of the best. The Great Western will, we believe, transport coal to London at a rate of charge which the Marquis of Salisbury and Mr. Grahame say is not only unremunerative, but productive of actual loss. It would seem that the Great Western are about to commit the same gross blunder that the Great Northern now persist in—namely, to carry coals long distances for (about) one half-penny per ton per mile! The observations of the Canal Directors, (the Marquis and Mr. Grahame,) instead of deterring railway directors from carrying the coal traffic, seem to spur them on in the enterprise. The fact is, the more the subject is investigated, the more apparent it is that under good management, and in consideration of large quantities and long distances, coals can be profitably carried for the charge of about one half-penny per ton per mile.

The Oxford, Worcester and Wolverhampton Railway Company has also its eye upon a large coal traffic.

In short, there is scarcely a line in the kingdom which will not in time carry coals.

How far will this circumstance affect the Great Northern's coal traffic? The answer is to be found in the fact that London alone consumes, in the course of a year, three-and-a-half millions of tons of coal. The utmost the Great Northern, in their sanguineness, expect to carry, is about three-fourths of a million tons a year, and only a portion of this to London. Therefore, there is plenty of scope for all the London railways to carry coals without injury to one another.

That against which railways will compete, is water-carriage—the canals and the sea.

We think that it is highly probable the coal traffic will pass from water conveyance to railway, as passengers have from coaches.

If railways can carry coals as cheaply as canals, they will certainly do it better; for on railways there are no periodical stoppages by reason of bad weather; no frightful loss of life or property (except that which occurs now and then from gross mismanagement—which is within the control of man, and in the course of time will be entirely prevented); and the coals are delivered in better condition.

The railways will, there can be no doubt, confer an immense benefit on the public by the carriage of coals. Not only will the public have them in better condition for use, but there will be no room for jobbing. The traders will not be enabled to run up prices enormously in severe weather. The supply will be more regular.

The articles which some time ago appeared in the Journal on this subject, have called forth the valuable communication of Mr. E. Hasket Derby, of Boston, America, which now appears in another column. Mr. Derby is a first-rate authority on the traffic of American railways. As an American railway director, his position alone is sufficient to command a certain degree of respect; but having devoted his time and talents to the study of the American railway system, he is entitled to the utmost deference on the subject.

He shows that in America, where the railways labor under some disadvantages in the carriage of heavy traffic—fuel, for one thing, being dearer—water-carriage could not stand against the competition of railway; that the railway could carry coals at a cheap rate with profit. The coal traffic of the American railway in question is carried at about five-eighths of a penny per ton per mile. This is as low, or somewhat lower than the English Great Northern's charge. The American charge of five-eighths of a penny per ton per mile is for a run of ninety-five miles. The Great Northern's charge of one half-penny per ton per mile is for a run of one hundred and seventy-six miles; but for their shorter distances the Great Northern charge more than one half-penny per ton per mile—about one penny, or double. The average receipt of the Great Northern from coals is, we believe, more than the American charge of five-eighths of a penny per ton-mile, while their average run would be full as long. Yet the American railway company, and notwithstanding their additional expenses of working, extract a profit from their coal traffic of just about 50 per cent, the expenses including the cost of back carriage. This fact powerfully supports the position which it will be remembered we, in our articles on the coal traffic referred to, took up—namely, that the Great Northern carry their coals at a profit of about 50 per cent.

The American line carries very little else than coal. Its passengers are not many, and the tons of coal are to the tons of merchandise carried as 1,650,270 tons to 63,807 tons. Of its whole revenue of \$2,314,330 per annum as much as \$2,018,870 is derived from the coal traffic.—*Herapath's Journal.*

BREAKING OF RAILWAY CAR AXLES.

A writer in the *New York Journal of Commerce* attributes the breaking of the axles of railroad cars to torsion, or twisting, occasioned in turning curves. He says that both wheels are keyed, or otherwise fastened, on the axle; so that they must have a common velocity. In turning curves, the wheel on the outer rail must have a motion as much greater than the other as is due to the greater circle which it traverses. The only way, therefore in which the equal speed of the two wheels can be attained, is by the sliding of that on the inner rail, so as to compensate for its diminished velocity. The sliding of the wheel operates to twist the axle, and it generally parts at its connection with the wheels. This seems to be owing to the whole leverage of the wheel, acting from its flange to the center, bearing on this point. The only effectual remedy for this evil, is some method of securing an independent motion to opposite wheels; at the same time taking the strain off the axle. This fact may afford a hint to the inventive genius of some of our mechanics.

In answer to this, a civil engineer in the *Public Ledger* of Philadelphia, says:—“The writer is probably not aware that all railway wheels are *conical*, or in other words, they have a larger diameter near their flanges, than at the outside of their treads; and that, as the centrifugal force of the trains drives their flanges towards the exterior rail, their bearing diameter on that rail increases, and on the interior rail it decreases, so as to compensate for the difference in the length of the rails, and avoid the sliding alluded to. Engineers, knowing the radius of their curvatures, regulate the cone and play of their wheels to suit; and are well pleased with the practical working of the simple mathematical rules which they apply. The frequent reference I see made this subject, by those who are evidently not familiar with railway mechanism, must be the excuse for this explanation, by a civil engineer.

RAILROADS IN SPAIN.

The Spanish provincial correspondence and newspapers are full of accounts of railroads and projects of railroads, by means of which every province looks forward to have its resources developed and its riches increased. Cadiz hopes to see her fallen trade revive; Barcelona to drive even the English smuggling trade in cottons out of the market. The semi-official organ of the ministry avails itself of the enthusiasm awakened on the subject by representing the present ministry as the government, whose special mission it is to endow the country with these means of communication, which are expected to change the face of Spain, and put her on a level with the other nations of Europe.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The usual return relating to railway accidents for the half-year, ending 31st of December, 1851, has been printed. The number of passengers was 47,509,392. The number of persons killed was 113, and 264 injured. There were eight passengers killed and 213 injured, from causes beyond their own control; 9 passengers were killed and 14 injured owing to their own misconduct or want of caution; 30 servants of companies or of contractors were killed and 17 injured from causes beyond their own control; 32 servants of companies or of contractors were killed and 11 injured owing to their misconduct or want of caution; 33 trespassers and other persons, neither passengers nor servants of the companies were killed and 9 injured by crossing or walking on railways. There was one suicide. The length of railways open on the 30th of June, 1851, was 6,698 miles, and on the 1st of December last, 6,890 miles; being an increase during the half-year of 192 miles.

THE LONGEST TUNNEL IN THE WORLD.

One of the longest, if not *the* longest tunnel in the world is now in a forward state of completion. It is situated in Hungary, and leads from the shores of the River Gran, not far from Zarnowitz, to the mines in the Schemnitzer Hills. It is two geographical or about ten English miles long. It is intended to answer the double purpose of a channel to drain off the water accumulating in the works, and a railway to transport the ore from the mines to the river.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

GOLD MINING IN CALIFORNIA.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Conductor Merchants' Magazine, New York* :—

STR :—Gold is obtained in California from two sources—the *placer* diggings and the quartz rock. A large portion of that which has been exported from that State has been obtained from the *placer* diggings. This method has been prosecuted to such an extent and with so much industry and care, that the best *placers* have been explored, and digging in the sand and banks of the streams has become much less profitable than at first. The consequence is that the attention of the gold seekers is more strongly attracted to the rock mining, which has been prosecuted to some extent, but in a far more limited degree than the diggings in *placers*.

In quartz mining, the gold is found penetrating the rock like veins, and to obtain it the rock must be crushed to a powder which is washed and the gold finally separated from the dust by mixing it with quicksilver.

There are two important points in this process. The first is, to crush the rock, and the second to obtain all the gold by the use of the quicksilver.

The first machinery for crushing quartz rock was put up in June and commenced work in July, 1851, on the big Mariposa vein. This was a Chilian mill and was put up by Messrs. Cook & Jackson; it crushed about five hundred pounds in twelve hours. The amalgam was examined once in three or four days and the yield found to be \$250. to \$375. The Chilian mills have proved to turn out more gold to a pound of the same ore, but they have failed entirely because they crush such a small amount in a day. In this respect they are only one step in advance of common hand mortars. This same company in August went another step in advance by putting up "Stockton Stamps," and set them in motion in September. These stamps weighed 209 pounds and were worked by a steam-engine. But they were too light. They would crush only two and-a-half tons in twenty-four hours. These light stamps were sent out to California under the impression that the rock would yield \$2 00 or \$3 00 in gold to the pound.

Stockton & Aspinwall's mill went into operation on the same vein in November, 1850. It contained twelve stamps weighing each 159 pounds. Their mine was poor and the only part of their claims which worked to a profit was 120 feet on the Mariposa vein, and the rock from this they were obliged to transport to the mill at an expense of one cent per pound, and the amount crushed was only 3,500 pounds in twelve hours. Of course this would not pay. It was the assertion of the agent of this company that if the machinery had been heavier they would have succeeded. And this is probable, for the miners are now in the habit of bringing the rock to the mills and paying from \$20 60 to \$30 00 per ton for crushing it; which is an evidence that it is profitable.

All these first mills used the bowls with a single shaking table for separating the gold from the pulverized dust, by which about 15-16 of it ran off and only 1-16 passed through the shaking table.

These mills were originally designed for the gold mines of Virginia and Georgia, where they may have been very successful; but they were, unfortunately, found entirely unsuitable, under the circumstances, for California. They were generally driven by an engine of eight or ten horse power and, therefore, were competent to crush four or five tons of rock in a day. Such a mill, at Virginia prices for labor, could be worked at an expense of fifty dollars per day. If we suppose the yield to be one cent per pound, for five tons, it would amount to two hundred dollars per day, or one hundred and fifty dollars net profit in Virginia,

In California, on the other hand, the wages of the same number of laborers, or force, which was employed in Virginia, would amount to \$274 per day, which would not pay expenses by \$174. At two cents of gold to the pound of rock, the yield is only \$400, which is a very insignificant return for California.

By contrasting this method of labor with that adopted by the successful mills, the importance of suitable machinery will be readily apprehended.

The Grass Valley Quartz Mining Company's Mill has been regarded as the "Model

Mill," in California, as, in its success, it has been one of the most prosperous. This mill has thus far crushed the rock upon the old fashioned method long in use among miners, and known as "stampers." Their form is somewhat modified and much larger on the face than usual. There are ten of them in the mill weighing each about 700 pounds, and they crush from thirty to forty tons of ore per day. This at a yield of two cents to the pound is \$1,600 per day, and supposing only two hundred working days in a year, amounts to \$320,000. But this mill has actually yielded on some days \$3,800. Its average, however, is \$70 to the ton or 3½ cents to the pound. The quartz, even under the imperfect method of separating the gold with quicksilver, has yielded at this mill an average of three-and-a-half cents to the pound of rock. This mill paid its original cost in sixty days after it was constructed: subsequently it has paid large profits, notwithstanding it has been three times remodeled, improved and enlarged. In the months of April and May alone the net profits of this mill exceeded \$17,800, and the last arrival brings a statement of equal richness in the yield. The highest estimate of expenses for running a mill of this kind is in round numbers about \$400 per day.

There is one point in connection with quartz mining in California which has defeated many enterprising persons and caused the loss of capital also. It is that lack of experience which is necessary to command success in all mining operations. Many have attempted it who possess little or no real knowledge of mining; many also have embarked in it without the necessary capital and have not been able to sustain themselves until abundant proceeds could be realized from the mine. All have been in error in relation to the suitable machinery.

The method of separating the gold from the pulverized quartz has been very imperfect, and in some cases not more than one-half or one-third of it is obtained, as was proved by assaying it afterwards. Of course, this has been an unexpected difficulty to a many. But it has now been to a considerable extent obviated by improved amalgamators, and will doubtless be still further remedied hereafter.

The extent of the quartz veins is estimated by Prof. Blake to be comprised "within a belt of land ten miles broad and running the whole length of the country north and south, and doubtless furnishing a supply of gold which it will take centuries to exhaust." He also says "there can be no doubt but that quartz mining is destined to be the most permanent source of gold in this country. It will not be many years before it will attract that attention which, as an investment for capital, it evidently deserves.

J. T.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

We commence in the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine* the publication of a series of papers on the manufacture of glass. These cannot fail to be acceptable to our readers, as they will contain much valuable information relating to the discovery of the materials and their various improvements, which, under the influence of heat, are fused into a substance long known as the beautiful, pellucid glass, so indispensable in domestic, chemical, building, and various other uses. The process through which its manufacture has reached its present state of perfection, with statistical and other valuable knowledge of the art of glass making will be embodied in these articles. To say they are from the pen of Deming Jarvis, Esq., the well known founder and principal of the Boston and Sandwich Glass Manufactory, in Sandwich, Mass., is sufficient assurance to all who know this gentleman that they will be reliable and interesting.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.—NO. I.

It may be safely asserted, that no department of art has from its earliest period attracted so much attention and investigation, none involved so extensive a range of inquiry, or been productive of more ingenious, interesting, and beautiful results, than the manufacture of glass.

The question of the origin of glass goes back to the remotest antiquity, and is involved in almost entire obscurity. All that modern writers on the subject are enabled to do, is to glean hints and indistinct statements in reference to the subject, from the very brief and unsatisfactory accounts of the ancients. These, however, throw but a feeble light upon the precise point of the origin of the manufacture; and little is proved beyond the fact of its great antiquity.

That the subject held a very prominent place in the technological literature of the ancients, is clearly proved—Pliny, Theophrastus, Strabo, Petronius, Arbiter, Berzelias, Neri, Merrit, Runket, and others, referring constantly to it. The writings of all these demonstrate the deep interest existing upon the subject at their various times; but still fail to present us with any connected or detailed account of the rise and progress of the art.

When it is considered that the elements involved in the manufacture of glass are derived from the earth,—not one of its components being in itself transparent, but earthy, opaque, and apparently incapable of being transmuted into a transparent and brilliant substance,—when it is considered that from these a material is produced almost rivaling the diamond in luster and refractive power, and sometimes so closely resembling the richest gems as to detract from the value of the costliest,—can it be wonderful that in the earliest ages the art was invested with a mysterious interest attaching to no other mechanical department?

From the earliest periods, up to the eighteenth century, the art, from the peculiar knowledge and skill involved, could only minister to the wants or pleasures of the luxurious rich. The rarity of the material rendered the articles greatly valuable, as tasteful ornaments of dress or furniture;—indeed, it is well known that the glass of Venice, at one period, was as highly valued as is plate of the present day; and the passion for possessing specimens, promised in England at least, to excite a spirit of speculation fully rivaling that exhibited in the tulip mania, so ridiculous, as well as ruinous, in Holland.

It has been reserved for the present age, however, to render the art of glass making tributary to the comfort of man—to the improvement of science—and by its moderate cost, to enable the poorest and humblest to introduce the light and warmth of the sun within, while excluding the storms and chilly blasts; to decorate his table with the useful, and minister to his taste, at a cost barely more than that of one of his ordinary days' labor. That which once was prized and displayed as the treasure and inheritance of the wealthy, and which with sacred carefulness was handed down as of precious value, may now be found in the humblest dwellings, and is procured at a charge which makes the account of the former costliness of glass to partake almost of the character of the fabulous and visionary.

That the art of glass manufacture is destined to greater progress and higher triumphs, cannot for a moment be doubted; and the time will arrive when, from increased purity of materials and progressive chemical development, the present position of the art will fall comparatively into the shade. It is no undue stretch of the imagination to conceive that lenses shall be perfected, whose purity will enable the astronomer to penetrate the remotest region of space; new worlds may perhaps be revealed, realizing all that the "moon hoax" promised—

"The spacious firmament on high,
With all the blue, ethereal sky
And spangled heavens——"

be read as a book, and man perhaps recognize man in other worlds than his own. It may be that in its triumphs it is destined to concentrate the rays of the sunlight, and make the eye to pierce into the secrets and deep places of the sea,

"Full many a fathom deep."

Man may be enabled to read the wonders and the hidden works of the Almighty;—it may be, that the power of the traditional lens of Archimedes upon the fleet of Marcellus shall be realized, in the absorbing and igniting, and perhaps useful power of some feature of its progress; and in its sphere, the art become fruitful in practical results, rivaling the highest attainments in the department of scientific progress. It is a visionary speculation to believe, that by the aid of machinery it may be readily rolled into sheets, as is iron or lead now in use. It will minister more and more to the necessities and comfort of mankind, and contribute largely to the many and various manufacturing purposes of the age. That its practical adaptations are not already known or exhausted, cannot be doubted; and its applicability in some cheaper form for vessels of large size and certain shape, and (strange as it may seem) for tessellated and ordinary flooring and pavements, are among the results which we think yet to be demonstrated in its progress.

An elegant writer in a late number of *Harper's Magazine* says:—

"The importance of glass, and the infinite variety of objects to which it is applicable, cannot be exaggerated; indeed, it would be extremely difficult to enumerate its

properties, or estimate adequately its value. This, then, transparent substance, so light and fragile, is one of the most essential ministers of science and philosophy, and enters so minutely into the concerns of life, that it has become indispensable to the daily routine of our business, our wants, and our pleasures. It admits the sun and excludes the wind, answering the double purpose of transmitting light and preserving warmth; it carries the eye of the astronomer to the remotest region of space;—through the lenses of the microscope it develops new worlds of vitality, which without its help must have been but imperfectly known; it renews the sight of the old, and assists the curiosity of the young; it empowers the mariner to descry distant ships, and trace far off shores—the watchman on the cliff to detect the operations of hostile fleets and midnight contrabandists, and the loungee in the opera to make the tour of the circles from his stall; it preserves the light of the beacon from the rush of the tempest, and softens the flame of the lamp upon our tables; it supplies the revel with those charming vessels in whose bright depths we enjoy the color as well as flavor of our wine; it protects the dial whose movements it reveals; it enables the student to penetrate the wonders of nature, and the beauty to survey the marvels of her person; it reflects, magnifies, and diminishes—as a medium of light and observation its uses are without limit, and as an article of mere embellishment, there is no form into which it may not be molded, or no object of luxury to which it may not be adapted.”

In contrast with the foregoing, we will make one more extract from an English writer of ancient date. Halinsked, in his “Chronicles,” published during the reign of Elizabeth, says:—

“It is a world to see in these our days, wherein gold and silver aboundeth, that our gentility, as loathing these metals, (because of the plenty,) do now generally choose rather the Venice Glasses, both for our wine and beer, than any of these metals, or stone, wherein before time we have been accustomed to drink; but such is the nature of man generally, that it most coveteth things difficult to be attained—and such is the estimation of this stuff, that many become rich only with therein new trade into Murana, (a town near to Venice,) from whence the very best are daily to be had, and such as for beauty do well near match the Crystal or the ancient Murrhina Vase, whereof now no man has knowledge. And as this is seen in the gentility, so in the wealthy commonality the like desire of glasses is not neglected, whereby the gain gotten by their purchase is much more increased, to the benefit of the merchant. The poorest endeavor to have glasses also if they may; but as the Venetian is somewhat too dear for them, they content themselves with such as are made at home of fern and burnt stone; but in fine, all go one way, that is to the shades, at last.”

PROPERTIES OF GLASS.

Glass has properties peculiarly its own—one of which is that it is of no greater bulk when hot, or in the melted state, than when cold. Some writers state that it is (contrary to the analogy of all other metals) of greater bulk when cold than when hot.

It is transparent in itself—but the materials of which it is composed are opaque. It is not malleable—but in ductility ranks next to gold. Its flexibility, also, is so great that when hot it can be drawn out like elastic thread miles in length in a moment, and to a minuteness equal to that of the silk worm. Brittle, also, to a proverb, it is so elastic that it can be blown to a gauze like thinness, so as easily to float upon the air. Its elasticity is also shown by the fact that a globe, hermetically sealed, if dropped upon a polished anvil, will recoil two-thirds the distance of its fall, and remain entire until the second or third rebound. (The force with which solid balls strike each other may be estimated at ten, and the reaction by reason of the elastic property at nine.) Vessels, called bursting-glasses, are made of sufficient strength to be drawn about a floor; a bullet may be dropped into one without fracture of the glass;—even the stroke of a mallet sufficiently heavy to drive a nail, has failed to break such glasses. In a word, ordinary blows fail to produce an impression upon articles of this kind. If, however, a piece of flint, corneian, diamond, or other hard stone, fall into one of these glasses, or be shaken therein a few moments, the vessel will fly into a myriad of pieces.

Glass of the class called Prince Rupert drops, exhibits another striking property. Let the small point be broken, and the whole flies with a shock into powder. Writers have endeavored to solve the philosophy of this phenomenon—some by attributing it to percussion putting in motion some subtle fluid with which the essential substance of glass is permeated, and thus the attraction of cohesion being overcome. Some de-

nominate the fluid electricity, and assert that it exists in glass in great quantities, and is capable of breaking glass when well annealed. These writers do not appear to have formed any conclusion satisfactory to themselves, and fail to afford any well-defined solution to the mystery.

Another phenomenon in connection with glass tubes is recorded in the "Philo. Transaction," No. 476:—

"Place a tube, say two feet long, before a fire in a horizontal position, having the position properly supported, say by putting in a cork at each end supported by pins for an axis,—the rod will acquire a rotary motion round the axis, and also a progressive motion towards the fire even if the supporters are declined from the fire. When the progressive motion of the tube towards the fire is stopped by any obstacle, the rotation is still continued. When the tubes are placed in nearly an upright position, leaning to the right hand, the motion will be from east to west; but if they lean to the left hand, their motion will be from west to east; and the nearer they are placed to an upright position the less will be their motion either way. If the tubes be placed on a sheet of glass, instead of moving towards the fire they will move from it—and about the axis in a contrary direction from what they did before—nay, they will recede from the fire, and move a little upwards when the plane inclines towards the fire."

Glass is used for pendulums, as not being subject to affections from heat or cold. It is, as is well known, a non-conductor. No metallic condenser possesses an equal power with one of glass. In summer, when moisture fails to collect on a metallic surface, open glass will gather it on the exterior—the slightest breath of air evidently affecting the glass with moisture. Dew will affect the surface of glass while apparently unimportant upon other surfaces.

The properties of so called "musical glasses" are strikingly singular. Glass bowls, partly filled with water, in various quantity, will, as is well known, emit musical sounds, varying with the thickness of their edges or lips. When rubbed, too, with a wet finger gently, the water in the glass is plainly seen to tremble and vibrate.

Bells manufactured of glass have been found the clearest and most sonorous—the vibration of sound extending to a greater degree than in metallic bells.

Glass resists the action of all acids, except the "fluoric." It loses nothing in weight by use or age. It is more capable than all other substances of receiving the highest degree of polish. If melted seven times over and properly cooled in the furnace, it will receive a polish rivaling almost the diamond in brilliancy. It is capable of receiving the richest colors procured from gold or other metallic coloring, and will retain its original brilliancy of hue for ages. Medals, too, imbedded in glass, can be made to retain forever their original purity and appearance.

Another singular property of glass is shown in the fact that when the furnace, as the workmen term it, is settled, the metal is perfectly plain and clear—but if by accident the metal becomes too cool to work, and the furnace heat is required to be raised, the glass which had before remained in the pots perfectly calm and plain, immediately becomes agitated and apparently boiling. The glass rises in a mass of spongy matter and bubbles, and is rendered worthless. A change is however immediately effected by throwing a tumbler of water upon the metal, when the agitation immediately ceases, and the glass resumes its original quiet and clearness.

All writers upon the subject of glass manufacture fail to show anything decisive upon the precise period of its invention. Some suppose it to have been invented before the flood. Nervi traces its antiquity to the yet problematical time of Job.

It seems clear, however, that the art was known to the Egyptians thirty-five hundred years since; for records handed down to us in the form of paintings, hieroglyphics, &c., demonstrate its existence in the reign of the first Osirtasen, and existing relics in glass taken from the ruins of Thebes, with hieroglyphical data, clearly place its antiquity at a point fifteen centuries prior to the time of Christ.

Mr. Kennet Loftus, "the first European who has visited the ancient ruins of Warka—in Mesopotamia—writes thus: Warka is no doubt the Erech of Scripture, the second city of Nimrod, and it is the Orchoe of the Chaldees, the mounds within the walls affords subjects of high interest to the historian, they are filled, or I may say composed of coffins piled upon each other to the height of forty-five feet.

"The coffins are of baked clay, covered with green glaze, and embossed with figures of warriors, &c., and within are ornaments of gold, silver, iron, copper and glass."

Other writers believe that glass was in more general use in the ancient, than in comparatively modern times, and affirm that among the Egyptians it was used even

as material for coffins. It is certainly true that so well did the Egyptians understand the art, that they excelled in the imitation of precious stones, and were well acquainted with the metallic oxides used in coloring glass; and the specimens of their skill, still preserved in the British Museum, and in private collections, prove the great skill and ingenuity of their workmen in mosaic similar in appearance to the modern paper weights. Among the specimens of Egyptian glass still existing, is a fragment representing a lion in bas relief, well executed and anatomically correct. Other specimens are found inscribed with Arabic characters.

All writers agree that the glass houses in Alexandria, in Egypt, were highly celebrated for the ingenuity and skill of their workmen, and the extent of their manufactures.

Strabo relates that the Emperor Hadrian received from an Egyptian priest a number of glass cups in mosaic, sparkling with every color, and deemed of such rare value that they were used only on grand festivals.

The Tombs at Thebes, the ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum, and the remains of the villa of the Emperor Tiberius, go not only incidentally to establish the antiquity of the art, but also to prove the exquisite taste and skill of the artists of their various periods.

The first glass houses, well authenticated, were erected in the city of Tyre. Modern writers upon the subject generally refer to Pliny in establishing the fact that the Phenicians were the inventors of the art of glass making. The tradition is that the art was originally brought to light under the following circumstances:—A vessel being driven by a storm to take shelter at the mouth of the river Belus, the crew were obliged to remain there some length of time. In the process of cooking a fire was made upon the ground, whereon was abundance of the herb 'kale.' That plant burning to ashes, the saline properties became incorporated with the sand. This causing vitrification, the compound now called glass was the result. The fact becoming known, the inhabitants of Tyre and Sidon essayed the work and brought the new invention into practical use. This is the tradition—but modern science demonstrates the false philosophy, if not the incorrectness, of Pliny's account; and modern manufacturers will readily detect the error, from the impossibility of melting silix and so by the heat necessary for the ordinary boiling purposes.

It is a well authenticated fact, however, that there were whole streets in Tyre entirely occupied by glass works; and history makes no mention of any works of this character at an earlier period than the time mentioned by Pliny.

That Tyre possessed peculiar advantages for the manufacture, is very clear from geographical and geological data, the sand upon the shore at the mouth of the river Belus being pure silica and well adapted to the manufacture. The extensive range of Tyrian Commerce, too, gave ample facilities for the exportation and sale of the staple; and for some ages it must have constituted almost the only article, or at least the prominent article of trade. Doubtless the rich freights of "the ships of Tyre," mentioned in Scripture, may in part have been composed of a material now as common and easily procured as any of its original elements.

From Tyre and Sidon the art was transferred to Rome. Pliny states it flourished most extensively during the reign of Tiberius, entire streets of the city being then occupied by the glass manufactories. From the period of Tiberius the progress of the art seems more definite and marked, both as relates to the quantity and mode of manufacture.

It was during the reign of Nero, so far as we can discover, that the first perfectly clear glass, resembling crystal, was manufactured. Pliny states that Nero, for two cups of ordinary size with two handles, gave six thousand sesteria, equal in our currency to about two hundred and fifty thousand dollars; and that rich articles of glass were in such general use among the wealthy Romans as almost to supersede articles of gold and silver. The art, however, at that period, seems to have been entirely devoted to articles of luxury, and from the great price paid, supported many establishments, all however evidently upon a comparatively small scale, and confined, as it would appear, to families.

Up to this period no evidence appears to prove that any other than colored articles in glass were made. It is clear, too, that the furnaces and melting pots then in use, were of very limited capacity, the latter being of crucible shape; and it was not until the time of Nero that the discovery was made that muffled crucibles or pots, as used at the present day, were required in order to make crystal glass. (Without them, it is well known, crystal glass cannot be perfected.) It appears, further, that a definite

street in the city of Rome was assigned to the manufacturers of this article, and that at the reign of Severus, they had attained such a position and accumulated wealth to such a degree, that a formal tax was levied upon them. Some writers take the ground that this assessment was the primary cause of the transfer of the manufacture to other places.

That the peculiar property of the manufacture at this period was its clear and crystal appearance, is abundantly evident; and this, and the great degree of perfection to which the manufacture of white or crystal-like glass was carried, are by many writers thought to have been proved from classical sources—Horace and Virgil both referring to it, the one speaking of its beautiful luster and brilliancy, the other comparing it to the clearness of the waters of the Fucine Lake.

D. J.

STATISTICS OF NOVA SCOTIA MANUFACTURES.

From an important document, recently published, we gather the subjoined statistics of the manufacturing industry of Nova Scotia in 1851:—

		Value.	Hands emp'd.
Saw-mills.....No.	1,153	£89,869	1,786
Grist-mills.....	398	72,649	437
Steam-mills or factories.....	10
Tanneries.....	237	26,762	374
Leather, manufactured.....	..	52,625
Boots and shoes manufactured.....	..	73,654
Foundries.....	9	12,900	138
Iron, smelted.....tons	400	4,635
Value of castings.....	3,486
Weaving and Carding establishments.....No.	81	11,690	119
Handlooms.....	11,096	24,486
Fulled cloth manufactured.....yds.	119,698
Not fulled, manufactured.....	790,104
Flannel manufactured.....	219,352
Breweries and distilleries.....No.	17	6,032	42
Malt liquor manufactured.....gals.	78,076
Distilled liquor manufactured.....	11,900
Other factories.....No.	131	14,382	185
Agricultural implements manufactured.....	16,640
Chairs and cabinet ware manufactured.....	11,155
Carriages manufactured.....	9,491
Other wooden ware manufactured.....	19,233
Coal raised.....chaldrons	114,992
Lime burnt.....casks	28,603	4,433
Bricks made.....No.	2,845,400	3,211
Gypsum quarried.....tons	79,795	10,498
Grinding stones quarried.....	5,857
Soap manufactured.....	28,277
Candles manufactured.....	21,210
Maple Sugar manufactured.....lbs.	110,441
Vessels built.....No.	486
Tonnage.....	57,776
Boats built.....	2,654

THE FIRST DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN AUSTRALIA.

The *Whitehaven Herald* gives the following information respecting the first discovery of gold in Australia:—

“The first piece found was by a native. He was a bushman. The scale of intellect of the Australian is remarkable for its lowness. Seeing his master counting a lot of sovereigns he said he had found a piece of “yellow stuff,” far bigger than all those together, which he had hidden, and would bring it to his master, if he would give him a new suit of corduroy. The bargain was struck, after which the man went and produced a lump of Golconda, weighing one hundred and six pounds, and valued at £5,077 4s. 6d.”

THE CUMBERLAND COAL AND IRON COMPANY.

The first report of the directors of the Cumberland Coal and Iron Company is just published. This company was organized on the 3d of May last, and owns, in Alleghany County, Maryland, about 7,000 acres of coal lands, with three opened working mines, with fifteen feet coal veins, and the necessary rail-tracks, houses, shops, coal-yards, &c., all of which property formerly belonged to the "Washington," "Astor," "Preston," "Buena Vista," and "People's" Mining Companies, and to some smaller associations.

The cost of this real estate is set down at.....	\$3,064,800
The company is also proprietor of canal boats and barges, worth.....	35,884
And has on hand cash and bills receivable for.....	\$255,538
From which deduct debts to be paid by the company.....	156,222
	99,316
Capital stock not yet issued	1,800,000
	\$5,000,000

Lowell Holbrook, of New York, is President, and the following gentlemen constitute the Board of Directors:—

J. W. Tyson and C. M. Thurston, of Maryland; William Young, E. W. Dunham, H. B. Loomis, Charles Day, Henry Coghill, D. Randolph Martin, William H. Appleton, Thomas W. Gale, and Charles B. White, of New York.

Their report expresses a confident opinion of the great value and favorable prospects of the company's property. The expense of getting the article to market is not named in the report, but we learn that such reductions will soon be made in the items constituting its cost, as will allow of its delivery at New York at not far from \$3 50 per ton.

Say cost of mining and delivery at Cumberland.....	\$0 60
Tolls on the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.....	0 46
Freight from Cumberland to Alexandria	1 10
Freight from Alexandria to New York from \$1 25 to.....	1 50
Total.....	\$3 66

THE AUSTRALIAN GOLD DIGGINGS.

Advices have arrived by the Stebonheath, from Port Philip direct, to the 22d April. It appears that the production at the mines was steadily increasing, and was now estimated at £100,000 per week, or at the rate of more than £5,000,000 per annum for this colony alone. The present vessel has brought about 60,000 ounces, valued at £230,000; and the Vanguard, which sailed a few days previously, but which has not yet arrived, took 17,490 ounces, nearly £70,000 worth. The quotation was 60s. to 61s. per ounce. Great complaints continue to be made of the prevalence of crime, owing to the influx of convicts from Van Dieman's Land, many of whom were among the most successful people at the mines. Rain had begun to fall at Mount Alexander, but not so as to increase the facilities for working, and in the other districts it was still delayed. The statement of the public revenue of the colony for the quarter had created both satisfaction and surprise, the increase being £95,592; a sum nearly equal to the whole public revenue of the corresponding quarter of last year. Much of this arose from the duties on spirits, tobacco, and foreign goods. In the territorial revenue, likewise, there was an extraordinary augmentation. For the corresponding quarter of 1851 the total of that revenue was £9,138, and now it was £156,827; the chief items of increase being the land sales, which amounted to £95,248; the gold licenses, which produced £48,597; and the gold escort, which produced £4,489. The rate for bills on England was about 8½ to 10 per cent discount.

A letter from Melbourne says:—"The total population at the diggings is estimated by the chief commissioner at about 35,000, but a considerable portion is migratory,

and not half that number of licenses are issued. The present weekly produce cannot be under 30,000 ounces, or about £100,000 in value, as the government escort alone now brings down about 20,000 ounces, independent of the large quantity conveyed privately. From the post-office to the River Loddon, a distance of six or seven miles, the bed and slopes of Forest Creek present the appearance of being covered with a series of gigantic molehills, interspersed with miserable small tents of every description, the occupants of which have a very squalid, unhealthy appearance, from exposure, privation, and dust, sore eyes being universally prevalent. The roads are now very bad, the cost of carriage from Melbourne being £22 to £25 a ton; but most people are of opinion that, when the rain falls, in about a month, they will be all but impassable, and serious apprehensions are entertained of a scarcity of food during the winter months. The gold is found both in deposit and in the matrix, a quartz vein having been struck at about twenty or thirty feet below the surface, and traced for some distance, which is worked successfully with no other tools or machinery than pickax, hammer, and tin dish. It has also been found in deposit in various strata of alluvial earth, clay, and gravel, and even below the trap-rock, leaving little room to doubt that the supply is not likely to be soon exhausted; while the Mitta-Mitta Fields, near the boundary of the colony, on the Murray, are still all but untried."

MANUFACTURE OF COMBS.

The greatest comb manufactory in the world is in Aberdeen, Scotland; it is that of Messrs. Stewart, Rowell & Co. There are 36 furnaces for preparing horns and tortois-shell for the combs, and no less than 120 iron-screw presses are continually going in stamping them. Steam-power is employed to cut the combs, and an engine of fifty horse-power is barely sufficient to do the work. The coarse combs are stamped or cut out—two being cut in one piece at a time, by a machine invented in England in 1828. The fine dressing combs and all small-tooth combs, are cut by fine circular saws, some so fine as to cut 40 teeth in the space of one inch, and they revolve 5,000 times in a minute. There are 1928 varieties of combs made, and the aggregate number produced, of all these different sorts of combs, average upwards of 1,200 gross weekly, or about 9,000,000 annually; a quantity that, if laid together lengthways, would extend about 700 miles. The annual consumption of ox horns is about 730,000; the annual consumption of hoofs amounts to 4,000,000; the consumption of tortoise-shell and buffalo horn, although not so large, is correspondingly valuable; even the waste composed of horn shavings and parings of hoof, which from its nitrogenized composition, becomes a valuable material in the manufacture of prussiate of potash, amounts to 350 tons in the year; the broken combs in the various stages of manufacture average 50 or 60 gross in a week; the very paper for packing costs \$3,000 a year.

A hoof undergoes eleven distinct operations before it becomes a finished comb. In this great comb factory, there are 456 men and boys employed, and 164 women—in all 620 hands. This company commenced business twenty years ago on a very small scale, being much smaller than the smallest works in England. By that determined energy, perseverance, and shrewdness which is characteristic of that people, they have shot ahead of all competitors in Britain. There is a temperance society and a library connected with the works.

MANUFACTURE OF LUMBER IN THE NORTH-WEST.

The number of saws running in 1851, on the Wisconsin River and its tributaries, were, above—

Winnebago, Portage county.....	77, cutting...feet	43,400,000
Fox River, including Wolf River.....	56	30,000,000
Mississippi, above mouth of St. Croix.....	11	15,000,000
St Croix River.....	17	26,000,000
Chippewa River.....	15	20,000,000
Black River.....	10	14,000,000
Total.....	186	148,400,000
Point au Barques to Algonac, on Lake Huron.....		93,000,000

 MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

"AN OLD MERCHANT'S ADVICE."

 FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchant's Magazine, etc.*:—

SIR:—Your Magazine for July, 1852, has just been handed me by a young gentleman in my employ, and my attention expressly directed to a letter, or rather a piece entitled "*An Old Merchant's Advice*." With my young friend, (whose principles are too well established to be misled by such articles,) I agree that said piece should never have been admitted into your Magazine without a condemnatory notice from you as conductor of said publication.

Your Magazine, as no doubt you are aware, is extensively used by the younger class, and after you have read over that piece again, you will surely agree with me that it will have a decidedly *bad* tendency, and cannot be without bad effect on the minds of many who need no additional aids to roguery.

I trust you will excuse the liberty thus taken, and regard me as no doubt you are, a friend to good morals.

Very truly yours,

BALTIMORE, AUGUST 5, 1852.

C. F. P.

Proverbial wisdom has declared the "counsel of a friend" to be of the highest value, and we are the last to deny the truth, "he that hearkeneth unto counsel is wise." We therefore feel not only strengthened in the assurance of our wisdom, but confident that our correspondent in Baltimore will be assured that we regard as the act of a true friend the admonition he has sent us, touching a certain "*jeu d'esprit*" with which we thought to enliven the "MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES" in the number of the *Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1852 (p. 136). Our explanation—our *defense* we have already anticipated—the piece was a *jeu d'esprit*. It purports to be "An old Merchant's advice," and in an apparently serious vein of real irony, it gives hints as to the various tricks of trade by which many men make haste to get rich, and which the experience of most who try it, proves the saddest example of "more haste less speed." Pretending to tell the young merchant what he ought to do, it really tells him what he ought not to do, and in a tone of assumed seriousness, exposes practices which men will consent to follow, but hardly dare to confess to themselves, much less frame them into formal maxims of life. By throwing them into the form of grave maxims, their revolting wickedness is made most strikingly apparent.

The same principles, taught in a more serious tone, will be found in the article on "Honesty in Mercantile Life," in our June number (p. 776). Our friend cannot mistake its meaning, and he will please credit us with that meaning, as the one we would always be understood as inculcating.

Our correspondent has heard of parodies. This little piece is a prose parody on the practices of dishonest traders. Perhaps the take-off would have been a little more effectual, had the irony been a little more plainly brought out; but if he will read it over again, he can hardly fail to see the real drift of the piece, and confess that the current dishonesties of trade could hardly be more effectually shown up in their true colors than by such satire. At the same time we must needs admire the moral sensitiveness of our friend, which is up in arms at the slightest assault which he thinks is designed upon the bulwarks of mercantile morality. No one, he may rest assured, feels a livelier anxiety for the preservation, not only from any stain, but from any suspicion, of that mercantile character which should be of the purity of Cæsar's wife, than the editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*, and we shall be gratified for the advice of all our friends in assisting us in the promotion of this paramount object.

THE MACKEREL FISHERIES.

But few are aware of the great extent of the mackerel and other fisheries of this country. It has been estimated that during the summer months, or rather between June and November, more than twenty thousand vessels are constantly engaged in the different kinds of fisheries, employing no less than 250,000 men. By a treaty with Great Britain, American vessels are allowed the privilege of fishing within certain limits of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the quantity of fish taken from this place alone, is truly astonishing. The coast of Newfoundland yields its codfish to the hardy sailor from May until December, while the better class of mackerel are taken from August to October. Many mackerel, however, of a proper class, are taken along the southern shore of our own country prior to this, but as a general thing they are deemed worthy of little notice. The Bay of Chaleur, along the coast of Prince Edward's Island, the Magdalen Islands and Northumberland Straits, are considered the choicest mackerel grounds. Here the fleet of vessels congregated at one time will often amount to two thousand sail, although, as a general thing, not more than from two to four hundred vessels sail in company. At night, when the fleet is safely anchored, the lanterns lighted on each vessel and swinging upon the shrouds, one may fancy himself looking upon some huge city lying in repose, with its lamps all trimmed and burning.

The bait alone, which is ground up and thrown to the fish to keep them about the vessel, is a very large item in the expense of carrying on the trade. This is either herrings, pogies, or clams, well salted and cleansed, put up expressly for the purpose. The average cost of it is about three-and-a-half dollars per barrel, at least two barrels of which are thrown away per day in good fishing. Allowing at the time we were in the Gulf there were two thousand sail, you then have \$16,000 per day, thrown away to the fishes, or say \$100 per vessel for each trip; which is below the actual amount, and we thus have the enormous sum of \$200,000.

The method of taking the mackerel is very simple. The vessel is "hove to," and men are arranged on the "windward" side, as many as can conveniently stand from bow to stern. Each man is provided with four lines; only two can be used in fast fishing. On each line is attached the hook, which is sunk into an oblong bit of lead, called a "jig." A barrel is placed behind each man, into which the fish are "snapped" as caught, the jaw tearing out as easily as though made of paper. Owing to this tenderness of the jaw, the fish must be hauled very carefully, though with great rapidity. One man stands "amidships," throwing the bait which has been carefully ground, to keep the fish about the vessel, while the hooks are baited with pork rind, a bit of liver, or a piece of the mackerel itself. When caught, they are split, gibbed, scraped washed in three waters, and then salted—the whole being done with astonishing celerity.

THE PROMPT MERCHANTS' CLERK.

A correspondent of the London *Youth's Instructor* relates an anecdote, which we transfer to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine* for the especial benefit of young men entering mercantile life:—

"I once new a young man," said an eminent preacher the other day, in a sermon to young men, "that was commencing life as a clerk. One day his employer said to him, 'Now, to-morrow, that cargo of cotton must be got out and weighed, and we must have a regular account of it.'

"He was a young man of energy. This was the first time he had been intrusted to superintend the execution of this work. He made his arrangements over night, spoke to the men about their carts and horses, and, resolved to begin very early in the morning, he instructed the laborers to be there at half-past four o'clock. His master comes in, and, seeing him sitting in the counting-house, looks very black, supposes that his commands had not been executed.

"'I thought,' said the master, 'you were requested to get out that cargo this morning.'

"'It is all done,' said the young man, 'and here is the account of it.'

"He never looked behind him from that moment—never! His character was fixed, confidence was established. He was found to be the man to do the thing with promptness. He very soon came to be one that could not be spared; he was as necessary to the firm as any of the partners. He was a religious man, and went through a life of great benevolence, and at his death was able to leave his children an ample fortune. He was not smoke to the eye nor vinegar to the teeth, but just the contrary."

COMMERCIAL GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES.

From the able and eloquent speech of the Hon. DAVID SEYMOUR, of New York, on the River and Harbor Bill, delivered in the House of Representatives, July 21, 1852, we extract the following brief but comprehensive picture of our commercial progress :

"Let us briefly survey the present position of our Republic, and see what it demands of us as wise and patriotic legislators. Our country is rapidly advancing in her career of greatness. Compare its situation in 1838, when the last general appropriations for the rivers and harbors were made, with its present condition, and we are astonished at the progress we have made. No other nation has achieved so much in the same period. We have peaceably annexed one empire, settled the boundaries of another, and conquered a third. Our Commerce, which, fourteen years ago, was found in three grand divisions—that of the western rivers, the northwestern lakes, and the Atlantic coast—has crossed the isthmus, and now covers the shores of the western ocean. To our two maritime fronts, the Atlantic and the Gulf, we have added the Pacific. And there from a coast of sixteen hundred miles in extent, we look out upon the primeval habitations of our race—the seats of ancient empire—and the most inviting field ever opened to the moral or physical energies of man. Nor is the dominion thus gained a barren scepter. On the contrary, the precious metals found in abundance in California have placed in the hands of this Republic a monetary power which, ere long, will transfer commercial ascendancy from Europe to America, and will adjust in our great commercial emporium the balance-sheet of the world. And can such a nation be longer held in the swaddling bands of its infancy or the leading-strings of its childhood? The enterprise of our country, always bold and restless, is already, by the liberal aids of an improved science and the vast accessions of capital, driven onward almost with maddening speed. Nothing can arrest the progress of individual effort in all the avenues of Commerce. You may excite the apprehensions of the timid, the doubts of the wavering, or the opposition of the enemies of progress, but all will be in vain. The mighty current of events, as they are ordained, will, in spite of our resistance, bear us onward and still onward to our destiny. It is, then, the part of wisdom, of exalted patriotism, to grasp the helm of the ship of State, and, with a strong and bold hand, guide it on its course by the chart of the Constitution.

COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

The *Pittsburgh Daily Despatch*, puts a question, and makes a statement in the following paragraph, which we are assured is supported by the most incontestable evidence.

"How is This?"—Can a Commission Merchant in "good and regular standing" in a Christian Church, go to a steamboat officer and bargain for the shipment of say 400 bbls of flour at forty cents per barrel, provided the steamboat officer will agree to fill up the bill at fifty cents per bbl.—so as to enable the merchant to make \$40 over his legitimate commission, &c., off the confiding consigner or owner, who pays this forty dollars more than he need pay, if the whole transaction were straight forward and *bona fide*? Is this a "fair business transaction?" Is it honorable or even honest? Is it not a mean fraud? We think so—yet it is done here, not occasionally, but constantly—by people affecting honor and even piety. A man who confides in them is made to suffer to the tune of five or ten cents per hundred on the freight which he entrusts to them for shipment, and steamboatmen must become parties to the fraud, or in case of refusal, give place to those who will. We may be told this is none of our business, but it is—all that demoralizes or depraves public sentiment, concerns every wise citizen—and it is our duty to see that neither steamboatmen nor other men are tempted or compelled to do what they feel and acknowledge to be wrong, by those who profess to be moral *Christian* men. We have a host of witnesses to support our statements, if anybody doubts.

ABSORPTION IN BUSINESS.

Some men devote themselves so exclusively to their business, as to almost entirely neglect their domestic and social relations. A gentleman of this class having failed, was asked what he intended to do. "I am going home to get acquainted with my wife and children," said he.

THOMAS TARBELL, A BOSTON MERCHANT.

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

DEAR SIR:—The public journals of Boston have recently announced the death of an old merchant, and a good man—Mr. THOMAS TARBELL. He was the poor man's friend, and for years was ever ready to dispense the bounty of our public charities, and to aid the poor and friendless by his purse and counsel.

One provision of his will deserves a record in your valuable Magazine. He has provided for the ultimate payment of the balance remaining unpaid on old debts which he was owing in 1826, when misfortunes in business caused him to make an assignment of his property.

Such instances are rare, and should be noticed. His friends, and the community among which he lived, will share the feelings of pride and pleasure he would have enjoyed, had his measure of success while he lived enabled him then to have carried into effect this cherished purpose of his heart.

“The good that men do lives after them.”

Respectfully, you obedient servant,

* *

THE FRENCH ROSE TRADE.

The Commerce in roses is an entirely French business. As early as 1779, France exported rose bushes, and for the last twenty years enormous quantities are sent from France to England, Russia, Germany, and the United States. The department of the Seine alone, it is said, produces every year roses to the amount of a million of francs. A hundred thousand stalks (pieds) are sold in the flower-market, they (francs de pied?) amount to a hundred and fifty thousand more; finally, the grafts which are exported are valued at eight hundred thousand. Four millions francs value of flowers are sold in the Paris market alone, independently of what are furnished for public and private festivals. Paris consumes five millions francs worth of strawberries; five hundred hectares (a hectare is a little over two acres) of the department of the Seine is devoted to this interesting culture. Epiny, near St. Denis, sends great quantities of asparagus to England every day. Meaden sends as large an amount of plums, while Honfleur and its suburbs dispatch to London a million francs worth of melons.

Kitchen-garden culture may then be called a peculiarly French branch of industry, for its productions figure in all the European markets, and even in Senegal and North America.

THE ROMANCE OF TRADE.

Lundy Foot, the celebrated snuff manufacturer of Dublin, originally kept a small tobacco-shop at Limerick, Ireland. One night his house, which was uninsured, was burnt to the ground. As he contemplated the smoking ruins on the following morning, in a state bordering on despair, some of the poor neighbors, groping among the embers for what they could find, stumbled upon several canisters of unconsumed but half-baked snuff, which they tried, and found so grateful to their noses, that they loaded their waistcoat pockets with the spoil.

Lundy Foot, roused from his stupor, at length imitated their example, and took a pinch of his own property, when he was instantly struck by the superior pungency and flavor it had acquired from the great heat to which it had been exposed. Treasuring up this valuable hint, he took another house, in a place called “Black Yard,” and preparing a large oven for the purpose, set diligently about the manufacture of that high-dried commodity, which soon became known as “Black Yard Snuff”—a term subsequently corrupted into the more familiar word “Blackguard.”

Lundy Foot, making his customers pay liberally through the nose for one of the most “distinguished” kinds of snuff in the world, soon raised the price of his production, took a larger house in the city of Dublin, and was often heard to say—“I made a very handsome fortune by being, as I supposed, utterly ruined!”

When he was rich enough to own and use a carriage, he applied to Lord Norbury for an appropriate motto for its panels. The wily Judge suggested the Latin phrase, “*Quid rides?*”

EXPEDIENTS OF SMUGGLERS.

A gentleman from Paris writes the following :—I saw through one of the windows of the Mayor's office, in the twelfth arrondissement, the body of a negro hanging by the neck. At the first glance, and even at the second, I took it for a human being, whom disappointed love, or perhaps an expeditious judge, had disposed of so suddenly ; but I soon ascertained that the ebony gentleman in question was only a large doll, as large as life. What to think of this I did not know, so I asked the door-keeper the meaning of it.

"This is the Contraband Museum," was the answer ; and on my showing a curiosity to examine it, he was kind enough to act as my cicerone.

In a huge dirty room are scattered over the floor, along the walls and on the ceiling, all the inventions of roguery which had been confiscated from time to time by those guardians of the law, the revenue officers.

It is a complete arsenal of the weapons of smuggling, all, unfortunately, in complete confusion.

Look before you ; there is a hogshead dressed up for a nurse, with a child that holds two quarts and a half. On the other side are logs hollow as the Trojan horse, and filled with armies of cigars. On the floor lies a huge boa constrictor, gorged with China silks ; and just beyond it, a pile of coal curiously perforated with spools of cotton.

The colored gentlemen who excited my sympathy at first, met with his fate under the following circumstances :—He was built of tin, painted black, and stood like a heyduck, or Ethiopian chasseur, on the foot-board of a carriage, fastened by his feet and hands. He had frequently passed through the gates, and was well known by sight to the soldiers, who noticed he was always showing his teeth, which they supposed to be the custom of his country.

One day the carriage he belonged to was stopped by a crowd at the gate. There was, as usual, a grand chorus of yells and oaths, the vocal part being performed by the drivers and cartmen, and the instrumental by the whips.

The negro, however, never spoke a single word. His good behaviour delighted the soldiers, who held him up as an example to the crowd.

"Look at that black fellow," they cried, "see how well he behaves ! Bravo, nigger, bravo !"

He showed a perfect indifference to their applause.

"My friend," said a clerk at a barrier, jumping up on the foot-board, and slapping our sable friend on the shoulder, "we are very much obliged to you."

Oh, surprise ! the shoulder rattled. The officer was bewildered, he sounded the footman all over, and found he was made of metal, and as full as his skin could hold of the very best contraband liquor drawn out of his foot.

The juicy mortal was seized at once, and carried off in triumph.

The first night the revenue people drank up one of his shoulders, and he was soon bled to death. It is now six years since he lost all the moisture of his system, and was reduced to a dry skeleton.

 CHRONICLES OF THE COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON.

A correspondent of the *Charleston Courier* has culled from the pages of "*The Political Magazine and Parliamentary, Naval, Military and Literary Journal*," published in London in 1780, with a view to ascertain facts in relation to that city, and incidentally to Carolina. We give a few of his extracts, as follows :—

"In 1686 the Spaniards invaded Carolina. In April, 1693, the labors of Locke were abrogated on the requisition of the Carolinas themselves. It was not until twenty-seven years after that this province acquired the appellation of North and South Carolina. About this time rice was introduced by a brigantine from Madagascar, touching at Sullivan's Island in her way to Britain. About the beginning of this century Sir Nathaniel Johnson introduced the culture of silk. After a long and violent opposition, the Church of England was established by law.

"In 1715 Charleston consisted of five or six hundred houses. In 1740 a great fire, in the space of six hours, destroyed three hundred of the best houses.

"In 1744 two hundred and thirty vessels loaded at Charleston ; fifteen hundred seamen, at least, employed.

"In 1745 indigo was discovered to be a spontaneous plant in the province. Many of the planters doubled their capital every three or four years by planting indigo.

"In 1724 British goods valued at near £60,000, imported. Eighteen thousand barrels of rice, 52,000 barrels of pitch, tar, and turpentine, with deer-skins, furs, and raw silk were exported to England.

"In 1761 rice 40s. a barrel, indigo 2s. a pound; yet as the quantity increased the price rose, for in 1771 rice sold at £3 10s. a barrel, and indigo at 3s. a pound. At the peace of 1762, and for three years after, on an average the export was £395,666 13s. 4d., but in 1771 the export had risen to the amazing value of £756,000 sterling.

"In 1773, 507 vessels cleared at Charleston. In December, 1799, the militia muster roll in Charleston 1,400 men; inhabitants 14,000. Province militia muster roll 13,000. Total white inhabitants 65,000. The whole number of negroes and mulattoes in the province upward of 100,000."

POLITENESS IN DUNNING.

An old gentleman had owed a firm for years; at last, after everybody's patience and temper were exhausted, a clerk named Frank undertook to get the money.

Frank called upon the gentleman, and met with a polite reception, and the usual answer, with the addition, "You need not trouble yourself, young man, about the matter; I will make it all right."

"O, no," replied Frank, "I could not think for a moment of compelling you to call at the store for a few dollars. It will not be the slightest inconvenience for me to stop in, as I pass your place of business six times a day, to and from my meals, and I can call every time I go by."

"Here," said the old fellow to his bookkeeper, alarmed at the prospect of being dunned six times a day for the next six months, "pay this impertinent rascal. He can beat me in politeness, and, if he wants a situation, I will give him two thousand dollars a year."

SMUGGLING IN CHINA.

A correspondent of the London *Spectator*, whose letter is published in the *Chinese Repository*, says:—

Smuggling is no new thing in China. Nothing in all the land seems better regulated, or to be conducted more systematically than this branch of business. How far its tariff of duties has been reduced to writing no one can tell; indeed, every tariff in China is merely nominal, as different from the reality as can well be imagined. One of these new features, the only one I will allude to, seems to have resulted from the stolidity of the functionaries connected with the native custom-house department. Because a foreign vessel happened to be furnished with a certain kind of machinery, her owners must be subjected to any amount of annoyance the custom-house people might see fit to impose. The managers of the steamer were not to be wronged in this way, nor were those who wished to ship cargo by her; and accordingly they arranged their own business. The amount of duties lost on the one side, and saved on the other, by this measure, must, some persons say, be reckoned by thousands of dollars!

STUDY AND BUSINESS.

In learning, concentrate the energy of mind principally on the study; the attention divided among several studies is weakened by the division; besides, it is not given to man to excel in many things. But while one study claims your main attention, make occasional excursions into the fields of literature and science, and collect materials for the improvement of your favorite pursuit.

The union of contemplative habits constructs the most useful and perfect character; contemplation gives relief to action; action gives relief to contemplation. A man unaccustomed to speculation is confined to a narrow routine of action; a man of more speculation constructs visionary theories, which have no practical utility.

Excellence in a profession, and success in business, are to be obtained only by persevering industry. None who thinks himself above his vocation can succeed in it, for we cannot give our attention to what our self-importance despises. None can be eminent in his vocation who devotes his mental energy to a pursuit foreign to it, for success in what we love is failure in what we neglect.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Napoleon Dynasty; or, the History of the Bonaparte Family. An entirely new work.* By the BERKELEY MEN. With twenty authentic portraits. 8vo., pp. 621. New York: Cornish & Lamport.

This may truly be called a new work on the Life and Family of Napoleon. It is summary and rapid as a historical outline, and presents rather a dramatic life of the great emperor. But the scenes are drawn in such striking colors, and with such distinctness of thought, that the minds of all readers will be engrossed by the narrative. Its style is suited to make as strong an impression upon the popular mind as "an array with banners." And, in truth, it possesses much of the glitter and the clang of arms, with a corresponding force and strength in the thought. It is a work that all will be pleased to dip into, and be moved by many striking views which it presents in the life of this great man; but it is not a volume of calm and patient thought, over whose pages the scholar or the historical reader would delight to linger as a fountain of clear and refreshing intelligence. Striking as are many of its pages, to such a mind they are not satisfactory, and one looks over them as he would gaze at the brilliant and wonderful play of an aurora, whose impressions afterwards fade away. We have here the Bonaparte Dynasty brought together in a group. Seventeen distinct biographies are arranged around the principal figure of the picture. The portions devoted to the sisters of Bonaparte are quite interesting; and truly the entire volume will be found to contain new material of much extent. It is issued in a very fine style by the publishers, with the exception of the portraits, which are too poor for a book of such pretensions.

- 2.—*Life and Public Services of Henry Clay. Down to 1848.* By EPES SARGEANT. Edited to his death by H. GREELEY. 12mo., pp. 491. Auburn: Derby & Miller.

The life of Clay is a subject of interest to every American citizen. The lead which he took in public affairs, the influence upon the prominent measures of the country, which he exerted for so long a period, render a familiarity with his career indispensable to every one who would understand the true spirit of his times. In these pages we are presented with all that is important in the life of Mr. Clay, brief, condensed, and yet with sufficient fullness to be satisfactory to the general reader. The work is written in an animated and popular style, such as will meet with the approbation of the most extensive class of readers.

- 3.—*The Cæsars.* By THOMAS DE QUINCY, author of the "Confessions of an English Opium Eater." 12mo., pp. 295. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the fourth volume of the series of De Quincy's writings, and in our opinion the best of them. No one who possesses a taste for the charms of literature can read its pages without delight. The characters of the Roman Cæsars are delineated with a correctness of perception, a delicate and masterly appreciation, and, withal, a modesty and gracefulness of language, that holds the reader's attention fixed upon the polished periods that flow beneath his eyes. The series is not yet complete. It is to be followed by the autobiography that appeared in *Tait's Magazine*, and by the "Sketches of Literary Men," when it will form one of the choicest series that has been lately published.

- 4.—*Meyer's Universum.* Part 3. New York: Hermann J. Meyer.

The subjects of the plates in this part are "The Walhalla," in Bavaria; "The Temple of the Sun at Balbec;" and "Street Scenery in Constantinople." The plates are very finely executed. The text which explains them is performed with much fullness of historical incident by Mr. C. Dana, and is exceedingly interesting and valuable.

- 5.—*Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation. With a Sequel.* 12mo., pp. 288. Cincinnati: A. J. & U. P. James.

This is a new edition of an able and important work, already well known to the public, for the peculiar views which it presents. It is issued in a cheap and serviceable style.

- 6.—*The History of the United States of America, from the Adoption of the Federal Constitution to the End of the Sixteenth Congress.* By RICHARD HILDRETH. Vol. 3. Madison and Monroe. 8vo., pp. 739. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume resumes the narrative with the extra session of Congress in October, 1807, and closes with the session of Congress in March, 1821. It completes the work according to the plan of the author in six volumes, of which the first three are chiefly taken up with the narrative of this country previous to the adoption of the Constitution, and the last three with its national history. In many respects this is a model history. It occupies a field somewhat distinct from Bancroft's, so that neither one detracts from the value of the other. It is a severe narrative of facts, possessing very little of that rich and glowing eloquence of Bancroft, but chaste, calm, severe, and truthful to the extremest details. Its statements of facts are such as to obtain for it the rank of high authority, and its inferences, its general views, and its suggestions respecting national principles, are such as coincide with the views of those who hold the power, and wield the most intelligent influence in the country. We do not view it as a work in which the democratic element is supreme as in Bancroft's; neither can it be regarded as always truly expressing the sentiment of the people as such, in distinction and opposition to the other powerful influences in our social system. It is, however, an invaluable, indispensable work to every one who desires to comprehend our national history.

- 7.—*The Mother at Home; or, the Principles of Maternal Duty familiarly illustrated.* By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT. Improved and Enlarged, with Numerous Engravings. 12mo., pp. 301.

- 8.—*The Child at Home; or, the Principles of Filial Duty familiarly illustrated.* By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT. Greatly Improved and Enlarged, with Numerous Engravings. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These two volumes, each of which is the counterpart of the other, aim to afford to mothers, in the common walks of life, plain and simple instruction relative to the right discharge of their mutual duties, and to aid them in leading the minds of their children to proper views of their obligations to God, to their parents, and to one another. Each is intended for perusal both by parent and child. They are admirable works for the object in view. The first edition of them has been translated into various languages, and circulated extensively throughout the Christian world.

- 9.—*Lois Eating; A Summer Book.* By GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS. Illustrated by Kennet. 12mo., pp. 206. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The Hudson, Catskill, Trenton, Niagara, Saratoga, Lake George, Nahant, and Newport, are the places of which pictures are presented in this volume. The style of each is uniform, as the work of one hand. They are pleasant, entertaining, and agreeable, and far more meritorious than many works of the kind. But we must confess there are not manifest to us those surprising attractions which many have found in this volume. To us there is none of that clearness of thought or expression which is the true index of all superior intellectual or literary talent.

- 10.—*Marco Paul's Voyage and Travels. Erie Canal.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 203.

- 11.—*Marco Paul in New York.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 192.

- 12.—*Marco Paul in Maine.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 190.

- 13.—*Marco Paul in Vermont.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 308. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It is the aim of these volumes both to entertain the youthful reader with narratives of juvenile adventures, and to communicate, in connection with them, as extensive and varied information as possible, respecting the geography, the scenery, the customs, and the institutions of the country as they present themselves to the observation of the little traveler under the guidance of an intelligent and well informed companion, suited to assist him in the acquisition of knowledge and the formation of character. Perhaps there is no one among the popular writers of the day so capable as the author of these volumes to accomplish such a task. The various works are unexceptionable in sentiment, extremely entertaining in their contents, and are among the best books which can be put into the hands of youth.

- 14.—*The Holy Bible, Translated from the Latin Vulgate; diligently Compared with the Hebrew, Greek, and other Editions in divers Languages. With useful Notes, Critical, Historical, Controversial, and Explanatory, selected from the most Eminent Commentators.* By Rev. GEORGE HAYDOCK. 4to., Nos. 1 and 2. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This will make a very splendid edition of the Bible, if the elegance of these parts is preserved throughout. The typography is extremely beautiful, and the paper is firm, substantial, clear, and white. Each number is embellished with a well executed engraving, of superior merit in its design. It is published under the approbation of the Archbishop.

- 15.—*Up Country Letters.* Edited by Professor B——, National Observatory. 12mo., pp. 327. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Few readers will be prepared to anticipate, from the title of this volume, the genuine entertainment which its pages will afford. It describes no great events, or distinguished and blazing characters; but it takes the reader up into a quiet nook among the hills, and spreads before him such a variety of incidents and events, so full of real character and true feeling, in quiet life, that the gratification is far more intense than is afforded by subjects of much greater pretensions. It is written in a smooth and polished style, admirably adapted to its character, and is quite an original and racy work in these days, when the number of books is legion.

- 16.—*Book of Snobs.* By W. M. THACKERAY. 12mo., pp. 279. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Snobs are to be found in every society. Their two features are set forth in these pages with all the wit and sarcasm of Thackeray's inimitable pen. Every reader will be entertained with his truthful delineations. It forms one of the series of Appletons' admirable popular Library, and is entitled to a place among the choicest of these volumes.

- 17.—*The Laws of Life; with Special Reference to Physical Education.* By ELIZABETH BLOCKWELL, M. D. 12mo., pp. 179. New York: G. P. Putnam.

This volume consists of a series of lectures delivered to a class of ladies during the spring. It is devoted to physical education, the conditions of health, and the correction of vicious habits. It is unexceptionable in the manner in which it treats these important subjects, and indicates a thorough and scientific education, rare practical sense and great extent of observation, on the part of the writer. It cannot fail of producing an important influence upon the health and physical condition of woman.

- 18.—*Scenes and Thoughts in Europe.* By GEO. H. CALVERT. Second series. 12mo., pp. 185. New York: G. P. Putnam.

The scenes described in this volume occurred in parts of Germany, Switzerland, and France. They are of an instructive character. The author is thoughtful at all times, and his reflections contain more or less of interest to all readers. It is in some respects a volume of a higher order than such works generally are.

- 19.—*Arctic Journal; or, Eighteen Months in the Polar Regions.* By Lieut. OSBORN, 12mo., pp. 216. New York: G. P. Putnam.

The author of this volume commanded one of the vessels of the Royal Naval Expedition which sailed from Woolwich, England, in 1850, to search for Sir John Franklin. The vessel under his command was a steamer. The expedition was directed to explore Barrow's Straits south-westerly to Cape Walker, and westerly toward Melville Island, and north-westerly up Wellington Channel. The voyage was a perilous one, and its incidents are described with much spirit, and present us with many new ideas respecting that inhospitable portion of the globe.

- 20.—*The Art-Journal for August.* New York: George Virtue.

The first embellishment of this number consists of an engraving of a statue of "Highland Mary," by B. E. Sperm. The engraving is very finely done, but some parts of the design are clumsy. The next is the "Raffle for the Watch," from a picture in the Vernon Gallery; and the last is a rather fine engraving of a "Persian Warrior." There are, in addition, many lesser engravings and cuts with the usual amount of reading on artistic subjects. It is beyond question the best work of its class.

- 21.—*Eoline: Magnolia Vale. A Novel.* By CAROLINE LEE HENTZ. 12mo., pp. 261. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

- 22.—*Pencil Sketches; or, Outlines of Character and Manners.* By MISS LESLIE. Including *Washington Potts*, with other stories. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 216 and 215. Philadelphia: A Hart.

Many of our readers may, perhaps, remember this tale, which was first published some years since, and very favorably received. The characters and customs of former days invest it with all the attractiveness of novelty. It is entertaining, written in a commendable manner, and well worthy of perusal.

- 23.—*The American Flower-Garden Companion. Revised and Enlarged.* By EDWARD SAGEBS. Fourth edition. 12mo., pp. 207. Cincinnati: J. A. & U. P. James.

It is the design of this work to aid those who are desirous of becoming acquainted with the culture of flowers, and it presents a large amount of useful matter within the compass of a convenient manual of reference. Directions are given for laying out flower gardens, and descriptive lists are added of the various flowers and shrubs best adapted to the American flower-garden.

- 24.—*Lydia: a Woman's Book.* By MRS. NEWTON CROSLAND, author of "Partners for Life." 12mo., pp. 287. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This is a picture of woman's mind and heart, drawn by a woman's pen, or rather it is a picture of certain phases of life "from a woman's point of view." It contains scenes of much interest and power. It delineates the struggle between truth and falsehood with unusual ability, and in a style that will be appreciated by cultivated readers.

- 25.—*Single Blessedness; or Single Ladies and Gentlemen against the Slanders of the Pulpit, the Press, and the Lecture-Room, addressed to those who are really wise, and those who fancy themselves so.* 12mo., pp. 297. New York: C. S. Francis.

This is an effort to show that the unmarried state is a blessed one. It contains many thoughts which will be entertaining to those whose experience is limited in that state, and shows how well the case can be argued. At any rate, let the Bachelors have a hearing.

- 26.—*Thoughts on the Original Unity of the Human Race. Second Edition, with Additions and Improvements.* By CHARLES CALDWELL, M. D. 12mo., pp. 165. Cincinnati: J. A. & U. P. James.

In this volume the author aims to disprove the opinion of the original unity of the human race. He entertains the belief that he possesses some peculiar qualifications for this task, arising from his singular independence of mind. However this may be, the reader will find the case well stated in these pages, and enforced by many strong arguments.

- 27.—*Monterey Conquered; a Fragment from La Gran Ouivera, or Rome Unmasked. A poem.* 12mo., pp. 148. New York: C. Shepard & Co.

The beautiful and romantic region of the South-West was before the author, as the scene in which the events of this poem are conceived. Nor was the beautiful poem of Campbell, entitled "Wyoming," absent from his mind. He has written in a flowing verse, many passages of which possess merit. The poem will be found attractive and entertaining.

- 28.—*Scenes from Christian History.* 12mo., pp. 272. Boston: Crosby & Nichols. New York: C. S. Francis.

Some of those striking scenes which have taken place in the progress of Christianity are here briefly and clearly related. They serve to unfold the operations of Christian principles, and are so presented as to stimulate the youthful reader to prosecute an investigation into more extended and learned works on the subject.

- 29.—*Tallis' Scripture Natural History for Youth.* Part 14. New York: J. Tallis & Company.

A very elegant work, which presents the natural history of all the animals and birds mentioned in Scripture. The plates are executed with great taste and neatness.

- 30.—*The Illustrated Atlas and Modern History of the World.* By R. M. MARTIN, Parts 48 and 49. New York: J. Tallis & Co.

These parts contain very finished engravings of the cities of Exeter and Bristol, England, with some further pages of the index of the work.